



# Land degradation through the lens of climate change adaptation and mitigation: new impetus for dealing with an old problem?

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ECONOMICS & POLICY INNOVATIONS FOR  
CLIMATE-SMART AGRICULTURE

# Value of Land Degradation?

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- Land degradation widespread and recurring problem
- Often assumed that there is a net positive value of avoiding degradation higher to farmers but evidence is not so clear.
- Externality value of avoided degradation is often found to be higher than private values



# Private and public costs of land degradation: a quick summary

## Private costs:

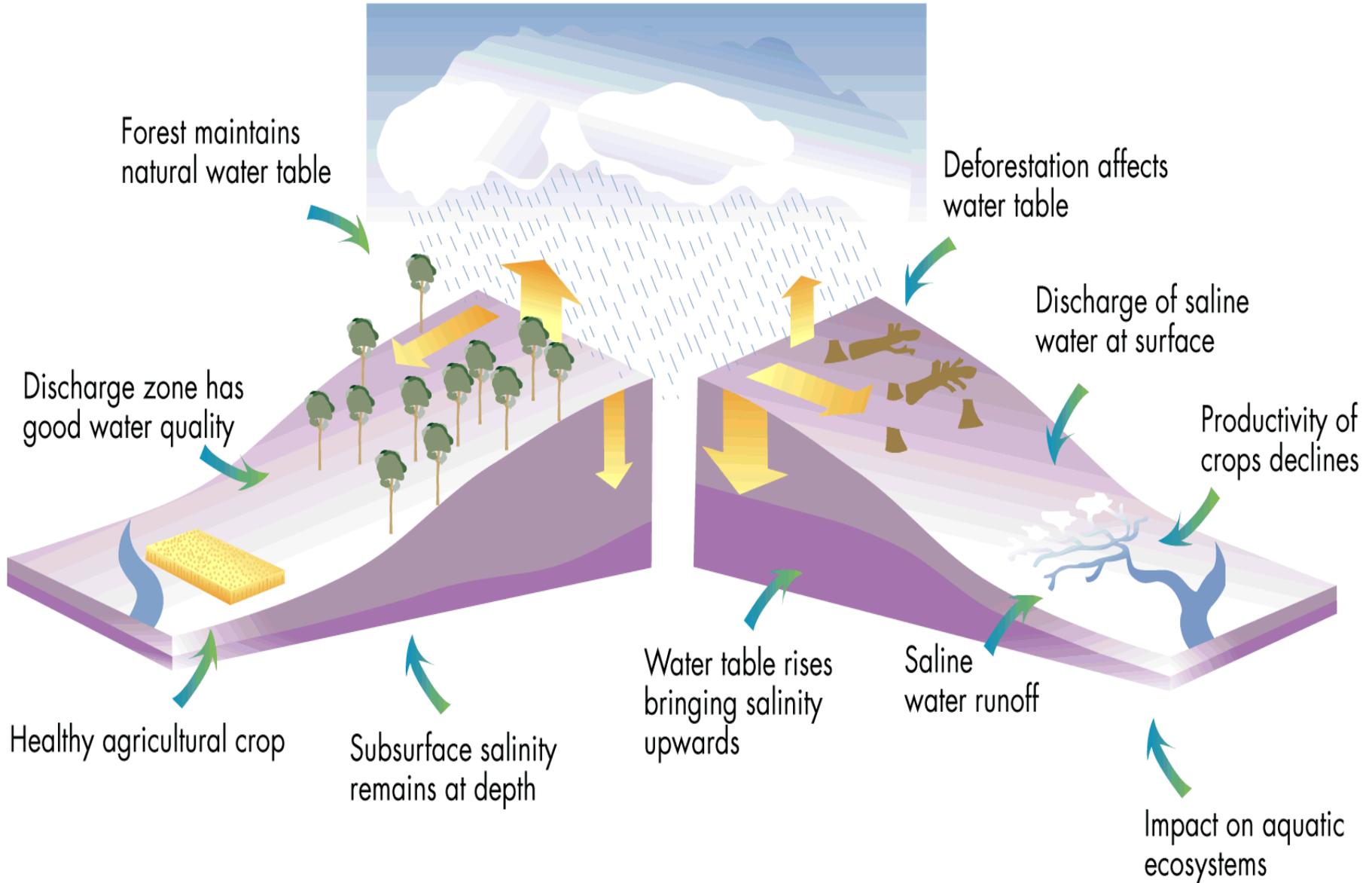
- Reduced productivity (.04-100% yield decline per annum) Yadav and Scherr 1995
- Reduced returns (.04-8 % of ag gross product) Bojo 1990
- Total factor productivity (Soil quality complementary to fertilizer) Walker & Young 1986
- Increased risk (higher yield variability in depleted soils Zimbabwe Moyo 1998)

## Public costs:

- Water pollution (McConnell 1983)
- Siltation of waterways (Pagiola 2006; Muñoz 2007)
- Watershed functions (Branca et. al. 2005)
- Increased risk (landslides) (Holt-Gimenez 2001)



# THE WATER CYCLE AND DRYLAND SALINITY



# Land degradation and impacts on food security (Wiebe 2003)

- At global level, limited impact of degradation mainly due to:
  - limited impacts of degradation in temperate vs. tropical zones
  - more cost efficient practices to offset, in temperate zones vs. tropical zones
- At regional and national levels, impacts vary widely; significant evidence suggests strong negative impacts in Southeast Asia, Africa and parts of Latin America, particularly in countries with highly erodible soils (e.g. hilly/mountainous)
- Ambiguous evidence, and a lot of debate on ability to “substitute” external inputs for land quality, and on cost-effectiveness of halting and reversing degradation in tropical environments



# Value of land management – w/out CC

- Major effort to build Payment for Environmental Service (PES) programs to support better land management
- Some successes (China sloping lands; Costa Rica; Tanzania) but problems with linking improved land management with quantified benefits.

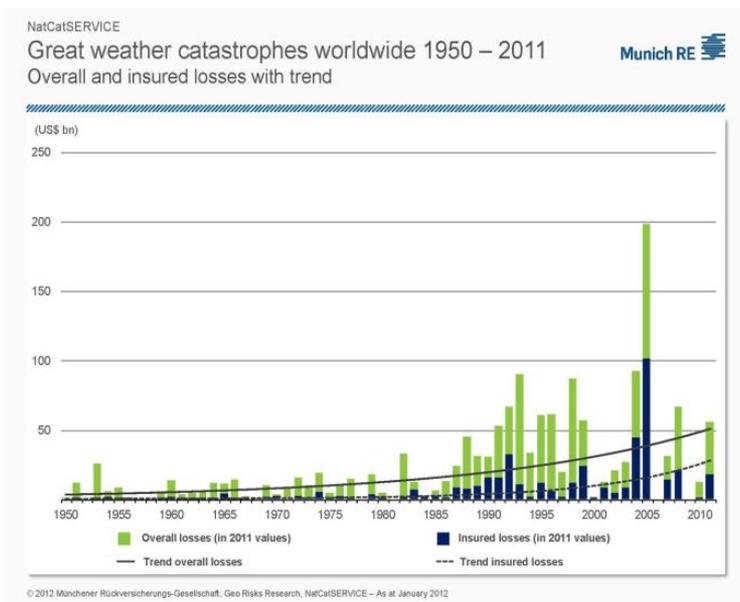
*And then came climate change...*

# Climate change impacts on agriculture

- Increased variability and intensity of climate shocks in the near term (to 2050) in most areas, but particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and S. Asia
  - Increased variability increases the value of resilience in agricultural production system
- Changes in temperature and precipitation generate lower yields over long term (with some possibility of local increases up to 2050)

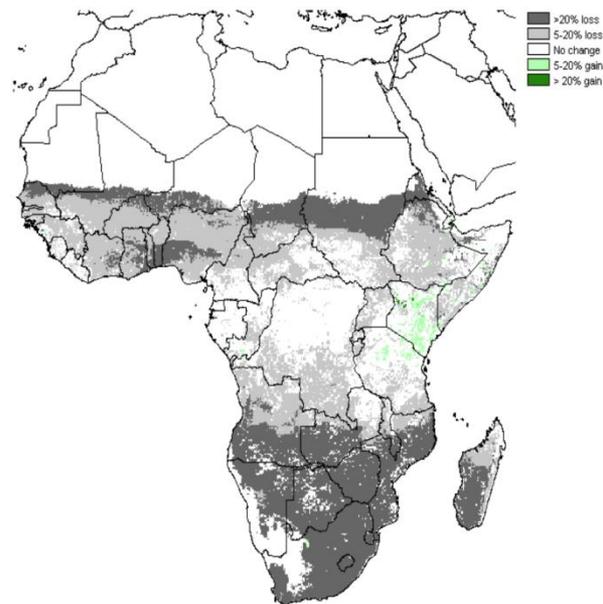


# Climate change impacts on agriculture



**Short run:** increased intensity & frequency of shocks

Change in African growing periods in a **+4 °C** world



**Long run:** major changes in temperature & rainfall patterns

# Impacts of changes in climate variability on agriculture?

## What's the evidence base?

Very thin from CC/AG models:

- IPCC (2007) – “effects of climate variability may be as great as changes in climate means”
- SREX (2012) – 1 page (in 600) on impacts of climate extremes on food systems and food security



But growing empirical, farm level evidence

# Evidence that CC effects farmer adoption patterns (Malawi)

	Soil and Water Conservation Adoption	
	Coef.	p-value
<i>Exposure to climate stress</i>		
Coefficient of variation of rainfall (1983-2011)	0.919*	0.09
Long-term mean rainfall (1983-2011)	0.001	0.11
Average delay in the onset of the rainy season (1983-2011)	2.164***	0.00
Coefficient of variation of maximum temperature (1983-2011)	71.597***	0.00
Long-term maximum temperature (1989-2010)	0.003	0.92
<i>Bio-physical sensitivity</i>		
log (land size (acre))	0.088***	0.00
Slope of plot (0=flat, 1=steep)	0.723***	0.00
Nutrient availability constraint (1-5 scale)	0.131***	0.00



# Ethiopia – effect of CC variables on adoption of anti-erosion measures

	Anti-Erosion Measures	
	coef	se
<i>Climatic variables</i>		
Coefficient of variation of rainfall	2.656*	1.542
Long-term mean rainfall	-0.002***	0.000
Long-term average temperature	0.089**	0.045
# dekades av. max temp over 30 (1989-2010)	0.002	0.002
Potential Wetness Index	0.024	0.033
<i>Plot and bio-physical characteristics</i>		
Log (land size in hectares)	-0.855***	0.264
Land tenure (1=owner)	0.122	0.119
Nutrient availability	0.356***	0.096
Terrain Roughness	-0.017	0.023
Workability (constraining field management)	-0.244***	0.065



# Emerging empirical evidence of adaptation benefits at farm level: Tanzania

## Average maize yields & Soil and water c

SWC	Average Maize Yield	
	2008/09	2010/11
No	1371.0*** (53.1)	1441.9*** (48.1)
Yes	1862.1*** (141.3)	2037.2*** (159.6)
T-test		
Difference	491.1*** (127.3)	595.3*** (136.1)
SD in parentheses		



Changes in agricultural systems	Impacts on Food Production		Impacts on Yield Variability and Exposure to Extreme Weather Events	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
<b>Cropland Management</b>				
<b>Improved crop/fallow rotations</b>	Higher yields during crop rotation, due to increased soil fertility	Reduced cropping intensity may compromise household food security in short-run	Reduced variability due to increased soil fertility, water holding capacity	
<b>Use of legumes in the crop rotation</b>	Higher yields due to increased N in soil	Reduced cropping intensity may compromise household food security in short-run		
<b>Use of Cover Crops</b>	Higher yields due to reduced on-farm erosion and reduced nutrient leaching	May conflict with using cropland for grazing in mixed crop-livestock systems	Reduced variability due to increased soil fertility, water holding capacity	
<b>Increased Efficiency of N Fertilizer/Manure Use</b>	Higher yields through more efficient use of N fertilizer and/or manure		Lower variability more likely where good drainage and drought infrequent; experience can reduce farm-level variability over time	Potentially greater variability where drought frequent and inexperienced users
<b>Incorporation of Residues</b>	Higher yields through increased soil fertility, increased water holding capacity	Potential trade-off with use as animal feed	Reduced variability due to increased soil fertility, water holding capacity	
<b>Reduced/Zero Tillage*</b>	Higher yields over long run, particularly where increased soil moisture is valuable	May have limited impacts on yields in short-term; weed management becomes very important; potential waterlogging problems	Reduced variability due to reduced erosion and improved soil structure, increased soil fertility	
<b>Live Barriers/Fences</b>	Higher yields	Reduces arable land to some extent	Reduced variability	
<b>Perennials/Agro-Forestry</b>	Greater yields on adjacent croplands from reduced erosion in medium-long term, better rainwater management; and where tree cash crops improves food accessibility	Potentially less food, at least in short-term, if displaces intensive cropping patterns	Reduced variability of agro-forestry and adjacent crops	
<b>Water Management</b>				
<b>Bunds/Zai</b>	Higher yields, particularly where increased soil moisture is key constraint	Potentially lower yields when extremely high rainfall	Reduced variability in dry areas with low likelihood of floods and/or good soil drainage	May increase damage due to heavy rains, when constructed primarily to increase soil moisture
<b>Terraces</b>	Higher yields due to reduced soil and water erosion, increased soil quality	May displace at least some cropland	Reduced variability due to improved soil quality and rainwater management	

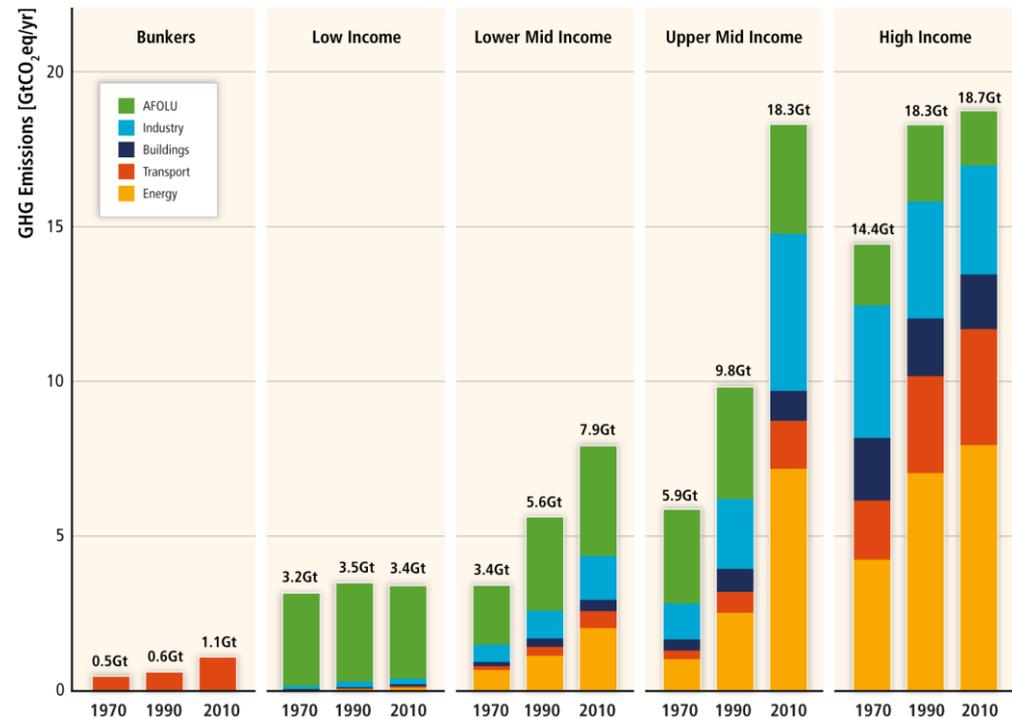
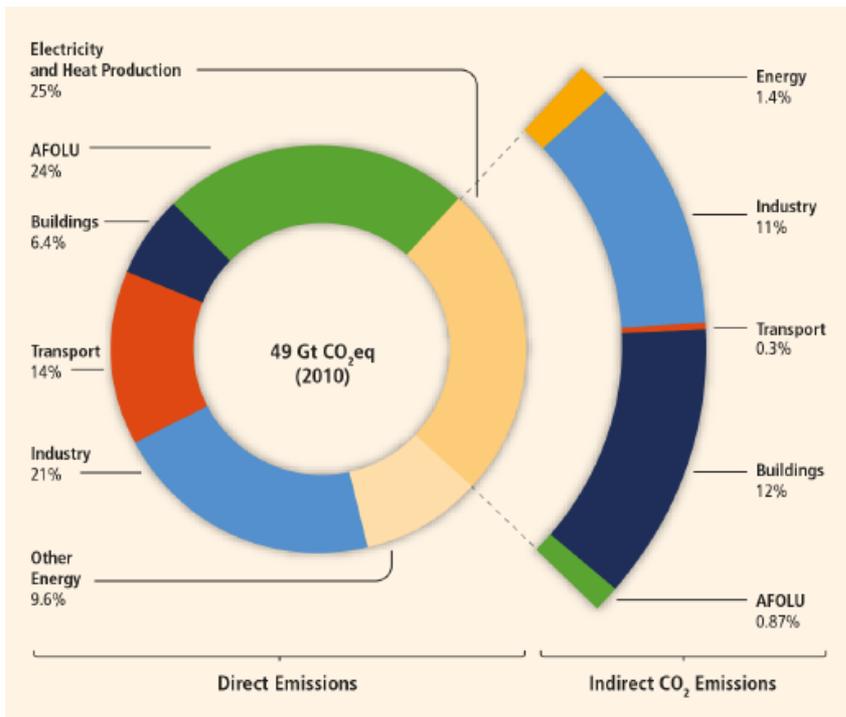
Source: FAO 2009

# Climate Change Mitigation and Agriculture

- Emissions from agriculture account for roughly 14% of global greenhouse gas emissions
- 74% of the emission from agriculture and most of the technical and economic mitigation potential from agriculture are in developing countries
- Degraded land restoration and cropland management are two categories with highest economic and technical potential for mitigation.



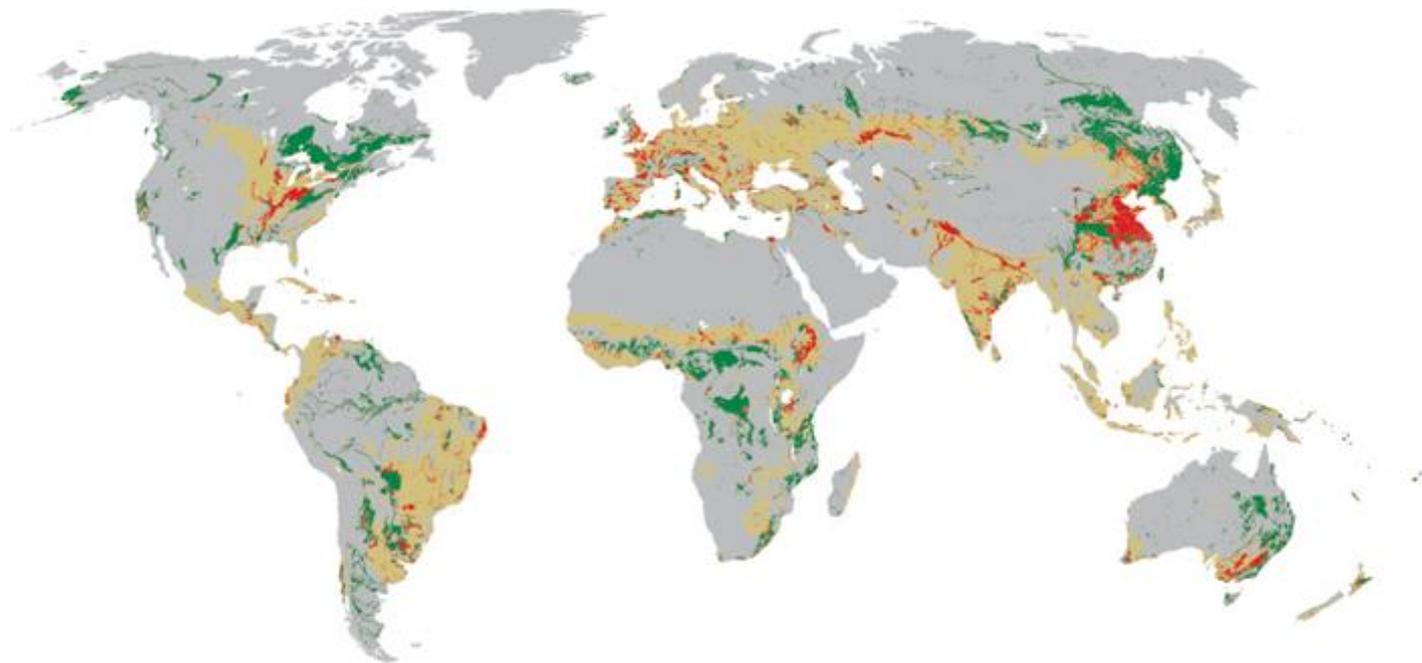
# Agriculture – and Land Degradation a major source of GHG emissions...



# ...but also a major potential source of mitigation

## Technical soil carbon sequestration in croplands

Potential to sequester additional carbon in soils on croplands

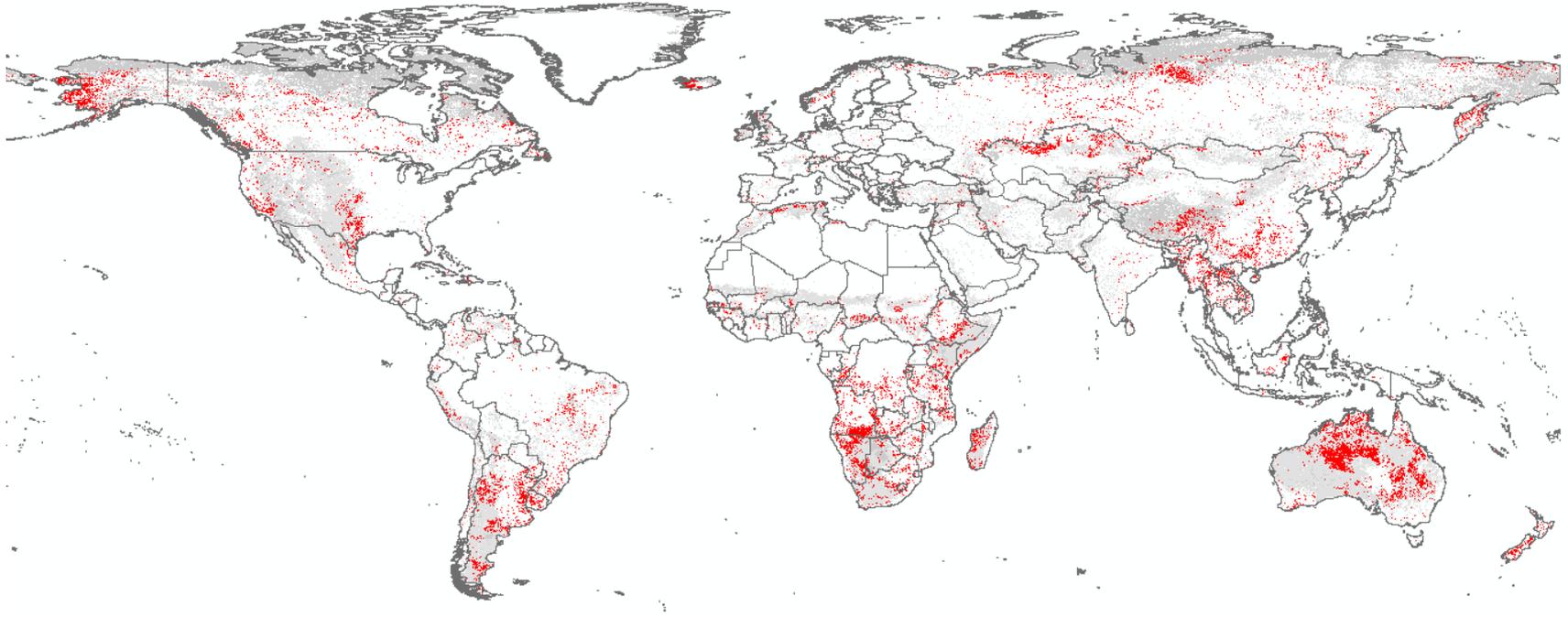


■ Croplands with soil carbon gap    ■ Other croplands    ■ Other land with soil carbon gap

Note: available at  
[http://www.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/google.kml?id=31152&layers=potential\\_sequester\\_carbon\\_cropland](http://www.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/google.kml?id=31152&layers=potential_sequester_carbon_cropland)  
Source: FAO.



# Degraded grasslands

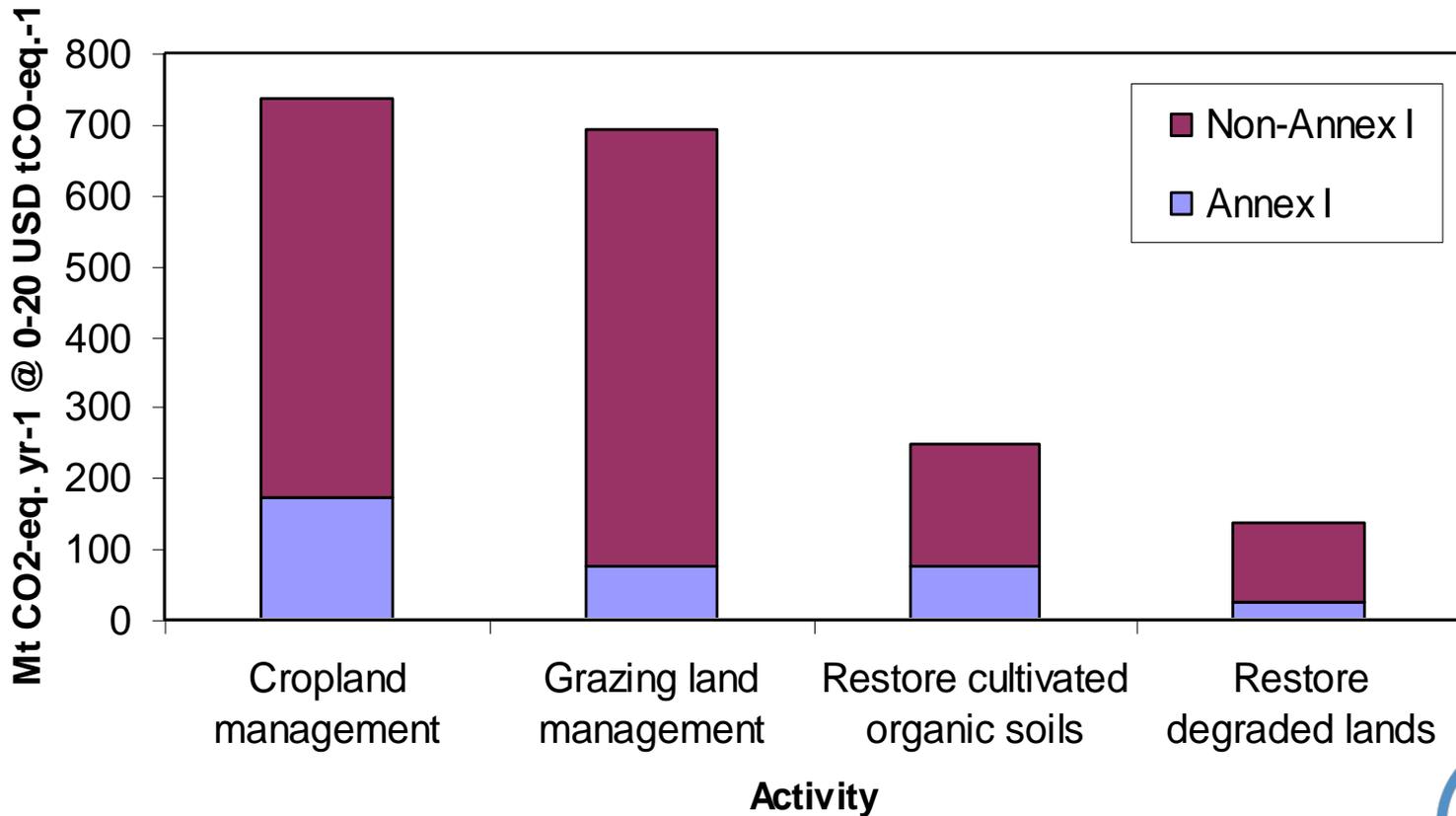


*Satellite derived map using NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) data from 1981 until 2003. Methods to obtain this map: NDVI is converted to NPP (net primary productivity) and corrected by Rain-Use Efficiency (correct the rainfall variability effect). the trend in time (1981-2003) defines improvements (higher NDVI) or decline of the vegetation*

# High synergies with agricultural benefits translates into low opportunity costs of implementing

*Ag Mitigation Potential @ 0-20USD/tCO<sub>2</sub>*

Large Potential in Non-Annex I countries- possibly high co-benefits



(Smith et al 2008)



# Summarizing: Climate Change & Land Degradation

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- Land management/restoration important for adaptation
  - Non-degraded land
    - Reduces exposure & sensitivity of agricultural production to climate variability
    - Provides more stable and, on average (over long time periods), higher yields
- Land management/restoration important for mitigation
  - Economic potential for mitigation from agriculture highest
  - High synergies with adaptation/productivity



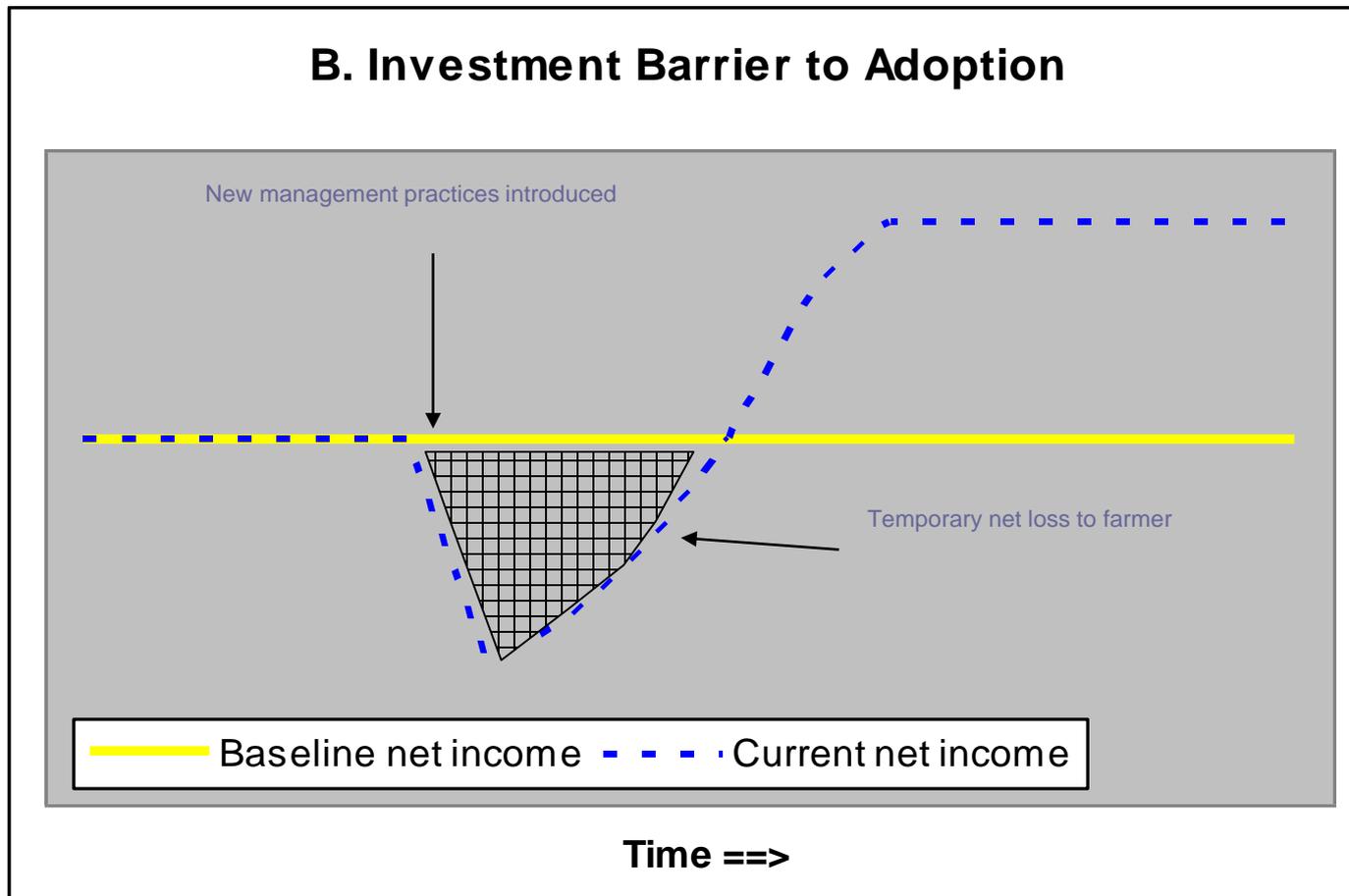
# But barriers to adoption are numerous

- Tenure Security: lack of tenure security and limited property rights (limits on transfer), may hinder adoption of SLM
- Limited Access to Information, e.g. very low levels of investment/support for agriculture research and extension. **CC adds uncertainty.**
- Up-front financing costs can be high, whilst on-farm benefits not realized until medium-long term
  - Local credit markets very thin
  - Local insurance options very limited



# Adoption Barriers:

## Short run trade-offs & long run win-win



Source: FAO 2007



# Short-run tradeoffs stronger for poorer farmers

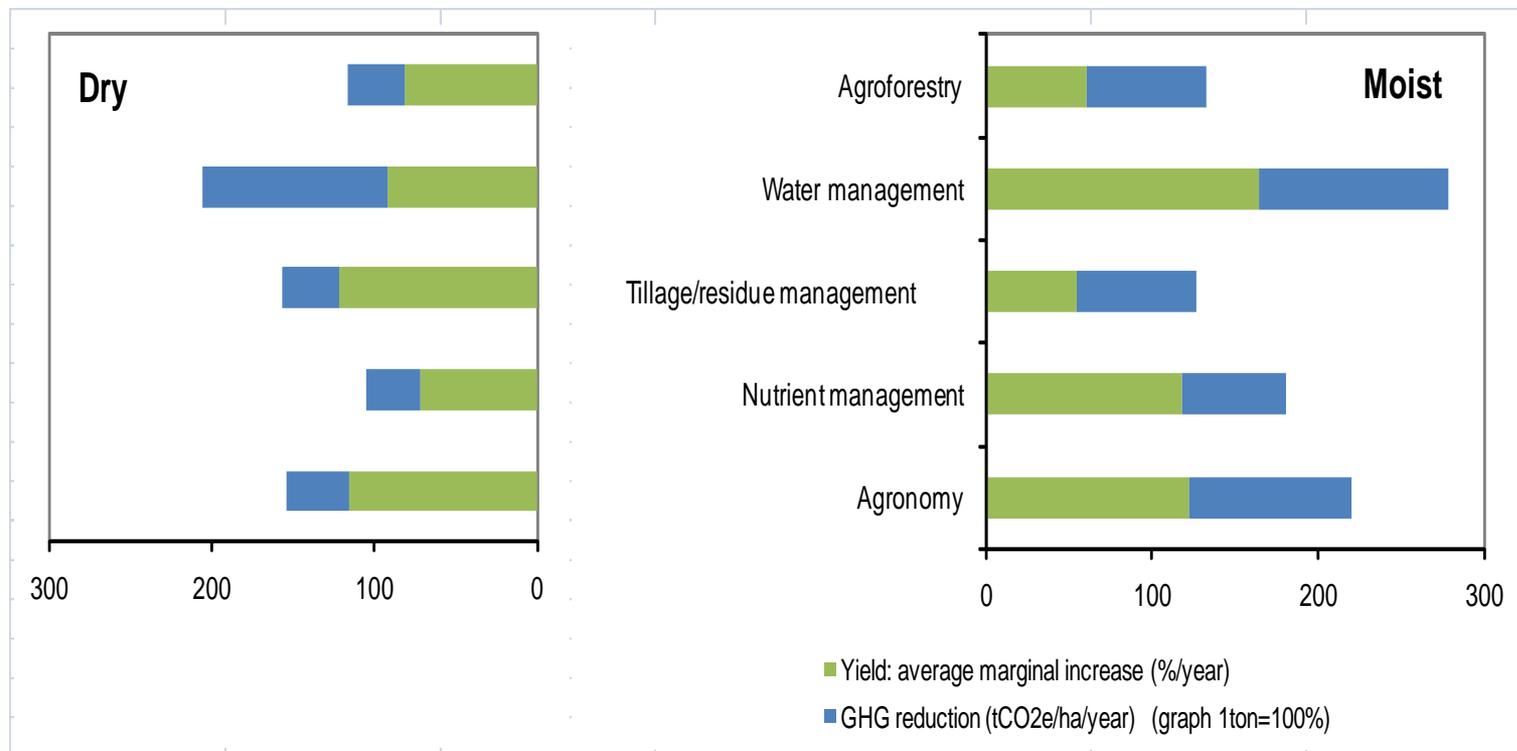
NPV of restoring degraded grazing lands by herd size Qinghai China

Size of herd	Baseline net income	NPV/HA over 20 years	No years to positive cash flow	No of years to positive incremental net income compared to baseline net income
	(\$/ha/yr)	(\$/ha)	(number of years)	(number of years)
Small	14.42	118	5	10
Medium	25.21	191	1	4
Large	25.45	215	1	1
Source: Wilkes 2011				



# Distribution of public/private benefits from land management vary across agro-ecology

Synthesis of literature comparing yield and soil carbon sequestration effects of adopting sustainable land management practices in dry and moist areas



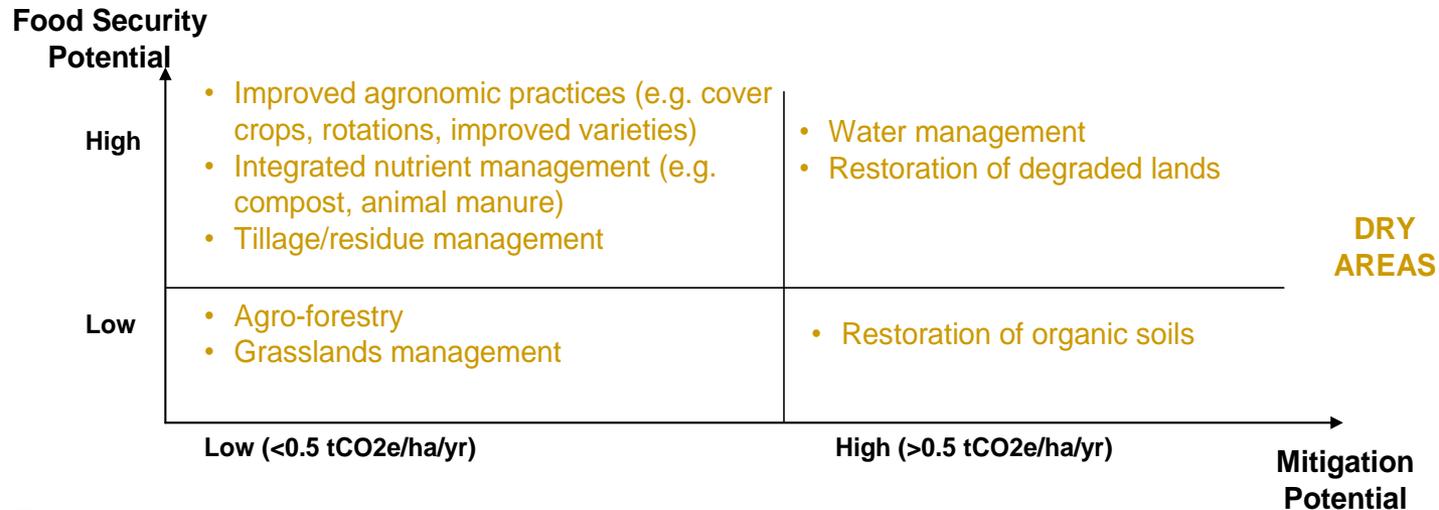
# Heterogeneity in private/public benefits from land management

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Implies the need for developing strategies for land management and restoration specific to agro-ecologies and socio-economic conditions – e.g. responding to relative distribution of private (agricultural adaptation) and public (mitigation) benefits.



# SLM and food security/CC mitigation potential



Addressing the barriers to adoption at scale  
requires major increase and retargeting of  
agricultural investment funds

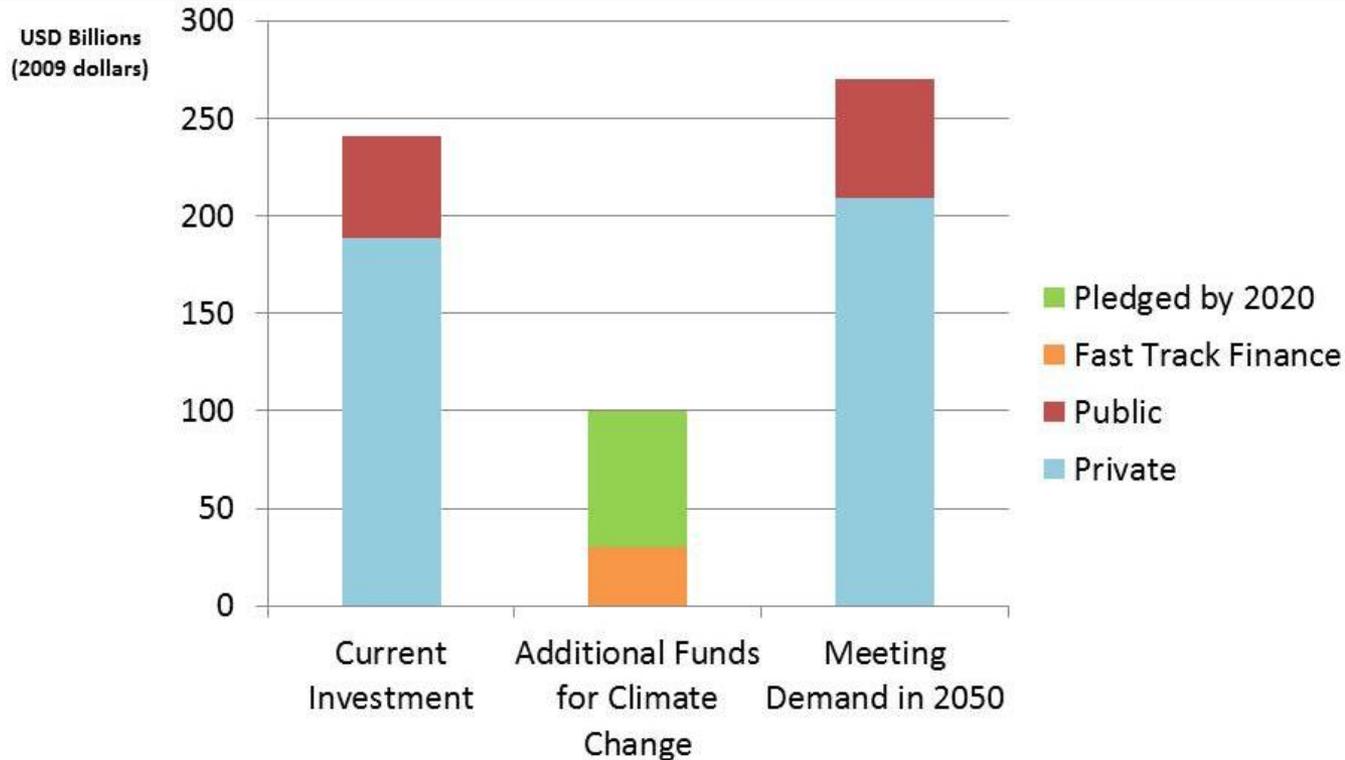
# Emerging climate financing mechanisms that may support land management

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- Climate finance to support adaptation or mitigation activities
- Includes public (GEF, ASAP-IFAD) and private (carbon markets) sectors
- Green Climate Fund (GCF) \$100 billion/year by 2020



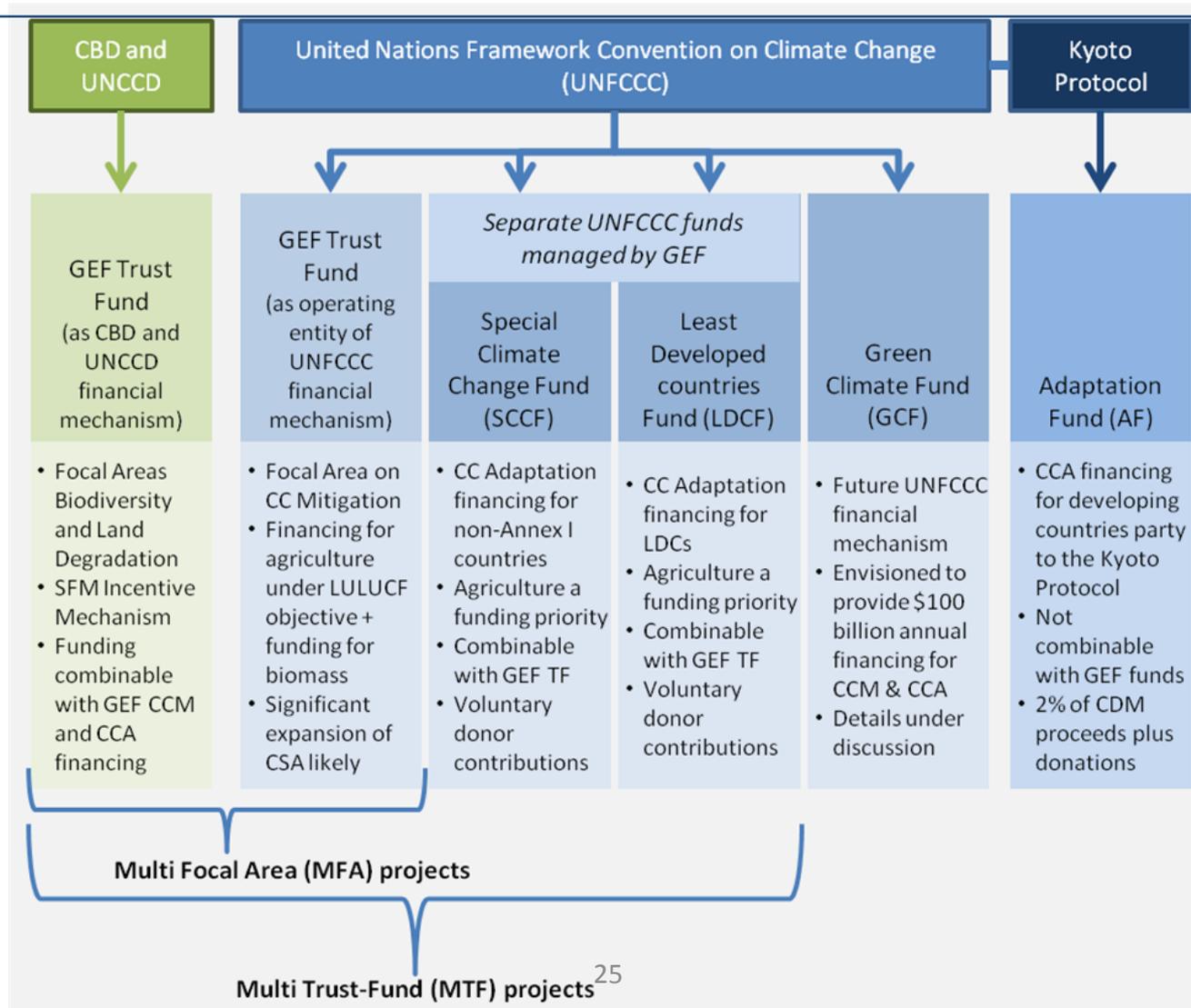
# Climate finance



Can represent a significant but small share of overall yearly investment requirements for agricultural growth



# CC financing channels under UNFCCC

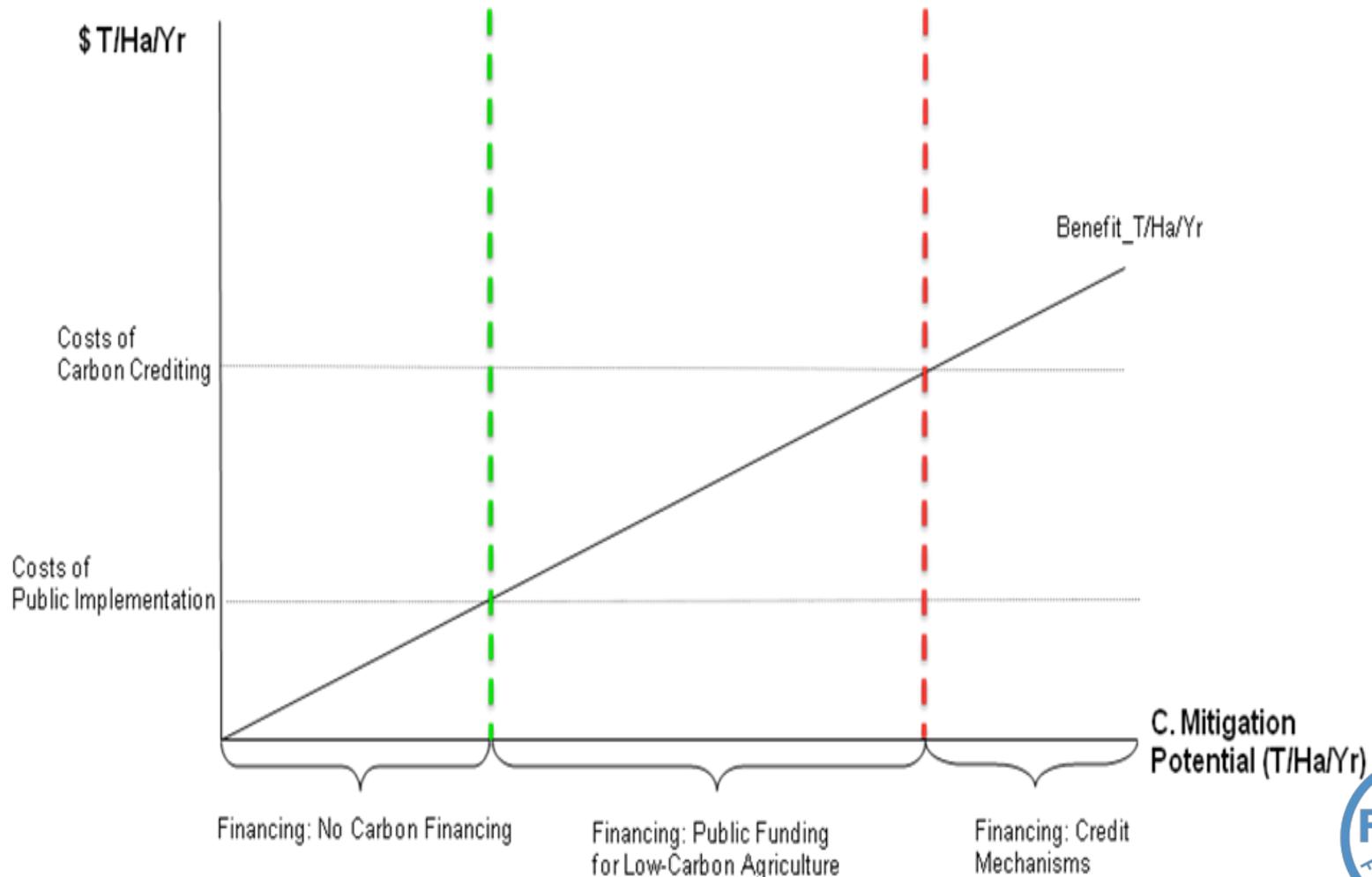


# The role of climate finance for land management?

- Can bring a small, but significant share of new finance to agricultural sector of developing countries.
- Financing mechanisms and institutions are only now being developed: there is opportunity to shape them to support CSA
- Needs to support specific features of CSA:
  - Financing for long term transitions
  - Focus on resilience vs. average productivity gains
  - Attention to efficiency of input/resource use
  - Focus on adaptive capacity/flexibility



# Transactions costs in linking climate finance to smallholder agriculture a key issue



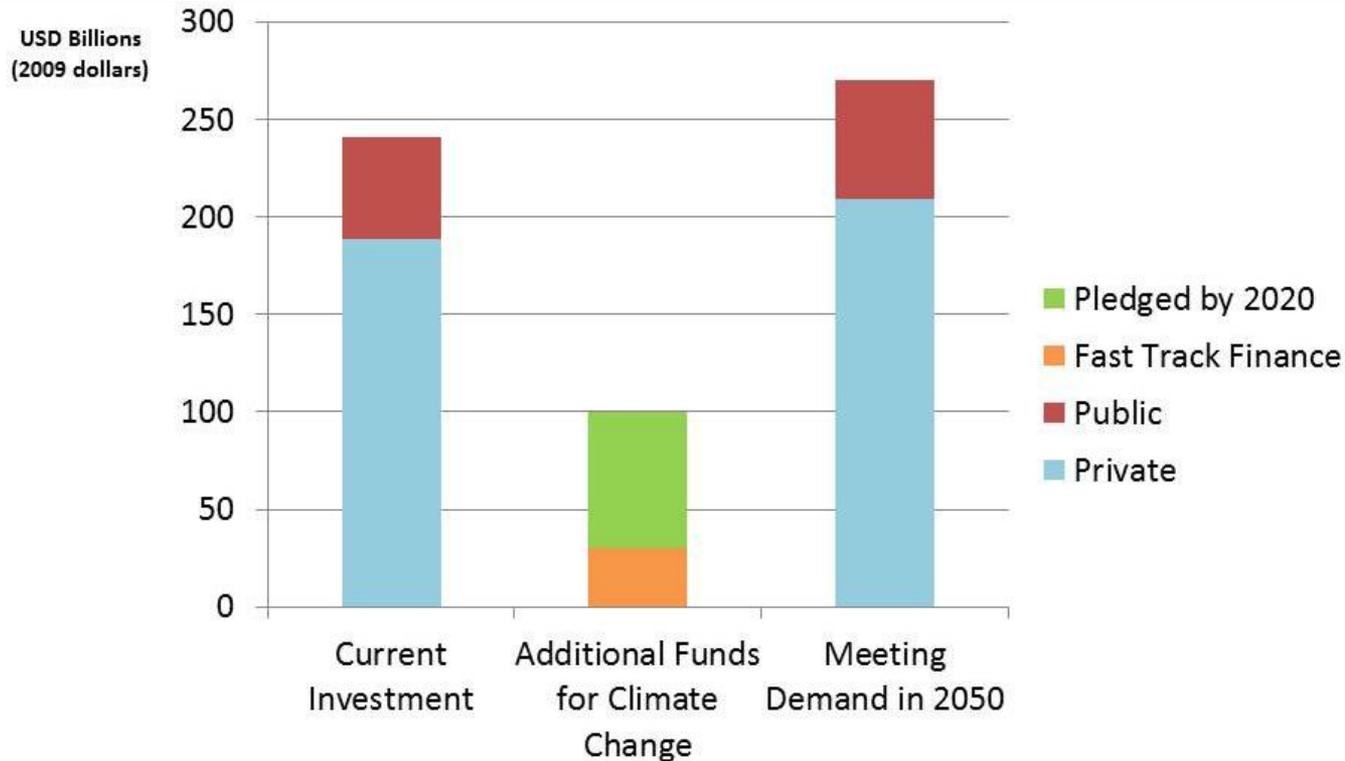
# Conclusions

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- Public benefits of land management often greater than private
- Climate change increases both private and public values
- CC driven changes in public/private values of land management varies by agro-ecology
- Climate finance offers considerable potential to overcome barriers to adopting better land management
- Transactions costs in linking climate finance to smallholder agriculture: public sector financing for major efforts at sectoral level may be most feasible



# Climate finance



can represent a significant but small share of overall yearly investment requirements for agricultural growth



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# Thank you!

If interested in the CSA evidence-base for Malawi, Viet Nam, and Zambia go to:

[www.fao.org/climatechange/epic](http://www.fao.org/climatechange/epic)

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