



1 **Yukon geothermal energy and cold-climate agriculture policies: a review.**

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6 **Abstract**

7 Challenges associated with affordable, nutritious food security for Indigenous communities have
8 been documented for decades in Yukon. In addition to this, both the Yukon and Canadian
9 governments have established initiatives to increase renewable electricity generation in remote
10 communities. The water–energy–food (WEF) nexus, as defined by the United Nations, highlights
11 the relationship between energy policy and food production. Geothermal energy extracted from
12 internal planetary heat is a low-carbon form of energy-on-demand. Technological advancements
13 have resulted in geothermal energy being cost competitive to other popular forms of renewable
14 energy. Greenhouse agriculture supported by geothermal energy offers a solution to improve food
15 security in Yukon. Modelling shows that geothermally sourced agriculture becomes cost
16 competitive versus a more common alternative, burning diesel fuel, within 22 years. Results
17 indicate that greenhouses attached to a 5MW geothermal power plant could provide as many as
18 a million servings of vegetables yearly to nearby communities, while reducing carbon dioxide
19 emissions. These developments are negatively impacted by the lack of resource specific
20 legislation in Yukon. Geothermal energy producers are left to operate under the *Oil and Gas*
21 *Operations Act*, which omits land tenure information, and a definition of geothermal resources.
22 Geothermal specific legislation may also bring with it a royalty regime. Current food and
23 agriculture policies in Yukon are positioned to support these developments. This paper provides
24 a discussion on the impacts of greenhouse agriculture supported by geothermal energy for
25 Indigenous communities in Yukon. Indigenous communities are pioneering geothermal energy
26 development in Yukon; however, Indigenous communities are particularly vulnerable to natural
27 resource development due to both their cultural and economic dependence on land and water
28 resources. The paper concludes that synergies exist amongst Indigenous communities and
29 geothermal energy. Increased public awareness on geothermal could result in resource specific
30 legislation and future developments.

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40 **Key Words:** Geothermal, Yukon Agriculture, Greenhouse Design, Yukon Energy

41 1.0 Introduction

42 It has been estimated that the warming effects of climate change in communities north of 60°
43 latitude occur at a rate three times faster than the global average (Bush & Lemmen 2019). The
44 global climate change crisis has altered the sphere of energy policy in Canada. Reductions in
45 carbon emissions are central to emerging national and sub-national government policies. In 2020,
46 the Government of Yukon established a regulatory requirement that 93% of the electricity on the
47 main Yukon grid will come from renewable sources by 2030 (Yukon 2020). Geothermal energy is
48 a renewable energy source that could assist in achieving this target (Fraser et al. 2019).

49
50 The Government of Canada has introduced initiatives to increase renewable electricity generation
51 in Canada's remote communities, with the strategic benefit of reducing reliance on diesel. The
52 "Clean Energy for Rural and Communities" is a six-year, \$220-million program that aims to
53 increase clean energy opportunities, encourage energy efficiency, and build local skills and
54 capacity. As of October 2020, this program has provided \$19.6 million of funding for low carbon
55 energy solutions for the northern territories (Canada 2020). This initiative promotes the
56 development of multiple renewable energy forms, including geothermal energy (Canada 2019).

57
58 Intrinsically related with energy policy is policy related to food production. The water–energy–food
59 (WEF) nexus, as defined by the United Nations, highlights the interwoven nature of these three
60 components. Literature on the WEF, as well as directives from the United Nations, indicate that
61 the three components are critical to sustainable development (Loring et al. 2013; Lamalice et al.
62 2018, United Nations n.d.). Linkages between these components require informed policy
63 approaches that ensure sustainable agriculture and energy production to meet local and global
64 needs (Sharma & Kumar 2020; United Nations n.d.).

65
66 Harnessing geothermal energy in Yukon offers a unique opportunity to integrate renewable
67 energy initiatives with sustainable agriculture. The Canadian Geothermal Energy Association
68 (CanGEO) has conducted feasibility studies throughout Yukon highlighting opportunities to
69 expand local agricultural development via climate-controlled greenhouses (Canadian Geothermal
70 Energy Association 2016). This can be done with geothermal heat pumps, or from waste heat
71 originating from geothermal power generation. Such applications of geothermal energy would
72 align with the territory's *Local Food Strategy for Yukon* (Yukon 2016) which aims to support and
73 increase local food production.

74
75 This paper aims to address the economic, social and regulatory barriers for geothermal assisted
76 agricultural production in Yukon. As the WEF nexus highlights the interdependencies amongst
77 energy and food, current directives to develop geothermal energy in Yukon may benefit from
78 modifications to integrate sustainable development of energy and food production. The benefits
79 and risks associated with using geothermal energy to heat greenhouses year-round in Yukon are
80 discussed. The current regulatory systems for geothermal energy and agricultural production in
81 Yukon are identified along with opportunities to establish targets supportive of geothermal
82 assisted agriculture. Potential impacts on Indigenous communities in Yukon are also highlighted,
83 with specific attention given to potential benefits to community capacity building and food security.

84 2.0 Background

85 2.1 Geothermal energy

86 Geothermal energy refers to the planetary heat available below the Earth's surface. The energy
87 can be transferred via circulating fluids or air and used directly for heating or cooling. At sufficient
88 temperatures, water can be formed into steam to rotate generators and produce electricity.

89 Geothermal energy is theoretically available anywhere. Temperatures in the Earth's subsurface
90 increase with depth and the variation of temperature over depth is referred to as geothermal
91 gradient. The average geothermal gradient is 30°C/km. Economic feasibility of geothermal
92 projects is largely dependent on whether the geothermal gradient is hot enough at accessible
93 depths.

94
95 Yukon has fairly average geothermal gradients over much of the territory; however, there are
96 regions in the south with excellent geothermal resource potential (Majorowicz and Grasby 2019).
97 There are still large regions of Yukon's geothermal potential yet to be fully explored (Grasby et al.
98 2012). Geothermal energy is comparatively underdeveloped in Canada. Canada is the only
99 country on the 'Ring of Fire', as well as in North America, that does not currently produce electricity
100 using geothermal energy (Grasby et al. 2012). However, there is a growing interest in the potential
101 of employing geothermal systems in Canada (Majorowicz and Grasby 2019). Interest is centered
102 around its low carbon footprint, renewable nature and potential to provide baseload power, which
103 is power production that is not subject to large variability over the course of a day or passing of
104 seasons (Stefansson 2000).

105
106 There are several types of geothermal energy systems with varying applications. Generally, they
107 can be classified as either direct-use (heating/cooling applications) or in-direct use (steam
108 generation for electricity production). Geothermal systems are also classified by the depth from
109 which heat is extracted. Shallow geothermal systems are installed at depths of less than 500 m
110 and are typically used for ground-source heat pump systems. A typical heat pump system uses a
111 buried heat exchanger (a loop of pipe) that brings heat to the surface. The amount of geothermal
112 energy used by heat pumps in Canada is increasing between 10-15% each year (Lund et al.
113 2005). Notably, Manitoba and Ontario have excellent financing options for investors in ground-
114 source heat pumps, with programs that help to pay back the up-front capital costs (Lund et al.
115 2005).

116
117 Electricity generation through indirect use of geothermal energy requires deep geothermal
118 systems. Conventional deep geothermal systems involve hydraulic fracture ("fracking") to
119 circulate fluids between injection and production wells. Hydraulic fracturing for energy extraction
120 is typically accompanied by induced seismicity. Advanced geothermal systems (AGS) is a
121 recently developed technology which uses a deep closed-loop heat pump-like system that does
122 not require fluid injection, resulting in the elimination of induced seismicity (Bain & Davies 2020).

123
124 Several geothermal electricity production projects are in various stages of development within
125 Canada. This includes the recently announced Fort Nelson First Nations' Clarke Lake 15
126 megawatt (MW) geothermal plant in northern British Columbia (Richter 2021), the DEEP Corp
127 20MW geothermal power plant in southern Saskatchewan (Morgan 2020), and the Eavor™-
128 Yukon 6MW advanced geothermal system in partnership with Carmacks Development
129 Corporation in Little Salmon/Carmacks First Nation (Eavor 2020).

130 **2.2 Comparing Economics of Solar, Wind and Geothermal**

131 The Yukon Government's *Our Clean Future* plan sets a regulatory requirement of 93%
132 renewable electricity generation by 2030 (Yukon 2020). Currently, hydroelectric generation fills
133 approximately 90% of electrical generation needs, and the plan outlines the increase of
134 renewable electricity generation through exploring the potential of multiple renewables, including
135 solar, wind and geothermal (Yukon Energy 2017). Table 1 summarizes the electrical generation
136 and economic indicators of three different renewable energy feasibility studies completed for
137 Yukon Energy. Solar, wind and geothermal systems of similar generation capacity were chosen

138 for comparison. A second point of comparison is shown on Table 2, showing yearly diesel
 139 generation costs of Watson Lake, a community reliant solely on electricity generated from a
 140 5.3MW diesel generator.

141

142 **Table 1: Electricity generation feasibility study summary of economic indicators**

Resource	Generation Capacity	Estimated Capacity Factor	Capital Cost of Installation	Levelized Cost of Electricity
Solar PV ¹	5MW	14%	\$13 million	\$0.14 - \$0.18/kWh
Wind ²	6MW	28%	\$32 million	\$0.15 - \$0.23/kWh
Closed-loop geothermal ³	5.5MW	95%	\$ 126 million	\$0.23 - \$0.34/kWh

143 ¹ Solar PV reference model: 5MW Haines Junction Fixed Tilt and Single Axis Solar PV system
 144 (Solvest 2016)

145 ² Wind reference model: 6MW wind farm measures at multiple sites (CBER et al. 2016)

146 ³ Geothermal reference model: 5.5 MW McArthur Springs closed-loop geothermal system (KGS
 147 Group 2016)

148

149 **Table 2: Electricity generation economics of diesel generation**

Resource	Watson Lake Generation Capacity	Estimated Capital Cost of Installation ¹	Watson Lake Estimated 2018 Generation ²	Watson Lake Cost of Electricity 2018 ³	Estimated Watson Lake Diesel Cost 2018 ³
Diesel thermal generation	5.3 MW	\$13.6 million	15,400MWh	27.7c/kWh	\$4.3 million

150 ¹ Estimates of current day capital cost of installation extrapolated from generator reference
 151 model of \$2.56 million/MW (Yukon Energy 2020)

152 ² 2018 Generation statistics and cost of diesel (\$1.00/L) from available from ATCO Energy
 153 (ATCO Energy 2020)

154 ³ Estimated efficiency of diesel generators estimated at 3.6kWh/L (Karanasios & Parker 2018)

155

156 Capital costs for geothermal systems are significantly higher compared to solar and wind,
 157 however, this is offset by a much higher capacity factor. Capacity factor is the annual electricity
 158 output as compared to the maximum possible output over a year. Figure 1 compares the
 159 assumed electrical generation amounts per year, with solar, wind and geothermal producing
 160 roughly 7,400MWh, 13,500MWh, and 45,700MWh respectively. Diesel generation is used as a
 161 comparative case, with Watson Lake requiring an estimated 15,400MWh of generation in 2018.
 162 As a point of reference, the annual electricity demand for the entire Yukon territory is roughly
 163 675,000MWh. Though upfront costs of geothermal systems are high, it has the ability to fulfill
 164 on-demand electrical generation needs with an attractively high electrical generation output
 165 yearly.

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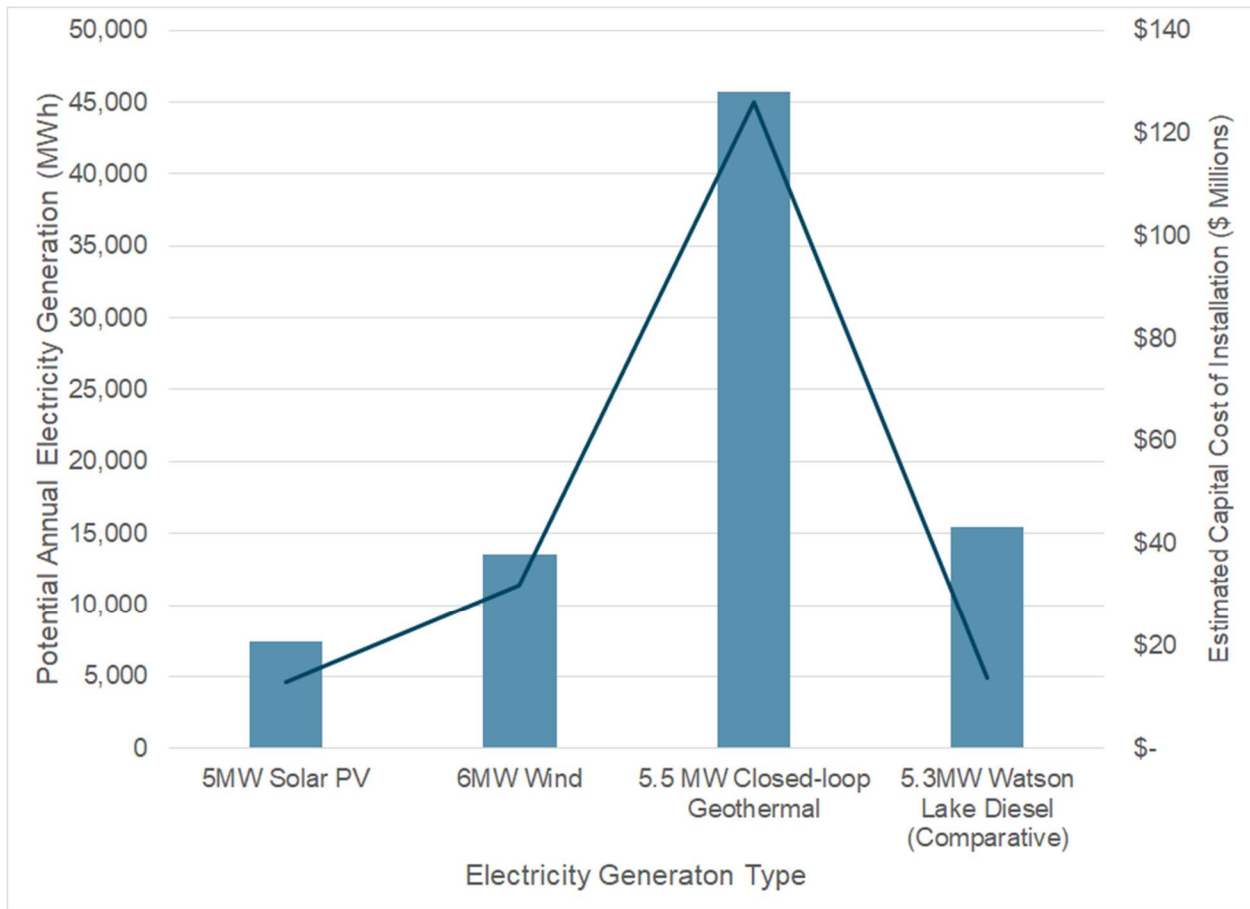


Figure 1: Potential annual electricity generation amounts and estimated capital costs of installation of four generation types.

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2.3 Agriculture in Yukon

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The Government of Yukon has established a *Local Food Strategy for Yukon* (2016). The goal of the strategy is, “to increase the production and use of locally-grown vegetables, meat and food products” (Yukon 2016, p.6). *The Local Food Strategy for Yukon* highlights the unique challenges that Yukon faces with respect to food security. These challenges are grouped in six categories: production, processing, distribution, access, consumption, and resource and waste recovery.

Yukon has faced challenges with accessing produce outside of growing seasons (Yukon 2016). When local food is not available, food must be transported in, resulting in inflated food costs due to high costs of transportation. Inflated food prices in the Yukon are often sensationalized in the media (Garfield 2017). Yukon often relies on food delivered from the Alaskan Highway. The severity of this dependency came to light in 2012, when the highway was closed for a brief period of time due to severe weather. The closure resulted in a food shortage across the territory (Canadian Geothermal Energy Association 2016). Conditions including inflation in food prices and delivery dependence on the Alaskan Highway contribute to food insecurity. The results of the Canadian Health Survey, conducted by Statistics Canada, determined that 16.9% of the Yukon population experienced food insecurity in 2017-18 (Tarasuk & Mitchell 2020).

189 There is growing interest in sub-arctic agriculture (Genest 2016). Indigenous communities in
190 Canada have long identified the need for food security and food sovereignty (Croft 2020; Lamalice
191 et. al 2018; Skinner et al. 2013). Although not a replacement for traditional foods and hunting,
192 Indigenous communities have identified that gardens and farms can bring communities back to
193 the Land (Genest 2016; Lamalice et al. 2018; Thompson et al. 2018). In addition to land-based
194 learning, northern indigenous communities have identified improvements to food security,
195 economic opportunities, social programming and health with community-based agriculture
196 initiatives (Genest 2016; Lamalice et al. 2018; Thompson et al. 2018; Delormier et al. 2017;
197 Skinner et al. 2013). Select Yukon First Nations have established agricultural farms including:
198 Tr'ondëk Hwëch'in Farm just outside Dawson City, established in 2014 as a teaching farm
199 (Genest 2016), Carcross/Tagish First Nation's farm's first harvest was in 2018, and recently the
200 Na-Cho Nyak Dun First Nation in central Yukon refurbished a farm built in the 1980s (Croft 2020).
201 Additionally, there are 14 First Nations in Yukon, and all have some kind of greenhouse (Hein
202 2016).

203
204 Given the unique food security challenges faced in Yukon through outside dependence on food,
205 the *Local Food Strategy for Yukon* aims to increase the number of agricultural producers in Yukon.
206 Increasing the number of farms (both indigenous and non-indigenous) that are able to produce
207 local food year-round would assist the Yukon Government in accomplishing goals set out in *Local*
208 *Food Strategy for Yukon*.

209 3.0 Scientific Analysis

210 Geothermal energy projects in Yukon have a unique opportunity to integrate renewable energy
211 initiatives with sustainable agriculture. Limiting factors for plant growth in northern climates are
212 heat, light, and humidity. A greenhouse is often a passive (non-energy requiring) solution which
213 can extend the growing season in climates which do not naturally provide suitable conditions. A
214 greenhouse works by retaining heat that would otherwise dissipate and is often able to sustain
215 temperatures well above ambient temperatures.

216
217 The growing season in Yukon is very short and intense due to its prolonged hours of daylight
218 (over 20 hours around the summer equinox) and over-night temperature lows below freezing as
219 early as mid-July (Yukon Agricultural Association n.d.). Produce farmers have established
220 techniques for season extension and frost protection, including the use of greenhouses designed
221 for northern conditions (Yukon Agricultural Association n.d.).

222
223 To investigate if geothermal energy could improve established northern greenhouse design, a
224 comparative theoretical case study was completed. Two geothermal energy sources were
225 considered:

- 226 ● ground-source heat-pump installed via purpose-drilled boreholes, and
- 227 ● waste heat energy optimization from a geothermal power plant.

228
229 Energy inputs and outputs were calculated for two different greenhouse shape structures:
230 rectangular and conical. Assumptions were made on crop selection and quantities. Water and soil
231 sourcing were beyond the scope of this project and were not considered for economic feasibility
232 modeling. The greenhouse designs were modeled across four different applications to determine
233 economic feasibility:

- 234
235 1. **Passive:** a passive greenhouse which extends the growing season to 4 months out of
236 the year (no utilization of geothermal energy).

- 237 2. **Heated:** A greenhouse heated by a geothermal ground-source heat pump 10 months of
238 the year.
239 3. **Container:** A greenhouse outfitted with extra insulation and with heat and light provided
240 12 months of the year.
241 4. **Waste Heat:** A greenhouse heated through waste heat from a geothermal power plant.
242

243 Additionally, to confirm geothermal energy as a feasible heat source, applications (2) and (3) were
244 further compared to utilizing diesel for modeled heating needs. Results were applied to three
245 proof-of-concept communities: Carmacks, Watson Lake, and Old Crow, YT.
246

247 Construction costs of the greenhouse designs were estimated at approximately \$36,000 for the
248 rectangular design and \$51,000 for the conical design. For application (2) and (3), estimates for
249 drilling and installation of a heat pump are estimated to be \$200,000¹. For application (4) the vast
250 majority of the capital investment is in the geothermal power plant. The cost of the powerplant
251 was not accounted for in this case study, as a greenhouse is being presented as a potential
252 optimization and local buy-in strategy for large-scale geothermal production.
253

254 Crop yields were determined for each design and harvest cycles were calculated based on
255 months of operations per year. The assumed model price for cost of vegetables per serving is
256 \$1.85/serving². While this price is higher than the average price in Whitehorse, this is considered
257 cost competitive in remote communities. It should be noted that all crops were considered
258 equivalent in value. Costs were calculated based on grams of yield, with one serving of vegetables
259 considered to be 100-200 grams based on size and water content of the vegetable (United States
260 Food and Drug Administration 2017). Figure 2 shows projected return on investments for
261 applications (1), (2) and (4), along with the comparative diesel heated scenario. Application (3)
262 is not shown as the return on investment time exceeded the 35 year mark. Additionally, application
263 (4) returns do not include power plant capital investment costs.
264

265 Application (1), (passive), showed the fastest return on investment. Results indicate that a simple
266 passive rectangular greenhouse with a plantable area of 188 m² can produce roughly 7300
267 servings of vegetables per year. The base case grows enough vegetables to completely satisfy
268 the required intake for 2.5 adults for an entire year. Application (2), (heated), results in two times
269 the yield as the base case and return on investment in roughly 14 years. Application (2) provides
270 about 1% of annual community vegetable needs for the selected test communities.
271

272 One area of potential further study is a cost benefit analysis between heat pumps and diesel
273 generation. We estimate a significant reduction in start-up cost for the diesel generator versus
274 geothermal ground-source heat-pumps. However, the lifetime of the geothermal system is longer
275 than the diesel system, and the geothermal system has significantly reduced carbon dioxide
276 emissions.
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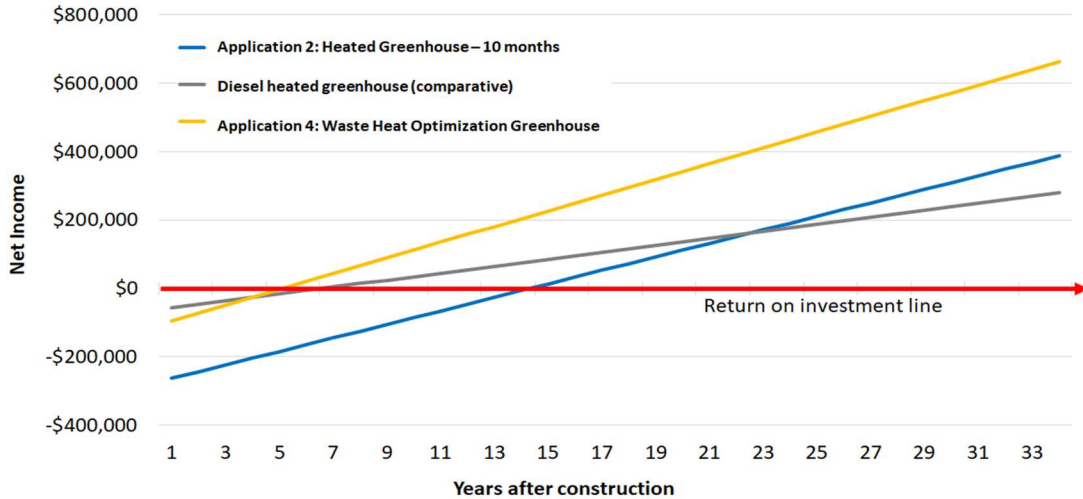
278 In application (4), (waste heat), the amount of thermal energy available in power generation waste
279 heat is very high compared to shallow ground-source heat pumps. Approximately 15MW of

¹ Based average price of drilling as per conversations with drilling operations local to Whitehorse, Yukon

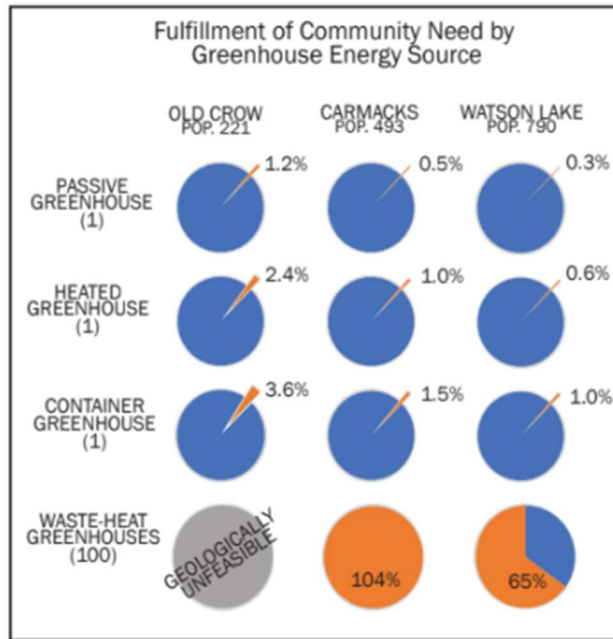
² Average online prices for the month of April 2021 in Whitehorse is \$0.81/serving, as advertised online by major food retailers. Reference vegetables used are bell pepper, cabbage, tomato and onion. Additional cost per serving based on estimated shipping costs as proposed by the community spatial price index for shipping of vegetables to various Yukon communities.

<://yukon.ca/sites/yukon.ca/files/ybs/2019cpiannual.pdf>

280 thermal energy is available from a 6MW geothermal power plant³. This could potentially heat
 281 between 600-1200 greenhouses. To be conservative and to accommodate the use of
 282 approximately 85% of the waste heat for other community purposes (such as food processing,
 283 district heating, etc.) heating 100 greenhouses of the demonstration designs were considered.
 284 The potential outcome of application (4) are yields that support 65-100% of annual community
 285 vegetable serving needs and potentially add commercial agriculture options to the community.



286
 287 **Figure 2:** Return on investment (ROI) modeling for three greenhouse models: Passive, Heated,
 288 and Waste Heat.



289
 290 **Figure 3:** A summary of the proportion of population served annually by four applications of
 291 greenhouses for various test communities.
 292

³ Based on waste heat production estimates from conversations with Eavor™ Technologies regarding the planned 6MW Little Salmon/Carmacks power plant.

293 The waste heat optimization case benefits both the producer and consumer of geothermal energy.
294 The geothermal power plant can sell thermal energy reliably and the greenhouse can buy heat at
295 a cheaper rate with much lower start-up costs than drilling boreholes for ground-source heat
296 pumps. Additionally, yearly usage of the total waste heat capacity is low, varying between 3-14%
297 throughout the year.

298 **4.0 Review of Current Directives**

299 **4.1 Geothermal Energy**

300 There is presently no legislation governing geothermal development, engineering, and practices
301 in Yukon. There are examples of geothermal specific legislation in other Canadian jurisdictions
302 (British Columbia n.d.; Legislative Assembly of Alberta 2020). Despite this lack of legislation, the
303 Government of Yukon has acknowledged the benefits of geothermal specific legislation in the
304 *Yukon Energy Strategy* (Yukon 2009). This strategy set the development of a geothermal policy
305 framework as a priority. Over a decade later though, no such legislation or regulations have been
306 developed. With the absence of geothermal specific legislation, the applicable legislation in Yukon
307 for geothermal practices is the *Oil and Gas Act* (Yukon 2002), and relevant regulations under the
308 Act.

309
310 The presence of geothermal legislation in Yukon would assist in the development of geothermal
311 practices in the territory. Firstly, geothermal legislation would provide the territorial government
312 with the ability to respond to land tenure requests, assuming that geothermal resources are
313 classified as minerals. Land tenure is defined as the rules and regulations in place for land
314 ownership used in natural resource development (Soule et al. 2000). For geothermal producers,
315 land tenure is crucial when seeking funding (Canadian Geothermal Energy Association 2016).
316 Researchers such as CanGEA have developed criteria that geothermal producers need to provide
317 before obtaining land tenure. This includes the need to show suitability, meaning interest, and the
318 capacity for development (Canadian Geothermal Energy Association 2016).

319
320 In Yukon, the territorial government owns the majority of all land, with the exception of Category
321 A First Nations Settlement Land, and federally administered land. There are also protected lands
322 of Indigenous peoples where ownership has not yet been accredited, such as the White Water
323 and Kaska land territories (Canadian Geothermal Energy Association 2016). The territorial
324 government has jurisdiction to grant land tenure in any of their owned lands. Without a framework
325 in place to identify how land tenure would operate, clarification of ownership and control may only
326 be resolved in courts (Powell 2020b).

327
328 An appropriate definition of geothermal resources has been touted as a key issue with legal
329 implications for resource ownership, tenure, and licensing, as well as a crucial component to an
330 effective regulatory regime (Powell 2020a). An appropriate definition of geothermal resources
331 would assist geothermal producers as it would simplify operations (Canadian Geothermal Energy
332 Association 2016). There are technical differences found in the drilling and completion of
333 geothermal wells compared to oil and gas wells, which create discrepancies for geothermal
334 practices. Specifically, current technical standards differentiate between fluid extraction
335 containing hydrocarbons versus those not containing hydrocarbons. CanGEA recommends a
336 removal of such distinctions for geothermal resources as both cases do not affect the geothermal
337 operations nor do they present any additional environmental risk.

338

339 Despite these technical differences, there are some similarities in both geothermal, and oil and
340 gas operations that *The Oil and Gas Act* can provide a directive on. At a low level, geothermal
341 and oil and gas projects make use of wells to extract fluids from the sub-surface, collect and use
342 sub-surface data, and are subject to high financial risk (Leitch et al. 2017).

343
344 One regulation under *The Oil and Gas Act* that may provide direction for geothermal practices is
345 the *Oil and Gas Geoscience Exploration Regulation* (Yukon 2004). The regulation sets out
346 operating and reporting requirements for geoscience operations. While the term geothermal is
347 not stated once in the regulation, there are definitions provided for geoscience operations, and
348 procedures are outlined to obtain licenses or permits. Additionally, standards set out for choosing
349 locations of project test holes can inform geothermal practices.

350
351 One other major consideration and risk factor to developing geothermal resources is royalty
352 regimes. Presently, Yukon has an oil and gas royalty regime under *The Oil and Gas Act* titled the
353 *Oil and Gas Royalty Regulations* (Yukon 2008). In this regulation, royalty calculations for crude
354 oil, gasoline, and field condensates are determined. Further to this, reporting and penalty
355 information are provided. Under this regulation, geothermal practices would not be subject to a
356 royalty regime in Yukon. CanGEA (2016) states that a royalty regime is an important consideration
357 in the development of geothermal practices, presumably for the benefit of reducing regulatory
358 ambiguity. The association recommends that if a royalty regime specifically for geothermal
359 practices is implemented, there should be a 'royalty holiday' for a fixed period to allow for initial
360 industry development.

361 **4.2 Food and Agricultural Policies**

362 In 2016, the agricultural branch of the Government of Yukon published a five-year *Local Food*
363 *Strategy* encompassing the years 2016-2021. The goal of the strategy is to "support the
364 development of a sustainable localized food system" through four main objectives: (1) enhancing
365 the resilience of the local agri-food sector, (2) developing a framework for better market access,
366 (3) making local food conspicuous and widely available, and (4) informing consumers of the value
367 of supporting local food (Yukon 2016, p.6). Key initiatives of the report aim to improve access
368 and availability of local produce to help reduce their cost, recognizing that lower income families
369 are at higher risk of poor health outcomes due to having less access to affordable healthy foods.
370 Other initiatives aim to address the limitations of the short growing season in the Yukon which
371 result in needing excess processing and preserving capabilities for a limited-time window each
372 year. The report recognizes the vital role of greenhouses to increase the non-commercial growing
373 capabilities of Yukon through community greenhouse initiatives. The strategy works in support
374 of the Government of Yukon's acknowledgement of the value of country foods, which serve a vital
375 part of First Nations traditional community, culture and wellness. The strategy does not explore
376 the potential for heated greenhouses to increase the types and quantities of local produce
377 available over a longer period of time in the year. Such an addition could include frameworks for
378 commercial and non-commercial greenhouses which would likely have the ripple effect of better
379 use of agricultural processing capabilities, decreased need for costly imports, and ultimately,
380 decreased cost of fresh produce. Heated greenhouses also provide an opportunity to increase
381 availability of fruits, vegetables, herbs and plants which are native to Yukon and hold cultural
382 significance to local First Nations.

383
384 The 2006 *Yukon Agriculture Policy* laid the initial foundation for the production of high quality
385 products for local consumption in a way that promotes community well-being. The policy
386 prioritized improved utilization of agricultural lands, expanding of agriculture land in a planned

387 manner, and developing infrastructure supports in an economically viable and environmentally
388 sustainable manner (Yukon 2006). Building on these initiatives, the Yukon *Agriculture State of*
389 *the Industry Report 2013-2017* (Yukon Agriculture Branch 2018) reported that from 2011 to 2016,
390 Yukon saw a doubling of the land purposed for fruit production (from 12 to 24 ha), and a 46%
391 increase of the land purposed for vegetable production (from 13 to 19ha). Initiatives such as
392 Growing Forward 2 (GF2) agriculture funding program and the Innovation in Cold Climate
393 Greenhouses conference reveal an agriculture sector that is innovating and creating strategies to
394 best use the agriculture resources available in Yukon. In 2013, the federal government provided
395 nearly \$1.3 million worth of GF2 grants for 58 Agriculture Development Program projects,
396 supporting the purchase of agriculture infrastructure and equipment, along with expansion of
397 greenhouse vegetable production. The Yukon Government Agricultural Branch has also
398 developed the *Yukon Agricultural Research Plan*, identifying greenhouses as a key area of study
399 in both of the most recent published reports (Yukon Agriculture Branch 2018; Yukon 2018).
400

401 The State of the Industry report notes the steadily increasing agricultural activities in First Nation
402 communities, as First Nation governments recognize the important role agriculture plays in
403 addressing concerns around food security, protecting traditional foods, ensuring healthy food
404 choices, and building community self sufficiency (Yukon Agriculture Branch, 2018, p.21).
405 Projects such as the Little Salmon Carmacks First Nation community greenhouse, and the
406 Tr'ondëk Hwëch'in teaching and working farm are among the multiple recent examples of First
407 Nation communities desiring to build agricultural capacity in Yukon (Yukon Agriculture Branch,
408 2018). Also indicative of growing interest in community-based agriculture, five First Nation
409 communities and two non-First Nation community gardens received Canadian Agricultural
410 Partnership grant funding in 2019-2020 alone (Canadian Agricultural Partnership, 2020).

411 **5.0 Indigenous Communities Impact**

412 Yukon is home to 14 Yukon First Nations, 11 of which have signed modern treaties (Yukon n.d.).
413 First Nations with modern treaties are responsible for making laws and decisions on their land,
414 which encompasses geothermal projects and agricultural infrastructure.
415

416 Literature on the role of Indigenous communities in emerging renewable energy projects shows
417 that Indigenous communities are motivated to take on an active role in the development of these
418 projects in pursuit of self-governance and economic development (Karanasios & Parker 2018).
419 Further to this, Indigenous peoples are championing efforts in renewable energy efficiency,
420 conservation, and development in Canada for a multitude of reasons - one being to address food
421 insecurity (Stefanelli et al. 2018). There has been recent interest from Yukon First Nations into
422 exploratory research of geothermal potential, including Kluane First Nation, Liard First Nation,
423 and Teslin Tlingit First Nation (Natural Resources Canada 2021). Another example is that of a
424 First Nation community forming a partnership to develop a geothermal resource, as seen with
425 the Carmacks Development Corporation and Eavor™ Yukon partnership (Eavor 2020).
426

427 As a counterpoint, Indigenous communities are particularly vulnerable to natural resource
428 development due to both their cultural and economic dependence on both land and water
429 resources (Atlin & Gibson 2017). Geothermal energy projects have a high capital investment
430 need; which may limit opportunity or have adverse impacts on Indigenous communities.
431 Historically, Indigenous communities have faced challenges relating to economic security.

432 Economic security has impacts on quality of life, and public services available within a community
433 (Hossain & Lamb 2019).

434
435 Indigenous knowledge of what constitutes sustainability is “produced contextually, locally, and is
436 based on the experience of multiple generations” (Virtanen et al. 2020, p.78). ‘Story’ across
437 indigenous cultures teaches how to care and relate to the land, stewardship, caretaking and
438 guardianship (Whyte et al. 2015; Virtanen et al. 2020). The nature of reciprocity and
439 interconnectedness between all beings (human and non-human (animals, plants), sacred places,
440 the elements) among other indigenous ways of knowing are incorporated into the relationships
441 needed for communal well-being (Whyte et al. 2015; Virtanen et al. 2020; Vásquez-Fernández &
442 Ahenakew pii tai poo taa 2020).

443
444 Collaboration and cooperation are the keys to incorporate Indigenous methodologies/protocols
445 into sustainable development projects and the only way to find synthesis across knowledge
446 systems. Recognizing each place has its own set of beings and relationships, development of
447 respectful “inter-being-relationality” (Vásquez-Fernández & Ahenakew pii tai poo taa 2020) need
448 to be based where the relationships are cultivated. Success of many Indigenous health and food
449 initiatives have been correlated with the presence of and connection to “program champions”
450 (Skinner et al. 2014, Thompson et al. 2018). This is highlighted in Oji-Cree First Nation Hoop
451 House garden in the Wapekeka community in northern Ontario (Thompson et al. 2018), as well
452 as in the Red Earth Garden which is part of Meskwaki Food Sovereignty Initiative in Iowa, USA
453 (Whyte et al. 2015). In order for the proposed geothermal energy and food production system to
454 succeed, relationship-building must be a foundational principle of the project.

455
456 Food and energy systems are closely linked, especially in energy-intensive food production and
457 distribution systems (Loring et al. 2013). These interdependencies and interrelations are
458 highlighted with the United Nations WEF nexus. Ideally, security of these systems can be mutually
459 supportive; however, trade-offs are often needed (Loring et al. 2013). There are multiple
460 frameworks that benefit the analysis of the food, water and energy systems (Barrett 2010; Cook
461 and Baker 2012) of which many have some variation of availability, access, utilization and stability
462 (Loring et al. 2013).

463
464 From a systems perspective, geothermally-heated greenhouse offers mutually supportive
465 initiatives for energy and food production. Availability, access, stability and utilization of food and
466 energy are improved. Further, the carbon-emissions associated with the energy-foods systems
467 currently active in proof-of-concept test locations can be reduced. In studying community
468 greenhouse gardening in Kuujuaq in Nunavut, Lamalice et al. (2018) focused on food and energy
469 security and concluded that a “deeper understanding of the linked social and ecological dynamics
470 of food and energy systems...across the Canadian Arctic are needed” (p.338). Addressing food
471 and energy challenges as linked systems will aid in making more efficient policies and successful
472 project development.

473 **6.0 Conclusion**

474 Geothermal power is an often overlooked power source that has the advantage of 24-hour power
475 generation, favourable acceptance among First Nation and non-First Nation groups (Natural
476 Resources Canada 2021; Canadian Geothermal Energy Association 2016), and opportunities for
477 waste-heat optimization. Geothermal resources in Canada have been largely under-utilized due
478 to high costs and exploratory risk. Recent developments in advanced geothermal systems have
479 decreased seismic and exploratory risks of developing geothermal resources. Modeling

480 conducted by the authors shows significant agricultural benefit if geothermal can be utilized to
481 heat greenhouses. This would strengthen the Yukon Agriculture Branch's local food production
482 strategy and decrease reliance on costly, high emission-based and often unreliable long-haul
483 produce delivery.
484

485 The WEF nexus and the interwoven nature of energy and food policy presents a compelling
486 argument to renew interests in developing geothermal resources in Yukon. As Canada sets
487 policies to address climate change, success in achieving a low carbon transition will likely depend
488 on rapid adoption of renewable energy generation solutions. Equally important in policy
489 development is consideration of a just transition for under-represented northern communities.
490 This paper highlights the potential synergies that exist between geothermal resource development
491 and agricultural capacity of northern and First Nation communities, providing improved protection
492 of traditional foods and increased First Nation self-reliance for energy generation. Recognizing
493 the clear benefits of strengthening geothermal specific policies will undoubtedly result in a
494 strengthened ability for Canada to achieve a transition to sustainable development.

495

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502

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