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1 **Land degradation and climate change: opportunities for climate resilient agriculture**

2

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## 24 **Land degradation and climate change: opportunities for climate resilient agriculture**

25

### 26 **Abstract**

27 Land degradation and climate change pose enormous risks to global food security. Land degradation  
28 influences the vulnerability of agro-ecological systems to climate change impacts and the effectiveness of  
29 adaptation options. However, land degradation has largely been omitted from climate impact assessments  
30 and adaptation planning. Here, we critically examine how land degradation can influence climate change  
31 impacts and producers' adaptive capacity in agro-ecological systems. We then present novel strategies for  
32 climate-resilient agriculture that leverage synergies and integrate responses to the challenges. Forward-  
33 looking, climate-resilient agriculture requires: (1) incorporation of land degradation processes, and their  
34 linkages with adaptive capacity, into adaptation planning, (2) identification of key vulnerabilities to  
35 prioritize adaptation responses, (3) improved knowledge exchange across scales to support strategies for  
36 developing adaptive capacity of producers, and (4) innovative management and policy options that  
37 provide multiple wins for land, climate and biodiversity, thus enabling global development and food  
38 security goals to be achieved.

39

### 40 **In a nutshell:**

- 41 • The interactive effects of land degradation and climate change on global agriculture and food security  
42 are underappreciated.
- 43 • Land degradation has potential to influence the magnitude and direction of climate impacts and  
44 effectiveness of adaptation options.
- 45 • Feedbacks between land degradation, climate change, and the adaptive capacity of land users, needs  
46 to be understood to identify vulnerable systems and prioritize adaptation actions.
- 47 • Improved knowledge exchange across scales, and management and policy responses which focus on  
48 'multi-win' options that reduce land degradation whilst benefiting climate change adaptation and  
49 biodiversity, provide significant opportunities for building climate resilience in agriculture.

50

### 51 **[Manuscript]**

52 Land degradation and climate change are intensifying challenges that have affected global agricultural  
53 production and food security of civilizations for millennia (Diamond 2005). Tackling these challenges is  
54 vital for building sustainable agro-ecological systems that can feed the world's rapidly growing  
55 population. Although there is extensive knowledge about land degradation and climate change as separate  
56 phenomena, less is known about how they are likely to interact in different agro-ecological systems, and  
57 critically, how societies must simultaneously adapt to these challenges (Reed and Stringer 2016). The

58 scale of each challenge alone is enormous. Land degradation is estimated to affect >25% (37.25 million  
59 km<sup>2</sup>) of the global land area, in the form of a reduction or loss of soil quality due to soil physical and  
60 chemical changes and erosion, and declining biological and economic productivity (ELD Initiative 2015).  
61 These changes are occurring across the world's ecosystems and agricultural lands, including arid and  
62 semi-arid rangelands and pasturelands (Bestelmeyer *et al.* 2015), agro-forestry systems (Miettinen *et al.*  
63 2014), and croplands (Karamesouti *et al.* 2015). However, available global assessments of land  
64 degradation rates remain highly uncertain (Drenge and Chou 1994; Oldeman 1994; Lepers *et al.* 2005).  
65 Approximately 40% of land degradation has occurred in developing countries, which are projected to  
66 experience 78% of the global dryland expansion and 50% of the population growth by 2100 (Huang *et al.*  
67 2015). At the same time, the risks of climate change to agriculture, biodiversity and livelihoods are also  
68 vast, with some of the greatest risks in developing dryland areas (IPCC 2014). With the increasing  
69 challenge of global warming, managing accelerating climate impacts presents an immense and urgent  
70 task, while in some cases providing opportunities for land restoration and increasing agricultural  
71 production.

72 Combating land degradation is integral to adaptation planning as land degradation often increases  
73 the exposure and sensitivity of agro-ecological systems to climate impacts; reducing system resilience and  
74 influencing the adaptive capacity of land users (Gisladottir and Stocking 2005). However, impacts of land  
75 degradation and climate change on agriculture have often been masked by technological advances of the  
76 past century (Pingali 2012). For example, in Australia, cereal grain yield increases have been reduced by  
77 soil degradation, resulting in yield plateaus otherwise hidden by ongoing areal expansion of croplands  
78 (Turner *et al.* 2016). Unless soil degradation is addressed, projected declines in rainfall over Australian  
79 croplands may compound the soil degradation impacts on grain yields, presenting a risk to food security  
80 (CSIRO and BoM 2015). In rangeland systems, and in regions that have not adopted appropriate  
81 conservation agriculture, exposure to land degradation risks may be even greater. Shrub encroachment  
82 and wind erosion in the Botswana Kalahari has increased the vulnerability of local communities to  
83 drought relative to those in neighboring Namibia and South Africa (Figure 1) (Dougill *et al.* 2010).  
84 Unless land degradation is addressed now, or alternative land uses and livelihood options sought, rising  
85 temperatures and projected rainfall declines are likely to further impact the ability of southern Botswana  
86 communities to reach their development goals. Government policies, for example the Tribal Grazing  
87 Lands Policy of Botswana (Dougill *et al.* 1999), the European Union's Common Agricultural Policy and  
88 US farm bill, directly influence land degradation rates across agro-ecological systems and their resilience  
89 to climate change (MA 2005). The potential for land to continue providing ecosystem services under a  
90 changing climate is directly impacted by the way in which it is managed. Land degradation can  
91 undermine the effectiveness of climate change adaptation.

92 Novel management and policy options can provide multi-win outcomes for land degradation and  
93 climate change, as well as biodiversity. These draw on current understanding of the biophysical, social  
94 and economic linkages between land degradation and climate change across scales. They enable  
95 identification of key social and biophysical vulnerabilities, and appropriate adaptation strategies.  
96 Adaptation planning has become a focus of global science and policy to address climate change risks and  
97 identify opportunities (Howden *et al.* 2007). However, pervasive and severe land degradation remains a  
98 major barrier to effective adaptation planning for agriculture (Reed and Stringer 2016). Unless land  
99 degradation and climate change are addressed together in ways that do not negatively impact biodiversity,  
100 we may undermine adaptation efforts, exacerbate food security and development risks posed by climate  
101 change, and fail to achieve many of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (United Nations 2015).

102 In this paper we critically assess how land degradation can exacerbate the negative impacts of  
103 climate change and influence the adaptive capacity of producers. We then outline four core actions,  
104 presented as future science, management and policy directions, to improve adaptation planning and the  
105 resilience of global agro-ecological systems to climate change.

106

### 107 **Links between land degradation, climate change and adaptation planning**

108 Land degradation and climate change are interlinked processes that have biophysical and human drivers,  
109 impacts and responses (Herrick *et al.* 2013). Land degradation is defined as a “reduction or loss of  
110 biological or economic productivity and complexity of agro-ecological systems as a consequence of land  
111 use, or from one or more processes which may arise from human activities including: (i) soil erosion by  
112 wind and/or water, (ii) deterioration of the physical, chemical, and biological or economic properties of  
113 soil (e.g., due to salinization), and (iii) long-term loss of natural vegetation” (UNCCD 1994). Such  
114 changes may be exacerbated directly by land use and land management patterns, and natural phenomena  
115 such as drought, heavy rainfall and fire (MA 2005). Land degradation may also be exacerbated by indirect  
116 social, economic and political factors that encourage or impose land use pressures that fail to balance the  
117 use of ecosystem services with agricultural production demands (D’Odorico *et al.* 2013). Land  
118 degradation can therefore manifest in diverse ways across agro-ecological systems; such as structural  
119 changes in tropical forest canopy cover and biomass reduction (Miettinen *et al.* 2014), salinization of  
120 irrigated drylands (Qadir *et al.* 2014) and soil nutrient decline in croplands due to erosion (Quinton *et al.*  
121 2010). These impacts may be diffuse across landscapes and regions, or occur as hot spots and exhibit  
122 large spatial variability.

123 Given the embedded nature of ecological and social systems, land degradation usually results in a  
124 decline in agro-socio-ecosystem resilience; the ability of a system to maintain the structure required to  
125 sustain basic system functions through periods of stress or perturbation (Reed and Stringer 2016).

126 Declining resilience of agricultural and social systems can increase pressure on ecological systems,  
127 leading to a spiral of degradation as soil resources are depleted and vegetation communities change. A  
128 loss of producers' adaptive capacity often occurs as systems become unable to cope with climate and  
129 management stressors (Marshall *et al.* 2014). These changes typically take place across multiple scales,  
130 involving different stakeholder groups (e.g., land users, technical advisors, administrators and policy  
131 makers).

132 Land degradation may be associated with regime shifts in agro-ecological systems, demanding novel  
133 management or land use change. Response strategies may therefore be targeted toward equilibrium  
134 (predictable) or non-equilibrium (episodic) management change (Bestelmeyer *et al.* 2015). Climate  
135 change can exacerbate and accelerate land degradation. For example, due to accelerated soil erosion,  
136 increased evapotranspiration rates, drought, and changes in biodiversity, pests and diseases. Legacy  
137 effects of historical land degradation may therefore also influence the magnitude and direction (positive  
138 or negative) of the impacts of climate change on agro-ecological systems. Conceptual models of  
139 ecosystem resilience (Kelly *et al.* 2015), applied to agriculture as complex adaptive systems, have been  
140 effective tools for understanding land degradation impacts on agricultural production and their  
141 interconnectedness with social and economic systems (Rist *et al.* 2016). Land degradation is a key factor  
142 influencing the vulnerability of agro-ecological systems to climate change.

143 Exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity of producers determine the vulnerability of agro-  
144 ecological systems to climate change, and can each be influenced directly and indirectly by land  
145 degradation (Figure 2). Soil quality or soil health, defined by a suite of dynamic soil properties including  
146 structure, soil organic carbon, infiltration rates and availability of nutrients (Seybold *et al.* 1999),  
147 represents the status of the soil relative to its potential (UNEP-IRP 2016), where better soil health is  
148 generally associated with lower sensitivity to climate change. Soil health is impacted by land degradation  
149 primarily via erosion, but also soil physical, chemical and biological changes. Declining soil health may  
150 occur concurrently with vegetation changes due to land use and management (Bestelmeyer *et al.* 2015),  
151 impacting forage and crop production responses to climate change. Through these processes, land  
152 degradation can reduce the positive fertilization effects of elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on vegetation (Reich  
153 and Hobbie 2012).

154 The impacts of land degradation on agro-ecological systems are also connected to systems' socio-  
155 economic vulnerability. Changes to the quantity and quality of ecosystem services as a consequence of  
156 climate change will affect livelihoods across value chains (from "farm to fork"). These changes ultimately  
157 feed back to affect land management and land degradation. Because of these linkages, land degradation  
158 further impacts upon adaptation options. For example, increasing invasive species (e.g. cheatgrass,  
159 *Bromus tectorum*) in rangelands of the western United States reduce management options for livestock

160 producers to adapt to increasing drought frequency that impacts forage availability (Briske *et al.* 2015).  
161 Accounting for how land degradation impacts adaptation options in such ways will be critical for  
162 adaptation planning.

163       Adaptation planning for agriculture has largely failed to consider the risks associated with ongoing  
164 land degradation, or opportunities arising from restoration of degraded land. While some national  
165 adaptation plans for agriculture identify the importance of soil conservation (e.g. Walthall *et al.* 2012;  
166 Government of Brazil 2016), many still do not address land degradation as an integral part of that  
167 planning, for example, Australia (Australian Government 2015) and India (Government of India 2008).  
168 For crop and livestock production systems, incremental adaptation options such as changing crop varieties  
169 and livestock breeds, and altering the timing and location of management activities, have been an  
170 important focus (Howden *et al.* 2007). Yet land degradation can severely reduce the effectiveness of these  
171 types of incremental and reactive adaptations. Such adaptations may only have short-term benefits, while  
172 long-term and transformational management responses (e.g., land use change) are often required (Kates *et*  
173 *al.* 2012). Autonomous adaptation at local scales will continue to be important for maintaining healthy  
174 agro-ecological systems. However, strategies underpinned by forward planning, motivated and  
175 empowered land managers, financial resources, and supportive government policy are needed to enable  
176 adaptation at broad scales (Chasek *et al.* 2015). Addressing land degradation now, as an anticipatory  
177 adaptation strategy, is potentially a highly effective approach to building productive and sustainable agro-  
178 ecological systems for the future. Multiple responses are required across local, national and regional  
179 scales to build the resilience and reduce the vulnerability of agro-ecological systems to land degradation  
180 and climate change.

181

## 182 **Future directions for science, management and policy**

183 Science, management and policy opportunities are emerging that will enable land degradation to be  
184 addressed as a key element of climate change adaptation planning for agriculture. Politically, there is  
185 increasing interest in doing this. The endorsement of SDG target 15.3 (Land Degradation Neutrality  
186 (LDN), defined as a world where the amount of healthy and productive land resources necessary to  
187 support ecosystem services remains stable or increases; UNCCD 2015) by the United Nations Convention  
188 to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) Conference of the Parties increased the visibility of land issues,  
189 particularly in relation to the SDGs, and strengthened the focus of the Convention itself on land  
190 restoration (UNCCD 2015). Challenges and opportunities associated with LDN are now the focus of  
191 international efforts to better characterize areas that are land degradation neutral (e.g., Salvati and  
192 Carlucci 2014) and develop pathways to achieving Zero Net Land Degradation (Chasek *et al.* 2015; Stavi  
193 and Lal 2015). In 2016, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) agreed to create a

194 special report on desertification, land degradation and climate change that will complement the Sixth  
195 Assessment Report (AR6). Coordination is also improving among the UNCCD, UN Framework  
196 Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and UN Convention on Biological Diversity (UNCBD) to  
197 identify and harness synergies in responses to land degradation and climate change; for example,  
198 supporting complementary adaptation strategies within the National Adaptation Programmes of Action  
199 under the UNFCCC, and National Action Programmes under the UNCCD (Reed and Stringer 2016).  
200 While these important international steps are significant, complementary local, national and regional  
201 approaches are required to integrate ways to tackle land degradation within adaptation planning for  
202 agriculture. Here we identify and evidence four core multi-level actions that can be taken.

203

### 204 ***1. Increase understanding of biophysical, biogeochemical and socio-economic interactions***

205 Research is essential to establish how the linkages between land degradation and climate change affect  
206 impacts and opportunities, producers' adaptive capacity, and potential response strategies. Two  
207 outstanding research requirements are (i) accounting for land degradation in systems approaches for  
208 evaluating impacts and adaptation options, and (ii) evaluating the social-biophysical interactions of land  
209 degradation and climate change and the implications for adaptive capacity.

210 Systems approaches to adaptation planning are required to assess the biophysical, biogeochemical,  
211 social, and economic interactions between land degradation and climate change (e.g., van Grinkel *et al.*  
212 2013). Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) are important tools for evaluating climate change impacts  
213 on human-environmental systems (Reynolds *et al.* 2011). However, Land Surface Models (LSMs) (e.g.,  
214 the Community Atmosphere Biosphere Land Exchange (CABLE), Joint UK Land Environment Simulator  
215 (JULES), and Noah models) that represent soil-vegetation-atmosphere interactions in IAMs currently do  
216 not represent land degradation processes (Best *et al.* 2015). The omission of wind and water erosion, and  
217 their biophysical and biogeochemical feedbacks, creates large model uncertainties and severely limits  
218 IAM assessments of the linkages between land degradation, climate change and adaptation responses  
219 (Chappell *et al.* 2015).

220 Agricultural systems models that are used to assess farm-level climate impacts and adaptation also  
221 omit key land degradation processes and feedbacks. For example, the Agricultural Policy/Environmental  
222 eXtender (APEX), and the Agricultural Production Systems sIMulator (APSIM) and Decision Support  
223 System for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) within the Agricultural Model Intercomparison and  
224 Improvement Project (AgMIP), incorporate water erosion but either do not represent wind erosion, or  
225 omit the combined erosion process feedbacks to soils, nutrients and vegetation (Rosenzweig *et al.* 2013).  
226 Exclusion of erosion processes and degradation scenarios from model assessments creates uncertainties in  
227 the nature of climate change impacts and the biophysical-to-economic trade-offs for management options



228 (Panel 1 and Figure 3; Webb *et al.* 2013). Incorporating land degradation processes into systems analyses  
229 at all scales is needed to assess agro-ecosystem resilience, the agro-ecological and socio-economic  
230 impacts of climate change, and adaptation scenarios. Such improvements are also needed to evaluate the  
231 changing effectiveness of adaptation strategies over time and identify tipping points at which adaptations  
232 may become maladaptations and negatively impact agro-ecological systems (Magnan *et al.* 2016).

233 An improved understanding of the linkages between land degradation and human adaptive capacity  
234 is also needed to support adaptation planning for agriculture (Stringer *et al.* 2009). How the capacity of  
235 land users to adapt to climate change is related to patterns of land degradation has not been established for  
236 different agro-ecological systems (e.g., Barbier 2000). A better understanding of the relationship between  
237 adaptive capacity and land degradation will facilitate identification of barriers and limits to the adoption  
238 of climate-smart and sustainable land management practices (Lipper *et al.* 2014). At national and global  
239 scales, understanding the linkages between land degradation and adaptive capacity is important for  
240 developing and implementing policies to achieve LDN. Encouraging land users and policymakers to  
241 develop their own knowledge about land degradation, informed by scientific understanding, can  
242 complement formal knowledge building in support of adaptation planning at all scales.

243

## 244 **2. Identify vulnerabilities**

245 Identifying which agro-ecological systems are vulnerable to the interactive effects of land degradation  
246 and climate change is vital for prioritising management and policy responses at different scales. In part  
247 this is a biophysical and biogeochemical challenge, requiring knowledge of how both inherent land  
248 potential (UNEP-IRP 2016) and land degradation processes interact with changes in temperature,  
249 precipitation, and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Drylands, with limited rainfall and often high  
250 temperatures, and areas already experiencing land degradation, are likely most exposed to damaging  
251 interactions with climate change (Gisladottir and Stocking 2005). Interactions between land degradation  
252 and climate change are also likely to be highly variable in space and time. For example, the impacts of  
253 declining rainfall on crop yields and livestock forage availability will vary across degraded and non-  
254 degraded lands with different infiltration rates and soil moisture retention (Herrick *et al.* 2013).  
255 Application of integrated agro-ecosystems models that incorporate land degradation processes will  
256 improve the identification of where these feedbacks are most likely to occur, and which regions are most  
257 vulnerable.

258 Identifying vulnerabilities is also a challenge for social scientists and economists. Key sensitivities  
259 and exposure to climate change likely manifest in land use approaches and policy that have resulted in, or  
260 are driving, land degradation (Figure 4) (Stringer *et al.* 2009). Historical degradation patterns may  
261 provide analogues for identifying vulnerabilities that can be linked to agro-ecological assessments.

262 Participatory planning approaches that combine biophysical assessments with producer evaluations of  
263 adaptation options have revealed vulnerabilities in agricultural systems, e.g. in northern Australia (Webb  
264 *et al.* 2013), through comparison of land users' management aspirations with scientific knowledge and the  
265 benefits of joint knowledge production. Land degradation concepts can be readily incorporated into such  
266 approaches, or other analytical framings of adaptation (Wise *et al.* 2014). Socio-economic vulnerabilities  
267 can be as, or more, important than ecological vulnerabilities for climate change adaptation in agriculture  
268 (Abson *et al.* 2012). Exploring new approaches that reveal the underpinning factors influencing different  
269 system vulnerabilities will therefore be important for identifying successful management and policy  
270 responses.

271

### 272 **3. Improve knowledge exchange across scales**

273 Improved knowledge exchange among stakeholders such as scientists and land users, technical advisors,  
274 administrators, and policy makers across scales is essential to ensure land degradation-climate change  
275 linkages are appropriately recognized within management and policy options. Integrating different  
276 knowledge systems (e.g., indigenous, traditional, local, scientific), and co-generating new knowledge,  
277 often leads to more robust agricultural policy decisions (Raymond *et al.* 2010). Knowledge exchange can  
278 also facilitate response options that are more appropriate to the needs of local communities and can  
279 protect their livelihoods and wellbeing.

280 Cross-institutional initiatives and mechanisms for evidence-based policy making may be most  
281 effective for knowledge integration and sharing for planning across the land degradation and climate  
282 change domains (Akhtar-Schuster *et al.* 2011). At the international level, science-policy interfaces like the  
283 IPCC, Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES), and  
284 the Science-Policy Interface (SPI) of the UNCCD, as well as assessments like the Millennium Ecosystem  
285 Assessment and the IPBES Land Degradation and Restoration Assessment, can all contribute towards  
286 multi-stakeholder learning. Developing approaches for successful knowledge exchange (e.g., Chasek *et al.*  
287 *et al.* 2011) across institutional boundaries and among stakeholders (e.g., local land users, researchers, and  
288 policy makers) within and outside the UN Conventions will be especially important for increasing  
289 adoption of practices and policy that address land degradation and climate change together. Building  
290 participatory research and knowledge sharing at national and local scales through coordinated agricultural  
291 extension will complement international efforts to support exchange of knowledge and approaches to  
292 tackle land degradation within adaptation planning. These participatory approaches will increasingly be  
293 able to draw on the growing availability of relevant knowledge and information through the development  
294 of web portals, such as the UNCCD's new Knowledge Hub, the US Department of Agriculture's Climate  
295 Hubs, and mobile applications such as the Land-Potential Knowledge System (Herrick *et al.* 2016).

296 **4. Develop innovative, multi-win management and policy options**

297 Management and policy options are needed to actively restore agro-ecosystem resilience while  
298 minimising negative climate impacts. Some land management strategies will remain spatially and  
299 temporally robust, while others may not be sustainable under changing conditions and new management  
300 and policy options will be required (Figure 5) (Reynolds *et al.* 2011). ‘Multi-win’ options that apply  
301 innovative sustainable land management (SLM) solutions to reduce land degradation, support restoration,  
302 and balance land degradation, climate change adaptation, human well-being and biodiversity outcomes,  
303 should be prioritized within the context of existing adaptation approaches such as Climate Smart  
304 Agriculture (CSA; Lipper *et al.* 2014). The flexibility of CSA as a proactive option for addressing land  
305 degradation and climate change across agro-socio-economic sectors has been recognised for some time  
306 (Thomas 2008). However, redoubling efforts to implement these strategies now to enhance existing  
307 conservation practices, and within adaptation planning frameworks, will be critical for future food  
308 security and the resilience of agro-ecological systems.

309 Land management and policy options have variable appeal to stakeholders in different situations,  
310 agricultural sectors and regions. Adaptation planning must anticipate and overcome, where possible,  
311 barriers to management and policy adoption. Planning multi-win responses therefore needs to consider the  
312 resilience and restoration potential of the biophysical environment (including under climate change  
313 conditions), social needs, institutional needs (to establish incentives and shape behaviours), and evolving  
314 needs for knowledge exchange to provide access to relevant information, technology, and agricultural  
315 industry engagement. Promoting the use of active adaptive management at all scales (e.g., by land  
316 managers, regional climate adaptation planners, industry, and government) can be useful for overcoming  
317 barriers to adoption, reducing dis-adoption, enhancing adaptive capacity, and increasing implementation  
318 of new management and policy options (Marshall *et al.* 2013). Empowering agricultural land users to take  
319 new identities as ‘land stewards’, for example by increasing the security of land tenure, can increase the  
320 range of strategies available to policy makers, the sustained adoption of CSA and SLM by land users, and  
321 the likelihood that improvements in land condition will be observed that will reinforce the benefits of  
322 combating land degradation to build climate resilience in agriculture.

323

324 **Conclusions**

325 Combating land degradation is essential for building sustainable agro-ecological systems that are climate  
326 resilient, conserve biodiversity, and meet global development goals. Future agro-ecological systems will  
327 depend on our ability to develop innovative management and policy options now. At the global scale,  
328 increasing coordination among the UNCCD, UNFCCC and UNCBD has sought to build the enabling  
329 environment for agro-ecological systems to become land degradation neutral and climate resilient

330 (Chasek *et al.*, 2015; Reed and Stringer, 2016). However, additional new opportunities must be sought for  
331 scientists, managers and policymakers to fill critical gaps in assessment capabilities and understanding,  
332 and to establish stronger connections with aligned efforts to tackle climate adaptation and biodiversity  
333 challenges at local to global scales. To address this need, we have presented four multi-level actions that  
334 can be taken to integrate efforts to combat land degradation into climate change adaptation planning.

335 We argue that research must interrogate the feedbacks between land degradation and climate change,  
336 and the linkages between land degradation and the adaptive capacity of land users, taking a holistic  
337 systems approach. Integrating land degradation processes and knowledge into agro-ecosystem assessment  
338 models will be critical for effectively evaluating interactions between land degradation and climate  
339 change, and identifying adaptation strategies in developed and developing countries alike. Agro-  
340 ecological systems that are vulnerable to the combined effects of land degradation and climate change  
341 must be identified to prioritize actions in these areas and reduce the costs of ongoing land degradation.  
342 Lessons learned in regions with resilient agro-ecological systems should be used to support regions with  
343 low adaptive capacity (Salvati and Carlucci 2014), while improving knowledge exchange among  
344 stakeholders at all scales can support the adoption of strategies to achieve LDN within a changing  
345 climate. Responses that provide multi-win outcomes for land degradation, climate change and  
346 biodiversity offer the greatest benefits for agro-ecological systems and global food security.

347

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351

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495 **Panel 1. Australian rangeland degradation increases enterprise vulnerability to climate change**

496

497 In the Australian rangelands, livestock producers face the challenge of balancing their production goals in  
498 a climate with highly variable rainfall while avoiding overgrazing that could result in land degradation.  
499 Historical degradation of Australian rangelands significantly impacts forage availability today, and has  
500 implications for the economic viability of enterprises under a changing climate. These impacts are  
501 illustrated for a beef cattle enterprise near Charters Towers, Queensland (Figure 3; after Webb *et al.*  
502 2013). The data illustrate the effectiveness of land degradation, represented as a decline in soil quality and  
503 loss of perennial forage species, on climate impacts averaged across three land types (soil-vegetation  
504 complexes) for climate change scenarios of doubled atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (from 350 ppm to 700 ppm) with: a  
505 hotter and wetter (HW) scenario of +3°C with +17% rainfall, a hotter and drier (HD) scenario of +3°C  
506 with -6% rainfall, and a hotter and much drier (HMD) scenario of +3°C with -51% rainfall.

507 Land degradation affects the magnitude and direction of climate impacts under the baseline (1890-  
508 1990) climate, and each climate change scenario, with considerable variability among land type  
509 responses. Degraded land is less productive, more susceptible to erosion, and less profitable or not  
510 profitable at all. Failure to address declining land condition has increased the vulnerability of enterprises  
511 to climate change. Ongoing land degradation may reduce the effectiveness of incremental adaptation  
512 strategies, like adjusting stocking rates to suit forage availability, and increase the risk of negative impacts  
513 and missed opportunities over the long term. Production on non-degraded lands can benefit more than  
514 degraded lands under a climate with improved growing conditions (HW). Production on non-degraded or  
515 restored lands could be no worse off, and in fact could be better, under extreme climate stress (HMD)  
516 than it is today for land in a degraded condition. Australian investment in policies and practices to  
517 mitigate land degradation and restore degraded lands is needed to safeguard enterprise viability and food  
518 security under a future climate with poor growing conditions.

519 **List of Figures**

520 Figure 1 – Land degradation can manifest as a decline in ecosystem services associated with ecological  
521 change, such as in the rangelands of the Botswana Kalahari. Overgrazing of grasslands (a), especially  
522 during drought, may lead to wind erosion and shrub invasion (b). Persistent reduction of grasses and  
523 shrub competition may lead to shrub dominance (c). These processes can be exacerbated by climate  
524 change. Restoration may require reduced grazing pressure, soil stabilization and mechanical intervention.  
525 This may require significant capital input, which may not be available to land users, or create need for  
526 land use and livelihood change.

527

528 Figure 2 – A framework for conceptualising the linkages between land degradation and vulnerability of  
529 agriculture to climate change across ecological and socio-economic domains. These domains overlap  
530 where agro-ecological, social and economic processes interact, e.g., in determining the vulnerability of  
531 ecological systems via the influence of management strategies on land degradation. Adapted from  
532 Marshall *et al.* (2014).

533

534 Figure 3 – Climate change impacts on a livestock (beef) enterprise in northern Australia for degraded and  
535 non-degraded lands. Impacts are expressed as the mean and standard deviation (error bars) of three  
536 simulated land type responses to hotter and wetter (HW), hotter and drier (HD) and hotter and much drier  
537 (HMD) climate change scenarios relative to an 1890-1990 baseline (see Panel 1). Adapted from Webb *et*  
538 *al.* (2013).

539

540 Figure 4 - Vulnerabilities to the interactive effects of land degradation and climate change likely manifest  
541 in land use approaches and policy that drive land degradation. Adaptation options may be limited for  
542 some land users, requiring greater government involvement and support across local to national scales to  
543 be most effective (Stringer *et al.* 2009).

544

545 Figure 5 – Over the last century, regime shifts in desert grasslands (a) of the southwestern US have  
546 resulted in the expansion of shrublands dominated by mesquite (*Prosopis glandulosa*) and increased wind  
547 erosion (b). The spread of this unpalatable shrub, and associated loss of perennial grasses (e.g., black  
548 grama, *Bouteloua eriopoda*), has reduced the carrying capacity for beef cattle and increased the  
549 vulnerability of enterprises to drought and climate change. With few options for restoring the shrub-  
550 invaded rangelands, novel management strategies with livestock that can utilize available forage (see  
551 Anderson *et al.*, 2015) are being sought to build resilience in ranching communities.