

1 The Conceptualization and Preliminary Evaluation of a Dynamic, Mechanistic
2 Mathematical Model to Assess the Water Footprint of Beef Cattle Production

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19 **Abstract**

20 The water footprint assessment method has helped to bring livestock water use
21 to the forefront of research to address water challenges under the ecological footprint
22 perspective. The current assessment methods of water use make a meaningful
23 assessment of livestock water use difficult as they are mainly static, thus poorly
24 adaptable to understand future scenarios of water use and requirements. They lack the
25 integration of fundamental ruminant nutrition and growth equations within a dynamic
26 context that accounts for short and long-term behavior and time delays associated with
27 economically important beef producing areas. This study utilized the System Dynamics
28 methodology to conceptualize a water footprint for ruminants within a dynamic and
29 mechanistic modeling framework. The problem of beef cattle livestock water footprint
30 assessment was articulated, and a dynamic hypothesis was formed to represent the
31 Texas livestock water use system as the initial step in developing the Texas Beef Water
32 Footprint model (**TXWFB**). The fulfillment of the dynamic hypothesis required the
33 development of three causal loop diagrams (**CLD**): cattle population, growth and
34 nutrition, and the livestock water footprint. The CLD provided a framework that captured
35 the daily water footprint of beef (**WF_B**) of the cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot phases and
36 the entire beef supply chain. Preliminary simulations captured the oscillatory behavior of
37 the Texas cattle population and overshoot and collapse behavior, under conditions
38 when regional livestock water resources became scarce. Sensitivity analysis from the
39 hypothesized CLD structures indicated that forage quality was less of an impact on the
40 daily **WF_B** of each cattle phase compared to the use of high concentrate feeds. This

41 study provided a framework concept for the development of a dynamic water footprint
42 model for Texan's beef cattle production and water sustainability.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Global demand for water resources has created much pressure for sectors that
46 have large water footprints (1). These sectors include industry, household, and
47 agriculture. Within the agriculture sector, livestock production has received a large
48 amount of scrutiny. It has created the impetus for assessing and reducing livestock
49 water use. Initial efforts to understand, quantify, and standardize livestock water use
50 have been made by the Water Footprint Network, the International Standards
51 Organization, and the Food and Agriculture Organization, amongst many other methods
52 (2). Most livestock water use methods include some form of the water footprint
53 assessment (**WFA**) method developed by Hoekstra in 2002 (3). The WFA includes the
54 quantification of three specific water types, green (rainfed), blue (ground or surface),
55 and grey (waste treatment) water uses that account for the total direct, and indirect
56 water (i.e., virtual water) used to produce a product (4) .

57 Current livestock water use literature indicates that beef cattle have the most
58 significant water use among different livestock, making the quantification of beef water
59 use the predominant area of interest and investigation. However, beef cattle also have
60 the broadest range of water footprint values caused by numerous water use
61 methodologies and the associated interpretations of their results combined with broad
62 differences in production efficiency. The most notable difference between beef water
63 use methodologies is how they account for green, blue, and grey waters, if at all, and

64 their functional unit. Consistency is another problem. For example, livestock water use
65 may be in liters of water per kg of live weight, hundredweight, carcass weight, or
66 boneless beef. Additionally, regional and environmental considerations may further
67 change the functional unit into an index of scarcity based on available and returned
68 water use over a given period (e.g., a month) (5).

69 Legesse et al. (2) provide a comprehensive review of current methodologies to
70 assess beef livestock water use, and more recently, the Food and Agriculture
71 Organization (6) published a standardized methodology for livestock water use systems
72 and supply chains. Standardizing the evaluation of livestock water use is essential to
73 determine the actual resource consumption and allocation per area (e.g., country or
74 state). Water use evaluation also helps to indicate levels of unsustainable water use
75 and water scarcity and provides a benchmark to improve upon (7–9). Therefore, one
76 can optimize the management of world freshwater resources based on the water
77 footprint, because it considers direct and indirect use of all components of the water
78 usage geographically (e.g., country, province, state) and temporally. Despite these
79 tremendous efforts, the current methodologies are still based on static frameworks,
80 limited periods of assessment, and neglect to capture the structure of the problem of
81 livestock water use quantification. It presents a big limit to forecast water use by
82 production sectors, to formulate or simulate possible scenarios for future water
83 management in the production areas and to evaluate technical strategies to improve
84 water use efficiency in the production chains. Animals are grown in dynamic,
85 continuous systems that receive feedback from climate, soil, available feed, and supply
86 chain dynamics. Tedeschi and Fox (10) described the evolution of computer-based

87 simulation models to adequately evaluate ruminant livestock feed and water
88 requirements. However, there has been no attempt to link animal growth, the plane of
89 nutrition, and water requirement in a dynamic, long-term assessment. Current livestock
90 water use methodologies are missing these equations and fail to account for continuous
91 diurnal physiological and environmental processes (Fig 1). Furthermore, these
92 processes are often delayed in time and are dynamically interconnected through
93 powerful feedback mechanisms that influence daily and total water use. Turner et al.
94 (11), for example, described numerous agriculture examples of the need for a dynamic
95 methodology to solve complex agriculture challenges more adequately. Few
96 researchers (12–18) have published dynamic models relating to cattle that provide
97 meaningful perspective and high-leverage policies to influence systems over the long-
98 term. Therefore, there is a need to more critically evaluate the beef water footprint
99 (**WF_B**) using available cutting-edge ruminant nutrition and growth equations (10) with a
100 dynamic framework to advance available water footprint assessment methodologies
101 and perform various, highly functional and rapid, policy analyses.

102
103 **Fig 1. Overview of equations types in various models.** Equation sources include the
104 Water Footprint Assessment (**WFA**), Ruminant Nutrition System (**RNS**), National
105 Academies of Science, Engineering and Medicine (**NASEM**) and the Texas Beef Cattle
106 Water Footprint (**TXWFB**) Models and their equation types.

107
108 Within the United States, an area that is economically dependent on beef cattle
109 production is Texas, one of the top-five cattle producing states (19). Texas also covers

110 many large and diverse geographical and climatic regions in which the three major
111 phases of beef production exists. Additionally, management of cattle in each region
112 have their own respective ecological and resource limitations (e.g. drought,
113 unproductive soils) and benefits (water availability, favorable climates). Thus, this study
114 focuses on Texas, at a state level of aggregation, for the development the conceptual
115 framework due to its robust representation of beef cattle production under many
116 ecological and climatic regions.

117 The first objective of this study was to describe relevant information about the
118 water use processes involved in beef cattle production at the ranching level for
119 developing a dynamic water footprint model. The second objective was to conceptualize
120 these processes into a dynamic framework (i.e., dynamic hypothesis) that would allow a
121 dynamic water footprint model to be developed and evaluated. The third objective was
122 to provide preliminary calibration of the proposed dynamic framework to improve its
123 ability to capture important feedback signals in cattle water use over time and assess its
124 suitability for model formulation (i.e., the addition of equations).

125 **Material and methods**

126 **System dynamics methodology**

127 The primary objective of improving existing WF_B WFA was accomplished by
128 applying the System Dynamics (**SD**) methodology in developing our model framework.
129 The SD methodology is an approach well adapted to understanding complex systems
130 (20,21). Complexity in water management is related to non-linear dynamics which are
131 non-linear relationships between variables that may have a tremendous influence on a
132 system's behavior or none. For example, cattle may accumulate heat over a given time.

133 However, it is not until a point at which their body can no longer maintain homeostasis
134 that declines in feed intake are observed. These non-linear dynamics are guided by
135 feedback mechanisms (i.e., loops) that can be reinforcing (e.g., accumulation of heat) or
136 balancing (e.g., decrease in feed intake) whose influences are delayed over time. Often,
137 the unintended consequences of decisions in the cattle industry are difficult to
138 understand and change because managers react to events (e.g., diminished feed
139 intake) instead of understanding the structure (i.e., environmental exposure, body
140 condition, breed type, feed type) that is driving the system.

141 This approach uses a high level of aggregation to describe the overarching
142 structure of a system in which the problem exists and captures important non-linear
143 dynamics, feedbacks, and time delays that are responsible for the inertia that drives the
144 system behavior. The modeling process is based on well defined steps approaching
145 system understanding. Step one enables the problem to be clearly articulated and
146 defined, explicitly states what the model aims to understand and resolves the purpose
147 of the model. Step two, dynamic hypothesis formulation, describes the model
148 boundaries clearly, it consists of a concise statement or causal loop diagram that clearly
149 describes the hypothesized endogenous (variables that are part of the feedback
150 dynamics) structure that drives the problem behavior. Exogenous variables, according
151 to SD nomenclature, are variables that do not receive feedback from variables within
152 the system. Problem articulation and formulation of a dynamic hypothesis are iterative
153 processes and should improve throughout the modeling process. This study utilized
154 steps one and two of the SD method to articulate the problem and develop several
155 causal loop diagrams (**CLD**; diagram of endogenous variables) that resulted in a

156 dynamic hypothesis CLD and statement. Steps one and two were accomplished by
157 conducting an extensive review of literature, identifying key variables, using expert
158 knowledge, and published SD models to best capture the structure of the system in
159 which the problem exists.

160 **Problem statement and dynamic hypothesis**

161 The dynamic problem statement included the definition of the lack of knowledge
162 limiting an accurate determination of Texas beef waterfootprint and its use to formulate,
163 and test, adequate policies for efficient resource use. The problem statement focused on
164 the model conceptualization with the inclusion of key variables from the beef chain
165 (regarding herd dynamics, productivity, management of growing phases, commercial
166 trade, environmental constraints, etc) and strongly affecting water use at farm and
167 regional level.

168 The dynamic hypothesis expresses the hypothesized structure of the system in
169 which the problem of current WFA WF_B assessment exists (Fig 2) and was used to
170 develop specific conceptual submodels that, when aggregated, represent the core Texas
171 Beef Water Footprint model (TXWFB) parameters and boundaries. Local, domestic, and
172 international water resources attribute to the total input of green, blue, and grey waters
173 used for Texas beef cattle production. Forage and crop production yield (t/ha) and water
174 use (m^3/ha) efficiency affect the specific water demand (m^3/t) of pasture and feedstuffs
175 and depend upon the management practices of multiple beef cattle stakeholders:
176 ranchers, landowners, hay suppliers, farmers, feed mills, and feedlots. Stakeholder
177 management practices also alter the water demands for cooling, chemical mixing,
178 cleaning, waste treatment, dust control, nutrient and drinking requirements, and animal

179 growth and performance (i.e., obtaining mature weight, size, and carcass quality; Fig 2:
180 loops R1, R2, R3). The centralization and decentralization of the three major cattle
181 production phases (i.e., cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot) across a wide range of climate
182 and environmental conditions, sub-tropical to arid, create a disparity in water used at each
183 phase and collectively between all phases; resulting from significant gaps in
184 communication across the supply chain (Fig 2: loops R4, B1). Communication gaps
185 include the lack of knowledge transfer of cattle water use levels as they progress across
186 the supply chain.

187
188 **Fig 2. The dynamic hypothesis causal loop diagram.** Blue arrows indicate linkages
189 between variables and plus (+) and minus (-) signs denote variables relationship (i.e.,
190 same or opposite directionality). Perpendicular lines on linkages indicate time delays for
191 processes to occur between variables. The circular arrows indicate the direction of the
192 feedback pathway (i.e., clockwise or counterclockwise) where the R is reinforcing and
193 the B is balancing. Bolded wording indicates the name of each loop.

194
195 Further, smaller operations tend to be more heterogeneous in management and
196 water use efficiency but still account for a large proportion of total water use, while more
197 extensive operations are mainly homogenous in terms of management. Therefore, the
198 variation of the Texas beef cattle population, water use, existing resource availability,
199 and limitations impact water allocation (m^3), water cost (USD/ m^3), total meat production
200 (kg), and marginal profitability (\$/kg meat; Fig 2: loop B2). Local, state, and federal
201 agencies may incentivize or disincentivize beef cattle stakeholders' level of water use

202 efficiency for beef cattle operations as water scarcity or consumer perception change.
203 Identification of actual water use and comparative advantage amongst Texas regions
204 and feedstuff type/production efficiency [i.e., specific water use(m³/t crop or forage)]
205 provides baseline TXWFB measurements for sustainable water use and helps to bridge
206 communication gaps between major beef cattle production phases for high leverage,
207 water-reducing, improvements. Providing a baseline TXWFB value to show current and
208 marked improvement in beef water use may also relieve consumer's perception that
209 consuming beef is unsustainable and harmful to the environment. Instead, TXWFB has
210 the potential to indicate to consumers that areas dominated by grasslands and
211 rangelands have the appropriate ecological capacity to produce beef and that
212 alternatives such as increased grain crop production (lower-water costs) in lieu of beef
213 may have unintended economic (decrease of US competitiveness) and environmental
214 consequences (land and water degradation, the loss of nutrient cycling, wildlife/insect
215 habitat and ecological goods and services).

216 **Model conceptualization**

217 A professional version of dynamic modeling software, Vensim DSS, was used to
218 visualize three specific submodels in the form of CLD from the factors identified in the
219 dynamic hypothesis statement. The conceptual submodels include (1) cattle population,
220 (2) growth and nutrition, and (3) the livestock water footprint. The methods section
221 references Figs 2-5 and uses panel A (the top half) to visualize the model structure. In
222 the results section Figs with two panels (A and B) are describe independtly and together
223 to convey the resulting behavior of each conceptual structure.

224 **Cattle population**

225 The production of beef cattle in the United States is segmented (cow-calf,
226 stocker, and feedlot) and follow the same general pattern like many regions around the
227 world (10), but specific intricacies exist among regions, even within the United States,
228 that impact the WF_B (Fig 3). Cattle management decisions for reproduction, growth, and
229 sales are influenced by available resources (i.e., time, finances, feed, water), and
230 economics. Collectively, short and long-term decisions influence cattle populations
231 throughout the cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot phases. First, the cow-calf phase (Fig 3A)
232 serves as the primary reinforcing structure that ensures beef cattle will be available
233 each year through the development of replacement heifers and maintenance of a
234 mature cow herd (Fig 3A: loop R1 Breeding Population).

235 **Fig 3. The dynamic structure of the beef cattle population (A) and an example of**
236 **oscillatory behavior from the structure of the cattle population system (B).** Blue
237 arrows indicate linkages between variables and plus (+) and minus (-) signs denote
238 variables relationship (i.e., same or opposite directionality). Perpendicular lines on
239 linkages indicate time delays for processes to occur between variables. The circular
240 arrows indicate the direction of the feedback pathway (i.e., clockwise or
241 counterclockwise) where the R is reinforcing and the B is balancing. Bolded wording
242 indicates the name of each loop.

243

244 Replacement heifers, after a two-year delay, will return to the mature cow herd
245 and contribute to the next generation of progeny. This is a closed-loop system, meaning
246 that the feedback exists between the number of calves born and the number of
247 replacement animals available to sustain a commercially viable population.

248 Consequently, mature cows, calves, and replacement heifers within this feedback loop
249 are consuming resources. Calves not selected for re-breeding (heifers or steers) enter
250 the portion of the beef cattle supply chain that terminates at slaughter when a desired
251 mature weight is obtained. The desired number of stocker and feedlot cattle reduce the
252 calves that are available for rebreeding (Fig 3A: loops B1 Stocker Population; B2
253 Feedlot Cattle Population). The duration of resource allocation to cattle varies greatly
254 throughout the beef supply chain. For example, weaned calves may remain at the same
255 ranch and region, or they may be sold and shipped to an entirely different region when
256 entering a new phase (e.g., stocker or feedlot phases). Calves may also be sold directly
257 to a feedlot phase and circumvent the stocker phase (i.e., Fig 3A; loop B3, Feedlot
258 Calves). Within the cow-calf phase, some cattle fail to be productive and do not or
259 cannot produce calves (Fig 3A: loops B4 Aging Out; B5 Unproductive Heifers) and are
260 culled for meat production which decreases (balancing action) the total breeding
261 population. Similar to the population loop in Fig 3A., stocker and feedlot cattle are
262 consuming resources for different durations and at different water use intensities; some
263 regions may have higher or lower water use intensities associated with forages, grains,
264 and from climatic conditions. Overall, Fig 3A provides the fundamental structure of the
265 primary reinforcing mechanism (R1: Breeding Population) and balancing mechanisms
266 that sustain the beef cattle population and maintains a stable supply of beef for
267 consumption. Similar structures have been used for hogs (22) and beef cattle (13,23).
268 Conceptualization of this part of the problem, daily WF_B assessment, captures the
269 importance of resource use duration and variation that exists within and across the beef
270 cattle supply chain.

271 **Growth and nutrition**

272 Population dynamics (Fig 3A) drive the behavior of the system and influence the
273 nutrition and growth dynamics within and across each major cattle production phase
274 (Fig 4); cow-calf, stocker, feedlot (Fig 4A). Each phase contains a reinforcing feedback
275 mechanism that influences weight (kg). Weight drives the amount of dry matter intake
276 (DMI), which influences the rate of gain (kg/day). Suckling calves (not weaned)
277 consume milk primarily and then shift to forage-based diets as they mature (Fig 3A: loop
278 R1 Breeding Population, Fig 4A: loop R2 Calf Development) (24).

279

280 **Fig 4. The dynamic structure of cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot growth and**
281 **nutrition and interlinkages across the supply chain (A) and an example of cattle**
282 **growth (kg/day) behavior (B).** Where DMI means dry matter intake. Blue arrows
283 indicate linkages between variables and plus (+) and minus (-) signs denote variables
284 relationship (i.e., same or opposite directionality). Perpendicular lines on linkages
285 indicate time delays for processes to occur between variables. The circular arrows
286 indicate the direction of the feedback pathway (i.e., clockwise or counterclockwise)
287 where the R is reinforcing and the B is balancing. Bolded wording indicates the name of
288 each loop. The weaned calf and stocker weight (panel B) represent the entire stocker
289 stage after weaning.

290

291 Maturity influences physiological and anatomical characteristics determining feed
292 inputs and virtual water use. Upon weaning of suckling calves, cessation of milk
293 production from cows (dams), the calves enter the stocker stage and consume primarily

294 forages. Forage quality and duration of the stocker phase influences the rate of growth
295 and weight that stocker cattle will obtain during this phase (Fig 4A: loop R3 Stocker
296 Development). Milk and forage inputs generally utilize less virtual water (m^3) as the cow-
297 calf and stocker phases obtain resources from pasture, grasslands, and rangelands.
298 The majority of stocker cattle will progress to the feedlot where their diet is transitioned
299 over a three-week period from forages (pasture or roughages) to a high concentrate-
300 based ration; total mixed ration (**TMR**; Fig 4A: loop R4 Feedlot Development). High
301 concentrate TMRs result in higher rates of weight (muscle and fat; kg/day) deposition
302 during this period, known as the finishing phase. However, the water use associated
303 with high concentrate diets [e.g., virtual water of grains (m^3/t)] is much higher than most
304 pasture and rangeland inputs (25). Aside from diet type, environmental factors are very
305 influential to cattle growth and performance regardless of the cattle phase. Extreme
306 temperatures have been shown to influence the DMI of cattle, and this exogenous (non-
307 feedback variable) has been described by Tedeschi and Fox (10) as the current
308 effective temperature index (CETI). Although the actual equation is not described, the
309 structure of the CETI equation is important as it is not an instantaneous calculation; it
310 was developed to account for the impact of climate on animals over a period (usually 15
311 days). The CETI captures the physical delay of heat accumulation and dissipation in
312 cattle affecting the animal's daily DMI and drinking water intake. In complex systems,
313 delays, such as the delay captured using the CETI, allows the hypothesized daily water
314 footprint model structure to account for short and long-term environmental impacts on
315 cattle nutrition. The cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot phases (Fig 4A: loops R2, R3, R4)
316 share the same nutrition and growth structure, indicating that if the adequate quality of

317 nutrients is available and environmental conditions do not limit feed, then the cattle in
318 each phase will continue to gain weight and increase DMI and their daily gain.
319 Additionally, the three development loops (Fig 4A: loops R2; R3; R4) are connected
320 between each phase as the animal progresses across the beef cattle supply chain (Fig
321 4A). Interestingly, the growth and nutritional dynamics are managed at each production
322 phase (i.e., independent). However, the stocker and feedlot phases are influenced by
323 the initial weight of the cattle they are receiving, which impacts their nutritional
324 requirements, potential growth, and the duration required to achieve desired weight to
325 reach slaughter (i.e., dependent; supply chain dynamics). Ultimately feed, and growth
326 dynamics affect daily cattle water use and the daily water footprint at each phase (cow-
327 calf, stocker, feedlot) and aggregated water use across the beef cattle supply chain (Fig
328 4A).

329 **Livestock water footprint**

330 The dry matter intake of the cattle population is the main driver of the cattle
331 performances (weight gain) and also of the water footprint. The daily water footprint is
332 an aggregation of drinking water and service water consumption (direct water use), and
333 also of pasture, hay, supplementation, and concentrates (e.g., grains) water uses
334 (virtual water) that represent the daily water use required to achieve cattle growth (26–
335 28). In this study the virtual water of feeds is determined using the specific water
336 demand (m^3/t) approach calculates is the amount of water (green or blue; m^3/ha ; i.e.,
337 evapotranspiration) used to produce a given amount of forage or grains (t/ha) (27,29).
338 The daily water footprint inputs are quantitatively dependent on the amount of feed
339 intake and are connected to the growth and nutrition feedback dynamics for each cattle

340 phase (i.e., cow-calf, stocker, and feedlot, see growth and nutrition section above and
341 Fig 4A). The daily water use (L/d) is then divided by the daily weight gain of boneless
342 beef (kg/d) to obtain a daily water footprint (L/kg). Daily boneless beef is the percent of
343 boneless beef of the live animal weight gain at a given physiological stage (i.e., young
344 to mature; nutrient demands). The, daily water footprint, differs from the WFA for
345 livestock in that the WFA only reports a WF_B at slaughter versus a continuous value
346 reported by the TXWFB.

347 Determining the daily water footprint reflects the average for cattle in similar beef
348 production supply chains. However, it does not reflect the total resource use or its
349 impact. Assessing beef cattle resource use and impact requires that the average WF_B
350 be multiplied by the cattle population in a given region (Fig 5; Fig 5A). As the cattle
351 population increases, so do the quantity of regional water use, and this reinforcing
352 relationship is accelerated or slowed by the instantaneous daily WF_B . If the regional
353 beef water use exceeds available water for livestock, then resources (e.g., drinking
354 water, forages, and grain) may become scarce or exceed the operating budget to
355 maintain profitability or, in extreme cases, cattle may die from lack of feed or water.
356 Therefore, the cattle population (Fig 3A) receives a balancing feedback action until
357 regional water levels are sufficient to sustain a given cattle population (Fig 5A: loop B6
358 Water Scarcity). The balancing loop of Fig 5A points out the carrying capacity of the
359 system which is represented by the water availability and the sustainability of this
360 resource. The fast or exponential growth of the beef sector will generate high pressure
361 on the regional water use, especially enhancing feed production and crop cultivations,
362 with increasing demand for blue man-managed water. A region will probably support

363 further beef cattle population growth until the delayed, and unintended effect of water
364 scarcity collapses the population. The dynamics of overshoots and collapses are well
365 known in natural resource exploitation (30).

366

367 **Fig 5. The daily livestock water footprint CLD (A) and an example of preliminary**
368 **TXWFB model simulation of overshoot and collapse behavior (B).** Blue arrows
369 indicate linkages between variables and plus (+) and minus (-) signs denote variables
370 relationship (i.e., same or opposite directionality). Perpendicular lines on linkages
371 indicate time delays for processes to occur between variables. The circular arrows
372 indicate the direction of the feedback pathway (i.e., clockwise or counterclockwise)
373 where the R is reinforcing and the B is balancing. Bolded wording indicates the name of
374 each loop. The daily cattle water consumption is a ratio between the daily cattle water
375 use (m^3/d) and the total available water for livestock (m^3). The smoothed cow population
376 is the averaged daily mature cow (cattle, not shown on-axis).

377

378 **Sensitivity analysis**

379 Upon completion of the population, growth and nutrition, and water footprint CLD
380 the model was parameterized with coefficients and equations from the Ruminant
381 Nutrition System (**RNS**) (10) and the Nutrient Requirements for Beef Cattle (31). This
382 preliminary calibration was then used to perform preliminary behavioral tests and
383 sensitivity analyses on critical components of the calibrated model. Behavior tests are
384 the evaluation of simulation results of a variable of interest to identify its pattern of
385 behavior over time (e.g., reinforcing, balancing, oscillation). Three behavior tests were

386 performed. The first test evaluated the behavior of the mature cow population by
387 simulating the population submodel for ~8 years. The second test evaluated the typical
388 behavior of the cattle growth and nutrition submodel across the cow-calf, stocker, and
389 feedlot phases. The third test evaluated the mature cow population, regional water
390 availability, and the proportion of daily cattle water consumption for ~18 years in a
391 water-limited scenario. Sensitivity analysis is a quantitative and qualitative model test
392 that indicates the amount of variation of a variable of interest (e.g., daily water footprint)
393 from the alteration of a constant variable [e.g., total digestible nutrients (**TDN**)]. The first
394 sensitivity analysis varied TDN values of forage (pasture and hay) and grains (i.e.,
395 individual components that comprise the TMR). The second sensitivity analysis ran
396 1000 simulations of the same TDN values as sensitivity test one ($\pm 10\%$) impact on the
397 daily WF_B . The third sensitivity analysis evaluated the daily WF_B by altering the daily dry
398 matter (**DM**) forage production rates 25, 75, 100 (kg/ha/day) in each cattle phase to
399 adjust the specific water demand (SWD; m^3/t) of forages and varied the SWD of grain
400 crops (corn = 30 to 1500, soybean = 1500 to 5000, and distillers grain = 0 to 1500 m^3/t)
401 (32). Collectively, the CLD, behavioral, and sensitivity methods provide preliminary
402 results that support the overarching hypothesized dynamic structure required for the
403 TXWFB to model a daily WF_B .

404 **Results and discussion**

405 The problem of the limitations of current WFA methodologies has been
406 articulated in the introduction section, and steps one and two of the SD method were
407 used to articulate the problem and form a dynamic hypothesis. The results of this study

408 include the major CLD diagrams, their associated behavior, and sensitivity to
409 parameters changes of important variables that influence the WF_B .

410 **Causal loop structures and behaviors**

411 The cattle population CLD identified one dominant reinforcing loop of the Texas
412 cattle population (Fig 3A: loop R1). Five unique balancing loops were identified that
413 cause the cattle population to decrease (Fig 3A: loops B1-5). The preliminary simulation
414 results of these six loops indicated that the Texas population has an oscillatory behavior
415 (Fig 3B). When synchronized with cattle population dynamics, three reinforcing loops
416 were identified for the cattle growth and nutrition CLD (Fig 4A) and resulted in the
417 reinforcing growth behavior of cattle weight for each cattle phase (Fig 4B). The growth
418 and nutrition dynamics directly influenced the water consumption of the beef supply
419 chain and the regional resource use (Fig 5A). Further, the dynamic structure of the
420 growth and nutrition CLD resulted in a positive linkage (i.e., if one increases or
421 decreases the linked variable does so as well) between DMI and four daily virtual (i.e.,
422 indirect) water uses (Fig 5A). Drinking and service water were the two direct water uses
423 identified in the WF_B CLD (Fig 5A). The WF_B CLD resulted in the linkage of daily cattle
424 weight (i.e., boneless beef) and total daily cattle water use, which represents the daily
425 water footprint (Fig 5A). Regional water scarcity and population dynamics were also
426 developed in the WF_B CLD and resulted in one balancing loop to account for cattle
427 population carrying capacity (Fig 5A: loop B6 Water Scarcity). Preliminary simulation of
428 the water scarcity loop was able to create overshoot and collapse behavior (Fig 5B).
429 Preliminary simulation of these cattle growth and nutrition and water footprint dynamics

430 indicated that non-linear relationships and delays play a role in daily weight gain relative
431 to the daily WF_B (Fig 6; Fig 6AB).

432

433 **Fig 6. Preliminary growth and nutrition sensitivity analysis.** The three scenarios include
434 base (640 days; 21.3 months), 90% of total digestible nutrient values (**TDN**; 749 days; 24.9
435 months), and 110% TDN nutrition (566 days; 18.6 months) impact on weight (A) and the daily
436 WF_B (B).

437 **Sensitivity analysis**

438 Initial sensitivity analyses were performed to evaluate changes in cattle live
439 weight (kg/d) and the daily WF_B (L water/kg boneless beef). The first sensitivity analysis
440 of TDN, three scenarios, indicated that the time required to reach the desired mature
441 weight (589 kg live weight) and the daily WF_B were increased and decreased with 90%
442 and 110% baseline TDN values, respectively (Fig 6AB). The second sensitivity analysis
443 of TDN, 1000 scenarios, showed that the feedlot stage had the most extensive daily
444 WF_B variability compared to the cow-calf and stocker stages (Fig 7; Fig 7A). The results
445 of the third sensitivity analysis of forage and crop SWD indicated that production
446 efficiency had a major impact on the daily WF_B across all beef cattle phases and that
447 the daily WF_B can be higher in cow-calf or stocker phases and lower in the feedlot
448 phase in some circumstances (Fig 7B).

449

450 **Fig 7. Preliminary sensitivity analysis.** Preliminary sensitivity analysis of $\pm 10\%$ of TDN
451 for forages and grains across all beef cattle phases (i.e., cow-calf, stocker, feedlot) on the daily
452 water footprint (L water/kg boneless beef; A). Preliminary sensitivity analysis of annual dry

453 matter forage production, low (6,838 kg/ha), medium (20,510 kg/ha) to high (27,350 kg/ha) on
454 the daily beef water footprint (L water/kg boneless beef; WF) and SWD of grains (B). Yellow,
455 green, blue, and grey colors represent the percent of simulated water footprint values
456 within given ranges.

457

458 **Discussion of the dynamic framework**

459 The SD methodology was successfully employed and contextualized existing
460 WFA methods into a dynamic conceptual framework. The hypothesized structure from
461 the dynamic hypothesis led to the conceptualization and preliminary behavioral and
462 sensitivity analysis of cattle population, growth and nutrition, and water footprint
463 dynamics. The population model produced the oscillatory behavior seen in other
464 existing animal population models (Fig 3B) (20,30,33). The behavior of the growth and
465 nutrition models was also as expected to show an increase in weight-dependent upon
466 nutrient quality, environment, and management (Figs 3A and 5A) (10,31,34,35).
467 Similarly, behavioral tests of the daily WF_B produced the expected increase of WF_B
468 levels as the time required to reach slaughter was prolonged, especially in the feedlot
469 stage (Figs 3A and 5A), and these behaviors have been identified by Mekkonen and
470 Hoekstra in 2012 (36). A combination of the cattle population and the daily cattle water
471 use relative to regionally available water, in a water-limited scenario, resulted in the
472 expected overshoot and collapse behavior. The overshoot and collapse behavior is a
473 harsh system response that reflects unsustainable cattle population growth and large
474 fluctuations in beef production and price (i.e., supply and demand). Sterman (20) gives
475 examples of overshoot and collapse in dynamic models and their market and business

476 strategy implications. Understanding and avoiding this pitfall is critical for beef cattle
477 stakeholders as livestock water use limitations, and pressure for more sustainable beef
478 production grow. Behavioral results increased the confidence that the WF_B framework
479 was adequate for livestock WFA and identified the long-term behavior types (e.g.,
480 oscillation, exponential growth/decay) of cattle population, growth and nutrition, and
481 WF_B within this system.

482 Agreement of CLD behavior with existing models and publications led to the
483 sensitivity analysis of critical constant parameters that were thought to be influential to
484 several variables of interest, the daily WF_B , cattle population, livestock water availability,
485 and cattle weight. Sensitivity analysis of TDN revealed expected sensitivity that cattle
486 weight and daily WF_B are generally lower when TDN is low, which is consistent with
487 ruminant nutrition and growth principles (Fig 6AB) (31). However, increased simulations
488 (1,000) revealed that TDN had the most significant impact at the feedlot stage from
489 TMRs with high concentrate diets, and these results are reasonable as cattle put on a
490 substantial proportion of their weight and increase DMI during this phase. This aligns
491 well with existing WF_B WFA that emphasizes the large water cost of feedlots (see
492 studies mentioned in the introduction section above). Interestingly, the sensitivity
493 analysis of forage and crop SWD revealed that the feedlot stage might have a lower
494 daily WF_B than the cow-calf or stocker stages (Fig 7AB). Ambiguity exists for SWD
495 values as pasture and hay (forage) growth, even within a region, depends on the
496 climate, management of stocking rates, and soil fertility of the land. Thus, the
497 improvement of forage water use efficiencies is likely a high-leverage solution to
498 improve the WF_B , and this should be investigated. Furthermore, the estimation of SWD

499 values for crops is even more confusing than forage production. The current WFA
500 method assesses high-resolution spatial areas to determine the SWD of grain crops in
501 the same region as the cattle. However, in Texas, feed resources are procured from
502 domestic (United States) and international sources, i.e., it is unlikely that grains
503 consumed by cattle came from the same region. Therefore, the sensitivity analysis of
504 grain crop SWD (e.g., corn and soybeans) that accounts for national SWD variation
505 provides a more robust analysis of actual green and blue virtual water uses and their
506 impact on the daily WF_B .

507 **Sustainability of production phases**

508 Often highly connected production supply chains lack communication between
509 phases or segments that cause unintended consequences that are delayed in time,
510 making it challenging to identify the root cause of a problem (e.g., WF_B). The dynamic
511 framework in the current study provides a means for dialogue about the identified
512 causal feedback mechanisms and delays that drive the WF_B within and across the cow-
513 calf, stocker, and feedlot phases. For example, Fig 8, couples the existing feedback
514 structures in this system and extends them to potential considerations for sustainability,
515 production efficiency, marketing of beef products, and consumer consensus as the
516 public becomes more aware of livestock water use intensities and the associated levels
517 of sustainability. The balancing loop of the water scarcity embodies the sustainability of
518 the beef sector connected to resource uses (Figs 4A: loop B6). A primary goal should
519 be to keep the daily water footprint of beef production as low as possible. Increases in
520 the daily water footprint of the agricultural sectors will decrease the regional water

521 availability, depress the growth of food production, and water use efficiency (Fig 8: loop
522 R6 Cattle Growth).

523

524 **Fig 8. Causal loop diagram of the critical dynamic structure (described in results)**
525 **and the anticipated feedback structure of public perception, marketing, and**
526 **efficiency on the long-term beef water footprint of the beef livestock supply chain.**

527

528 It will also reduce the food supply as a direct consequence. One of the most
529 powerful leverage points to reach high sustainability levels could be to reduce the daily
530 water footprint and keep increasing production efficiency (37). Improving efficiency will
531 increase cattle weight per unit of consumed water, or reduce the daily water use, ending
532 in a lower daily water footprint. Additionally, improvements in efficiency will allow water
533 resources to be spared and provide greater availability of regional water, which will
534 make the beef sector grow (Fig 8: loop B7 Resource Scarcity). As a positive side effect,
535 the lower environmental impact of the WF_B might increase consumer consensus for the
536 beef sector and the willingness to pay for environmentally friendly products. Increased
537 sales from environmentally friendly beef products will keep the pressure to continue to
538 improve cattle production efficiency for low impact beef (Fig 8: loop R7 Beef Marketing).
539 Being that resource scarcity is the only balancing loop of the system, the local and
540 regional water availability and water scarcity determine the potential level of
541 sustainability that a given area can reach (due to its internal carrying capacity). Using
542 the Life Cycle Assessment approach, Ridoutt and Pfister (38) developed an adjustment
543 factor that, in addition to the livestock water footprint estimate, allows the water footprint

544 to be scaled to local conditions concerning a water scarcity index (Water Stress Index).
545 The water stress index considers the local availability of the water resource, indicating
546 the quantity of water used that is potentially removed from other activities. The
547 application of this index means that the same production process could have a greater
548 impact if carried out in conditions of scarce water availability in respect to areas with
549 water abundance. Aside from regional considerations, the WF_B sustainability and
550 consumer willingness to purchase beef include the slaughter and meat fabrication,
551 retail, and household segments which were not included in this study. This proposed
552 dynamic structure should be extended to these beef cattle segments to complete the full
553 span of beef cattle water use and further identify specific leverage points for
554 improvements in sustainability, WF_B levels, and more explicit determination of water
555 uses. Thus, the question arises from this WF_B dynamic framework of how to capture
556 specific water uses of the WF_B from cattle producers, meat processors, retailers, and
557 consumers to understand meaningful long-term feedback relationships, delays, and the
558 potential consequences.

559 **Conclusions**

560 In conclusion, improved WF_B assessment is essential to achieve long-term
561 improvements in livestock water use within and across the beef cattle supply chain. This
562 study developed a dynamic framework to advance current WFA methods. The
563 preliminary behavioral and sensitivity evaluations indicated that the framework is
564 suitable to formulate the water footprint model for Texas with critical ruminant nutrition
565 and growth equations using dynamic modeling software. A dynamic daily WF_B is likely
566 to begin to resolve issues amongst existing WFA methodologies as it more accurately

567 represents the dynamic nature of daily and total livestock water use. The CLD and their
568 descriptions are essential and necessary to understand the complexity of the underlying
569 structure and dominant loops that drive the long-term behavior of this system. Overall,
570 freshwater challenges in agriculture livestock systems may be resolved by using this
571 preliminary TXWFB framework to enhance the current livestock water footprint and
572 supply chain assessment methods and quantify regional beef sustainability. Moreover,
573 this study provides a new perspective for understanding the necessity for improved
574 dialogue about WF_B sustainability within and across the beef cattle industry.

575

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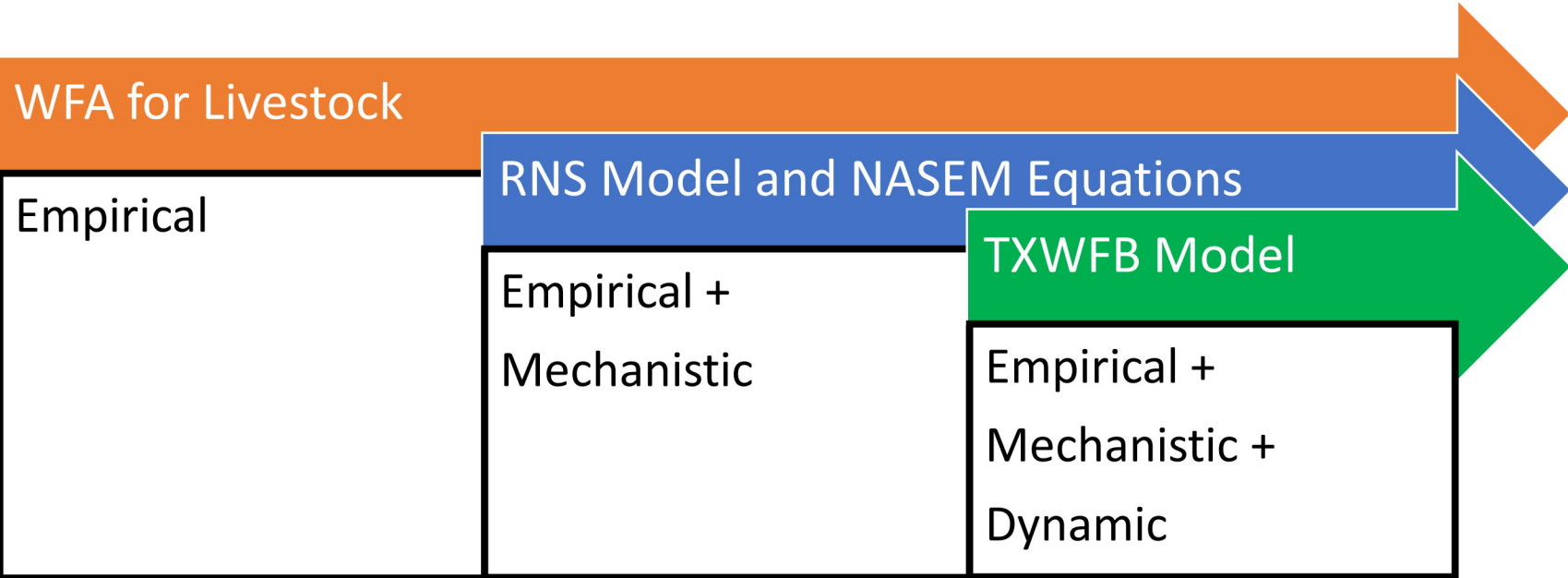
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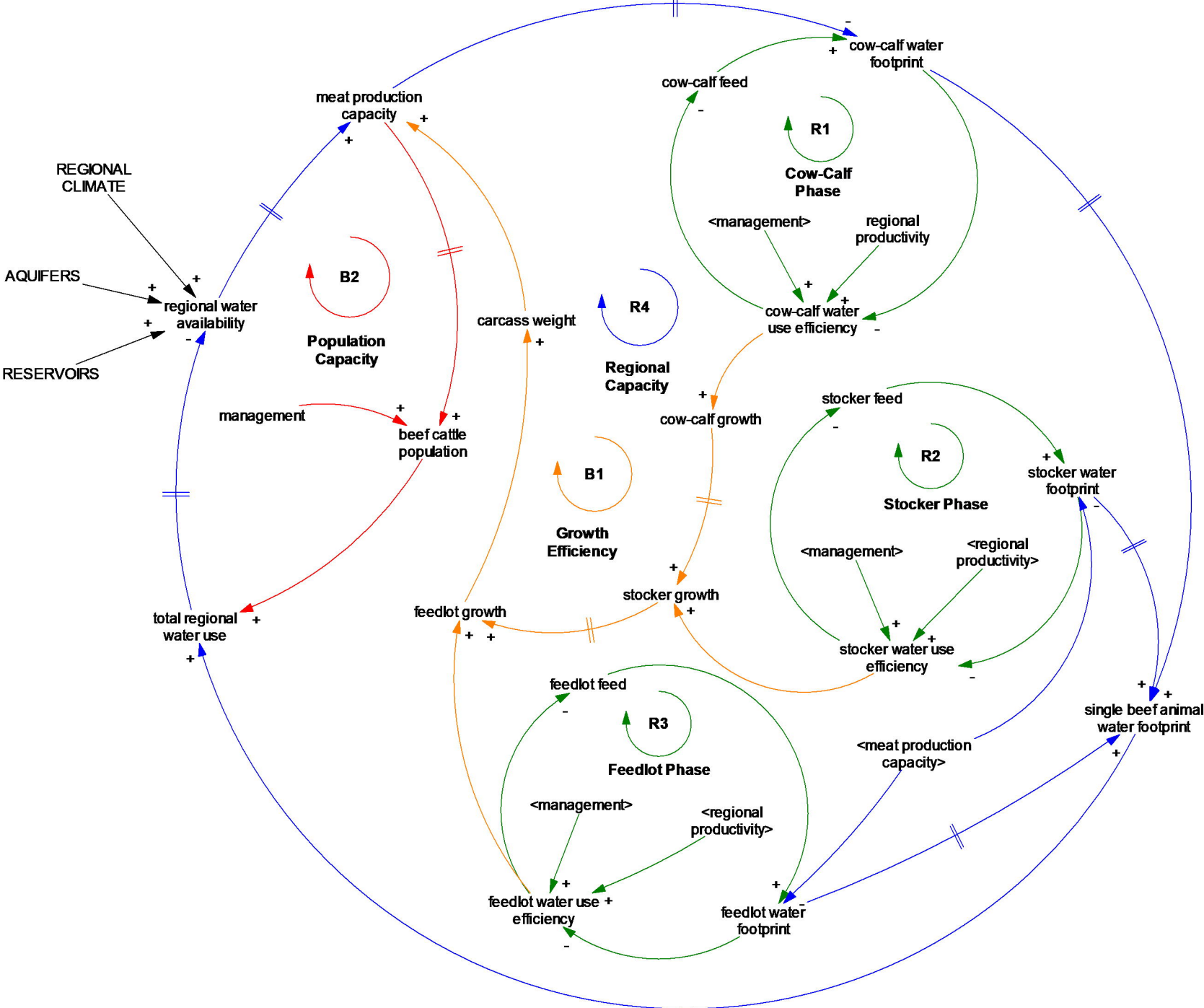
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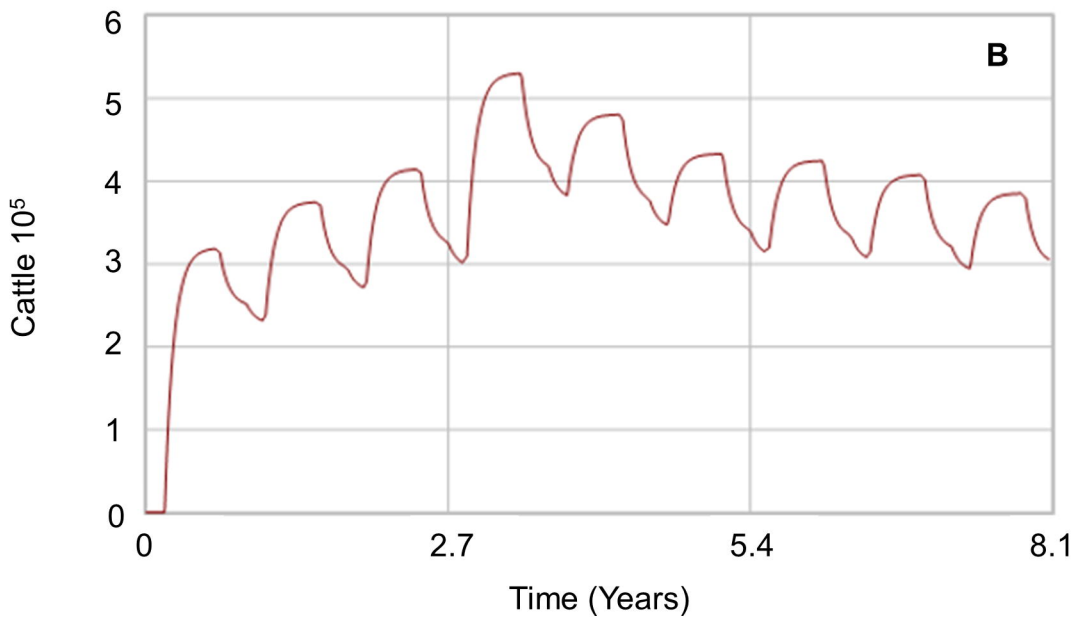
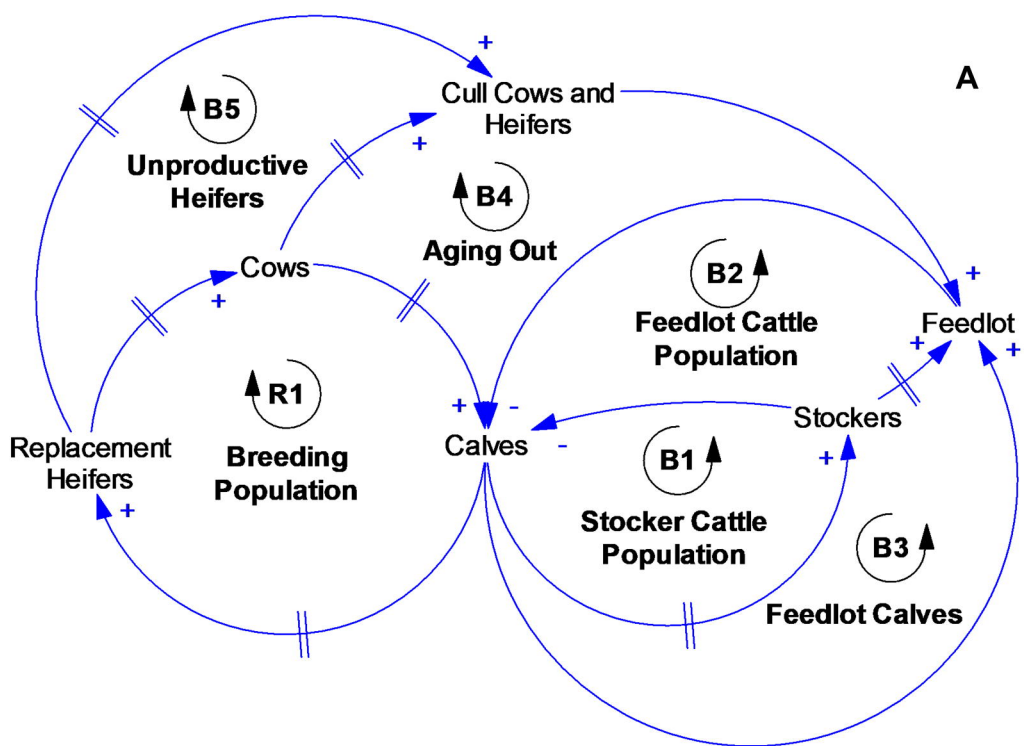
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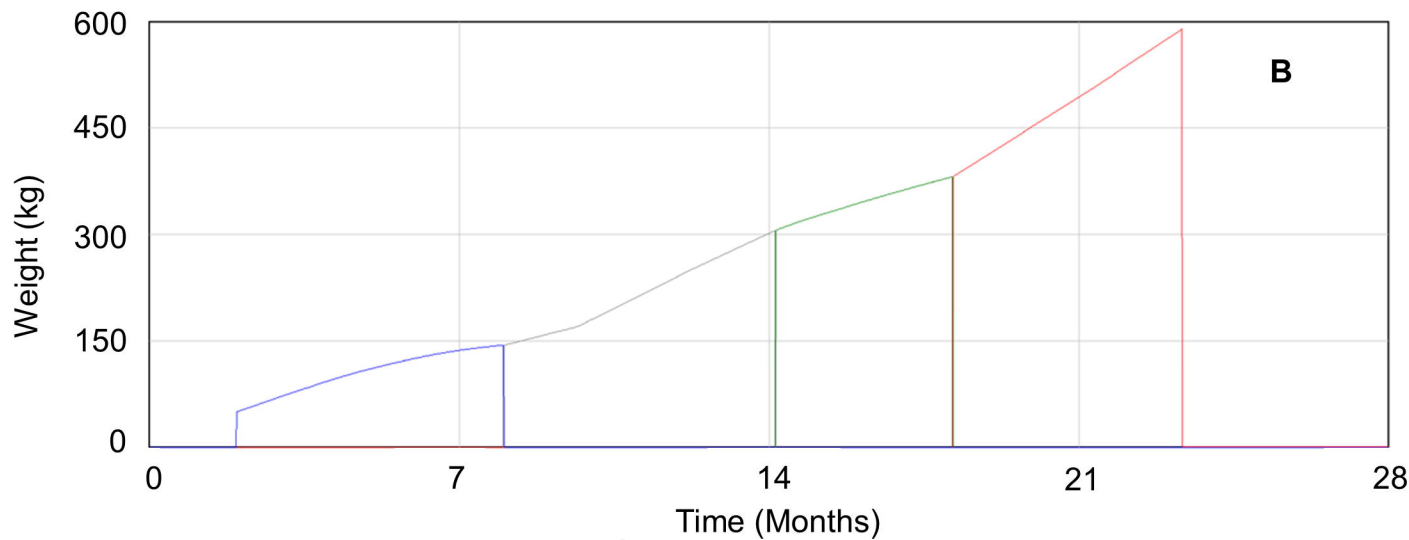
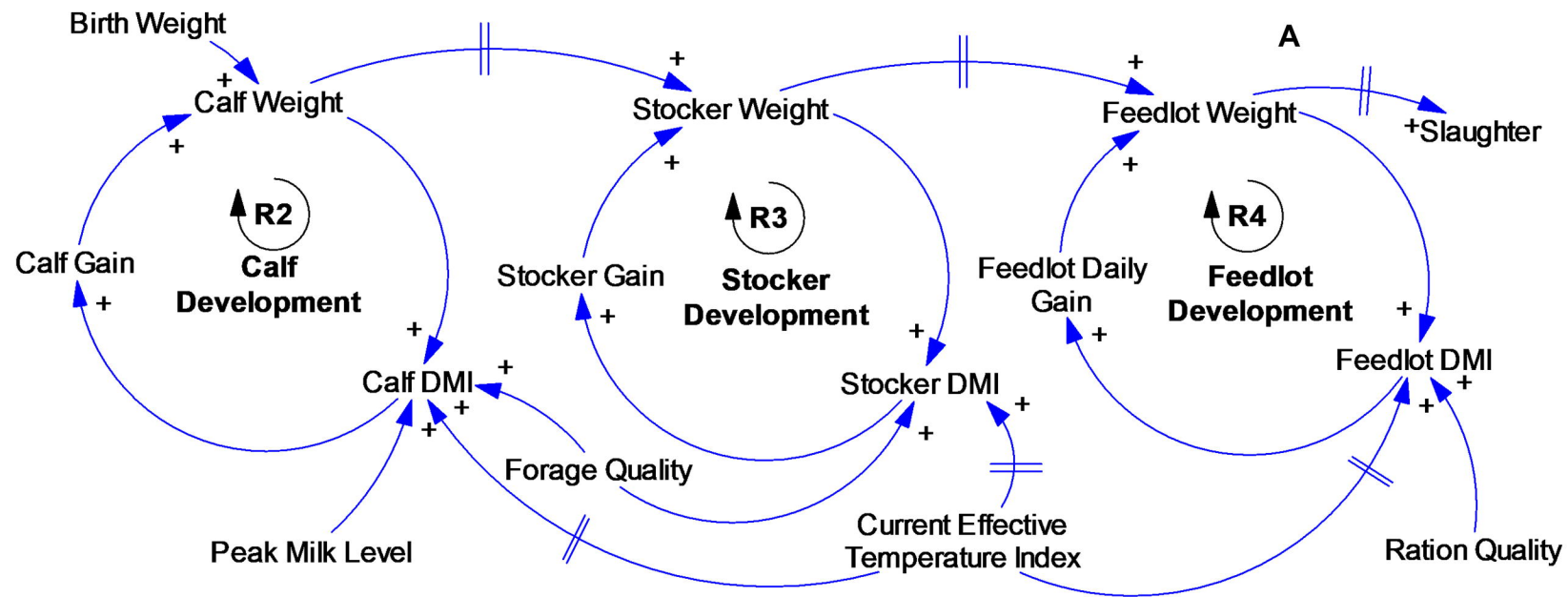
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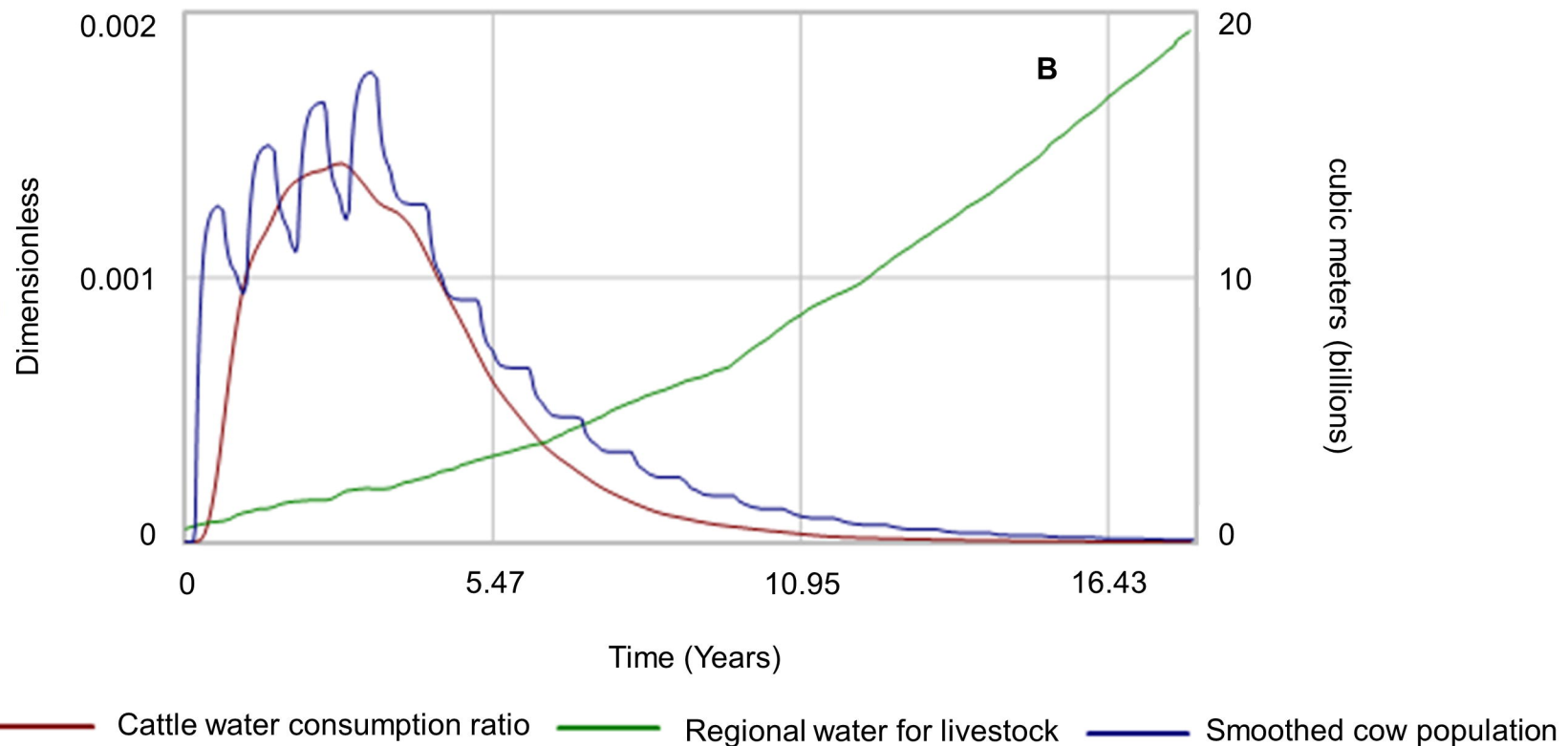
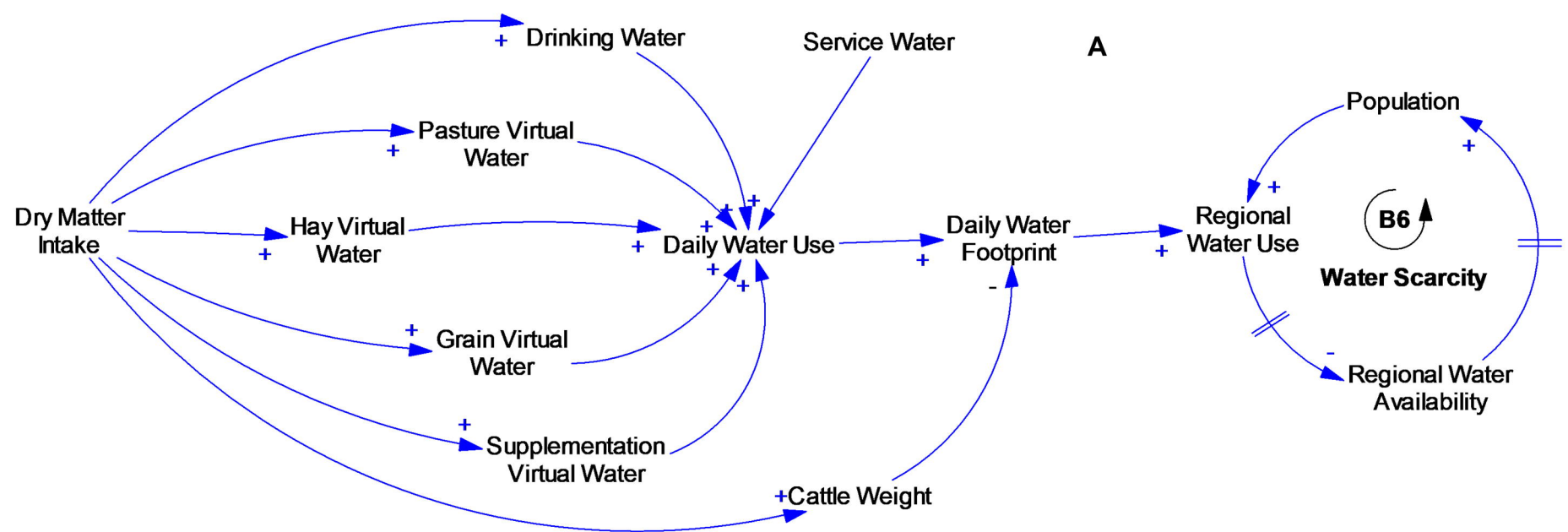


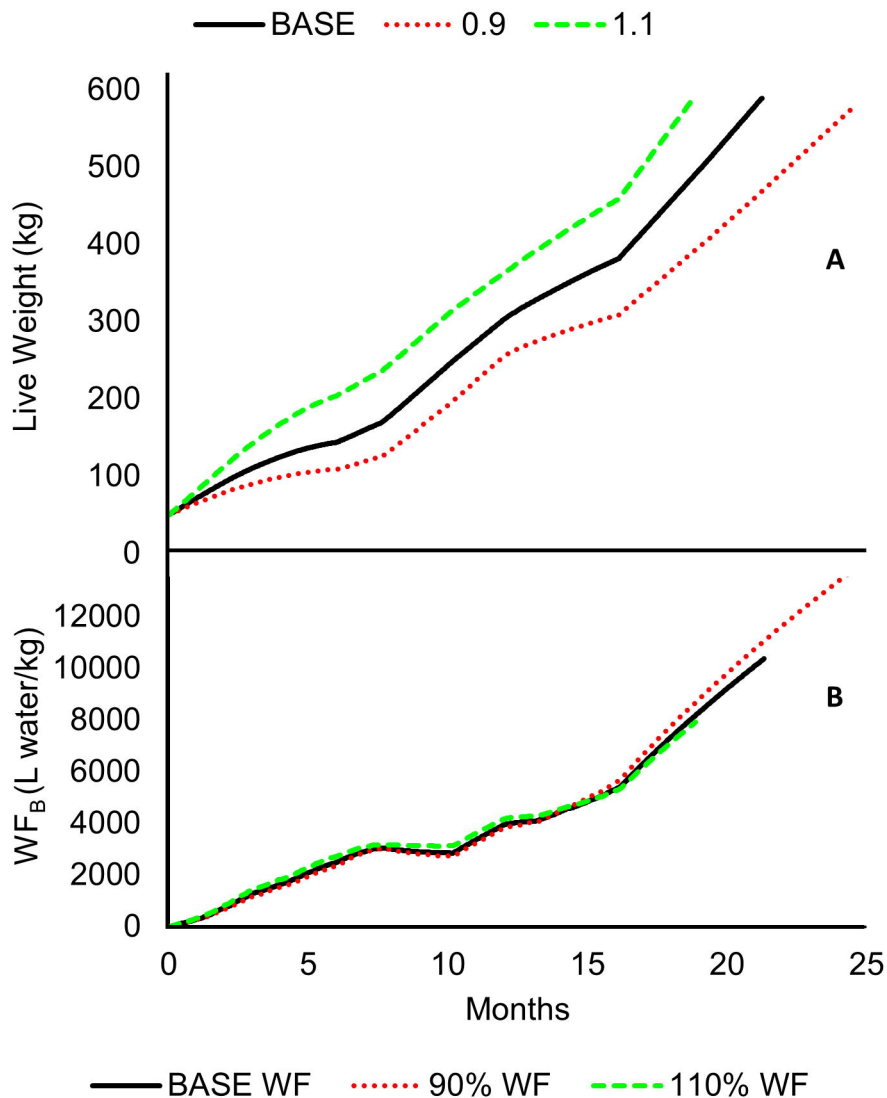




— Cow Population







50% 75% 95% 100%

