

1 *Type of the Paper (Article)*

## 2 **Remote sensing based and participatory Analysis of** 3 **land degradation and potential land conservation** 4 **measures in Kloto District (Togo, West Africa)**

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23 **Abstract:** This study investigates proximate drivers of cropland and forest degradation in Kloto  
24 district (Togo, West Africa) as, way of, exploring integrated sustainable landscape approaches in  
25 respect to socio-economic and environmental needs and requirements. Net change analysis of major  
26 cash and food crops based on three time steps Landsat data (1985–2002, 2002–2017 and 1985–2017)  
27 and quantitative analysis from participatory survey data with farmers and landowners are used.  
28 Study underlines poor agricultural systems and cassava farming as major impediments to alarming  
29 forest losses between 1985–2017. Significant net loss in forests cover by 23.6% and surface areas  
30 under cultivation of cocoa agroforestry and maize by 12.99 and 10.1% from 1985 to 2017, due to,  
31 intensive cassava cropping (38.78%) and settlement expansions (7.84%). Meanwhile, loss in forest  
32 cover between 2017 and 2002 was marginal (8.36%) compared to the period 1985–2002 for which the  
33 loss was considerable (15.24%). Based on participatory surveys, majority of agricultural lands are  
34 threatened by erosion or physical deterioration (67.5%), land degradation or salt deposits and loss  
35 of micro/macro fauna and flora at 56.7%, declining in soil fertility (32.5%), soil water holding  
36 capacity (11.7%) and changes in soil texture (3.3%). Majority of farmers adhere to the adoption of  
37 the proposed climate smart practices with emphasis on cost effective drip irrigation systems  
38 (45.83%), soil mulching (35%) and adoption of drought resilient varieties (29.17%) to anticipate  
39 drought spells adverse. The study concludes that low adoption of improved soil conservation,  
40 integrated water management and harvesting systems and low productive and adaptive cultivars  
41 entail extreme degradation of croplands and crops productivity decline. Therefore, farmers are  
42 forced to clear more forests in search of stable and healthy soils for production and extraction of  
43 forest products to meet their food demands and improve their livelihoods conditions. Capacity  
44 building on integrated pathways of soil and land management practices are therefore needed to  
45 ensure sustainable and viable socio-ecological systems at local scale.

46 **Keywords:** Land degradation, Food security, climate change, Remote sensing, survey datasets,  
47 Kloto District

## 48 1. Introduction

49 Participatory integration of forests, agriculture and sustainable development is fundamental to  
50 maintain and sustain natural ecosystems, food security while adapting and mitigating climate  
51 change. Deforestation and forest degradation is one of the chief contributor to climate change and  
52 ecosystem losses. In Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) sectors, agriculture remains  
53 the sole impediment to forests sustainability due to population growth and its incessant needs for  
54 food, energy, water, shelter, etc. With a global total area of nearly 4 billion hectares (30% of the Earth  
55 surface cover), forests play tremendous role when it comes to carbon cycling and ecosystem  
56 sustainability in changing climate (Cramer et al., 2004; Van Der Werf et al., 2009; Saatchi et al., 2011;  
57 IPCC, 2014). Recently, the population growth associated to the increase in food demand, socio-  
58 economic orientations of countries and political decisions underpin the alarming loss of forests  
59 worldwide, especially in developing countries. A case study in Cameroon and Congo revealed that,  
60 institutional and policy factors are predominant to combat deforestation and forest degradation  
61 (Tegegne et al., 2016). Keenan et al. (2015) posited significant net shrinking in forest areas from 4128  
62 to 3999 Mha between 1990 to 2015 mainly in the tropics with highest rate loss in low income countries  
63 based on the statistics of Global Forest Resources Assessment (FAO, 2015). Consequently, it is  
64 estimated, according to Houghton (2005) and Gibbs et al. (2007) that 1 to 2 billion Mg of carbon are  
65 released per year as direct consequences of deforestation. 15 – 25% of annual greenhouse gas  
66 emissions emanated from tropical deforestation and forest degradation and nearly 33% of climate  
67 mitigation and adaptation talks emphasis on forests sustainability. To such, the United Nations  
68 institutional organs (e.g. UNCCD, UNEP, UNFCCC, FAO) and affiliated research centers (e.g.  
69 CIFOR, WWF, ICRAF) bold an ambitious plan to halt deforestation and forest degradation, protect  
70 and promote forests reserves, restore degraded forests ecosystems and improve capacity building on  
71 integrated forests and agriculture landscape management. In West Africa, and especially in Togo,  
72 forest loss and deforestation are acute environmental challenge occurring at some unprecedented  
73 rate forest ecosystems. The annual deforestation is alarming with up to 4.5% where, forests recover  
74 rates nearly 24.24% ([www.reddtogo.tg](http://www.reddtogo.tg)). Deliberate expansion of croplands entails significant  
75 degradation of native forestlands in association with total conversion of forest areas to croplands  
76 mainly for cash (cocoa agroforestry, coffee, teak, oil palm production) and food (rice, maize and  
77 cassava cropping) crops in forest zone (koglo et al., 2018: in press). These conversions drive on-site  
78 (e.g. soil degradation, loss of life and biodiversity, property destruction) and off-site (e.g. greenhouse  
79 gas emissions, climate change and global warming) drawbacks. Relevant works on forests dynamics  
80 in changing climate, its roles, drivers, policies and reliable methods for their monitoring are duly  
81 undertaken and span across the globe from simple remote sensing (e.g. Rawat and Kumar, 2015;  
82 Rawat et al., 2013; Folega et al., 2014; Badjana et al., 2014; Butt et al., 2015; Dimobe et al., 2015) to  
83 intensity analysis (e.g. Pontius et al., 2004; Aloô and Pontius, 2008; Gao et al., 2016; Diwediga et al.,  
84 2017). However, little attention is paid to integrating satellite data for the evaluation of existing  
85 farming and cropping systems through survey datasets where, land utilization by farmers,  
86 predominant farming and cropping systems in use and willingness to sustainable land management  
87 practices adoptions (e.g. soil and water conservation) are fully assessed. This avenue of research is  
88 essential in achieving sustainable socio-ecological landscapes through integrated and participatory  
89 assessment, opportunities and policies identification and formulations to circumvent forests cover  
90 shrinking under climatic and anthropogenic threats. Sustainable ecosystem management entails  
91 coherent and integrated approach across all agricultural sectors and food systems through an  
92 inclusive process with farmers and rural people whom, will adhere to the plans if they meet their  
93 needs and interests (FAO, 1993, 2010, 2016). From the foregoing introduction, this paper aims to  
94 assess proximate drivers in terms of (i) net change analysis of cash and food crops and residential  
95 expansions; (ii) Farmers characteristics, actual farming and cropping systems in changing climate and  
96 (iii) willingness to adopt integrated soil and water resource practices to mitigate croplands and forests  
97 degradation and adapt to the climate change adverse.

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## 100 2. Materials and Methods

### 101 2.1. Study Area

102 The study was conducted in Kloto district which encompasses 13 sub-districts located in the South  
 103 West of Capital Lomé (Figure 1). Kloto lies between 0°30'0" and 0°46'30" Longitude East and 6°45'0"  
 104 and 7°6'0" Latitude North and approximates 528.23 km<sup>2</sup>. The major economic activity is farming of  
 105 mainly food crops (e.g. maize, cassava) and cash crop (cocoa and coffee agroforestry). The average  
 106 production of maize and cassava from 1990 to 2016 revealed an annual production of 10,928 and  
 107 19,498 tons for maize and cassava over an area of 8,291 and 3,080 hectares respectively. From 2014 to  
 108 2016 cocoa agroforestry of 2,762 hectares produced 1,041 tons annually (DSID, 2017: analyzed statistic  
 109 data). The average annual rainfall over 16-year total rainfall period is 1517.1 mm (CI<sub>0.95</sub> = 1517.1±108.1  
 110 mm). The highest and lowest annual rainfall of 1830 mm and 1063 mm were recorded in 2016 2005  
 111 respectively. The study area has 20.5±0.11°C and 28.9±0.22°C as minimum and maximum 16-year  
 112 mean temperature, respectively. The lowest minimum temperature (20.3°C) was recorded in 2001,  
 113 2008, 2014 and 2015 with highest (21.1°C) in 2016. The sunniest year was 2016 with 29.5°C maximum  
 114 temperature.

### 115 2.2. Data Collection and analysis

116 Three Landsat data (5, 7 and 8) of March 1985, 2002 and April 2017 were downloaded from USGS  
 117 website with cloud cover less than 10 % using path 193 and row 055. For the selected years, we  
 118 assumed the same phenological conditions prevailed at the acquisition date because of the bimodal  
 119 climate season in the study area. Thereafter, thematic analysis was performed in ENVI software based  
 120 on six (06) Land Use Land Cover types namely: forest, cocoa agroforestry, maize, cassava farms,  
 121 settlements and unclassified (Table 1).

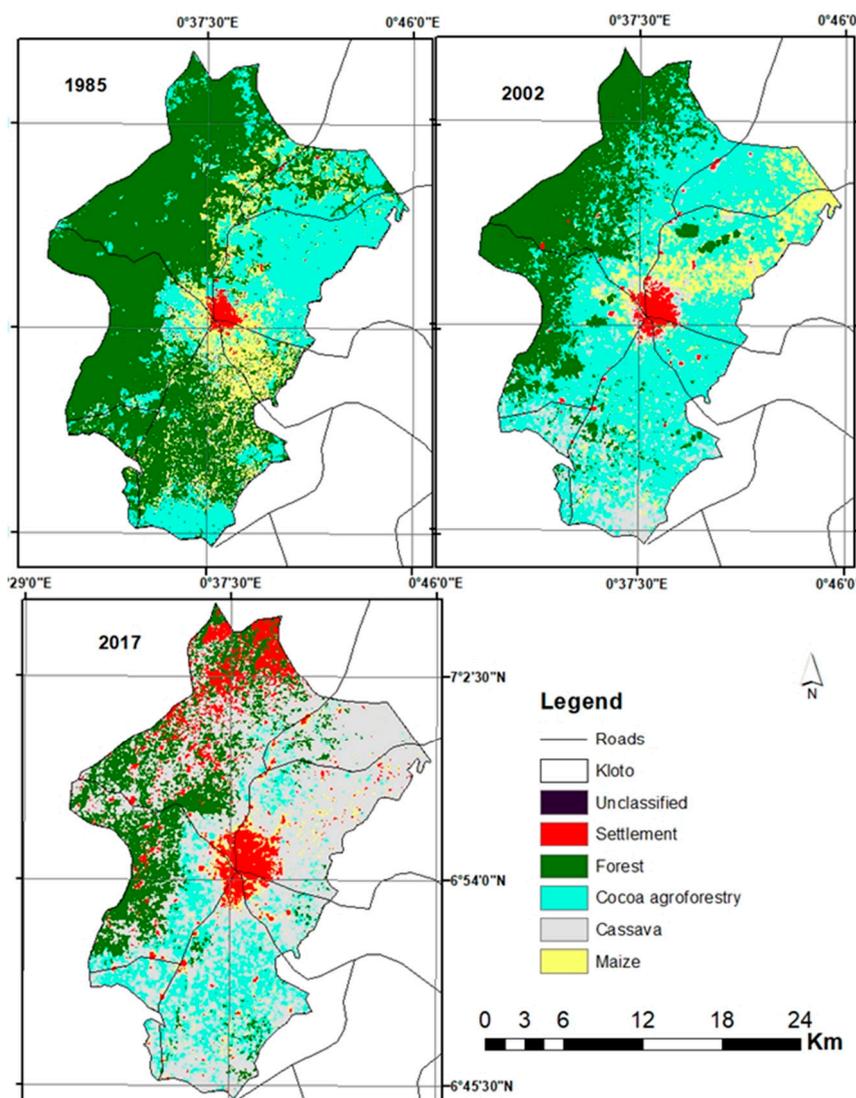
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123 Table 1. Land use land cover type list

Land use land cover type	Definition	Source
Forest	areas covered with original vegetation of different tree species of a minimum height of 5m at maturity with 30% crown cover with minimum area spanning of 0.5ha.	IPCC (2006)
Cocoa agroforestry	perennial arable and tillable land of mixing cocoa, trees and other crops (plantains) under conventional and family cropping systems.	Authors definition
Cassava	Annual / perennial arable and tillable land of local or improved cassava under conventional and family cropping systems	
Maize	annual arable and tillable land of improved maize (Ikenne or Obantapa) variety under conventional and family cropping systems	
Settlement	areas cover with human habitations where tree cover is negligible	
Other	Places occupied by e.g. road, water	

124 Forty (40) random points were collected for each land use type to train and validate the classification.  
 125 Image calibration of the three years was done using ground truth (survey data), archived land  
 126 occupational georeferenced points (40 in total) of each land use type of the subsequent years from  
 127 available statistics (DSID, 2017: Agriculture Census statistic data) and Google Earth historical data  
 128 records. Supervised classification was done using Maximum Likelihood Classifier and post  
 129 classification technique was initiated to derive the extended cross tabulation matrix for land use  
 130 change and intensity analysis. Field campaign was organized from May to October 2017 for historical  
 131 land occupational information via interview with land owners and farmers in twelve villages (Figure  
 132 1) at a rate of sixteen (16) respondents per village selected randomly based on the following criteria:





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155 Figure 2. Historical changes in land use land cover from 1985 to 2017

156 Maize and cocoa agroforestry farming was less intense. The proportion of areas under maize  
 157 cultivation decrease from 15.96 % in 1985 to 9.36 and 3 % in 2002 and 2017. meanwhile, cocoa  
 158 agroforestry expanded during the first period (1985 – 2002) from 25.23 to 50.38 % and decreased  
 159 considerably during the second period (2002 to 2017) from 50.38 to 15.18 %. The net change analysis  
 160 (Figure 3) results revealed significant loss in forest cover by 23.6 % and surface areas under cultivation  
 161 of cocoa agroforestry and maize by 12.99 and 10.1 % from 1985 to 2017 due to, intensive cassava  
 162 cropping (38.78 %) and settlement expansion (7.84 %). Meanwhile, the loss of forest cover between  
 163 2017 and 2002 was marginal (8.36 %) compared to precedent periods (1985 – 2002) where, the loss  
 164 was considerable (15.24 %).

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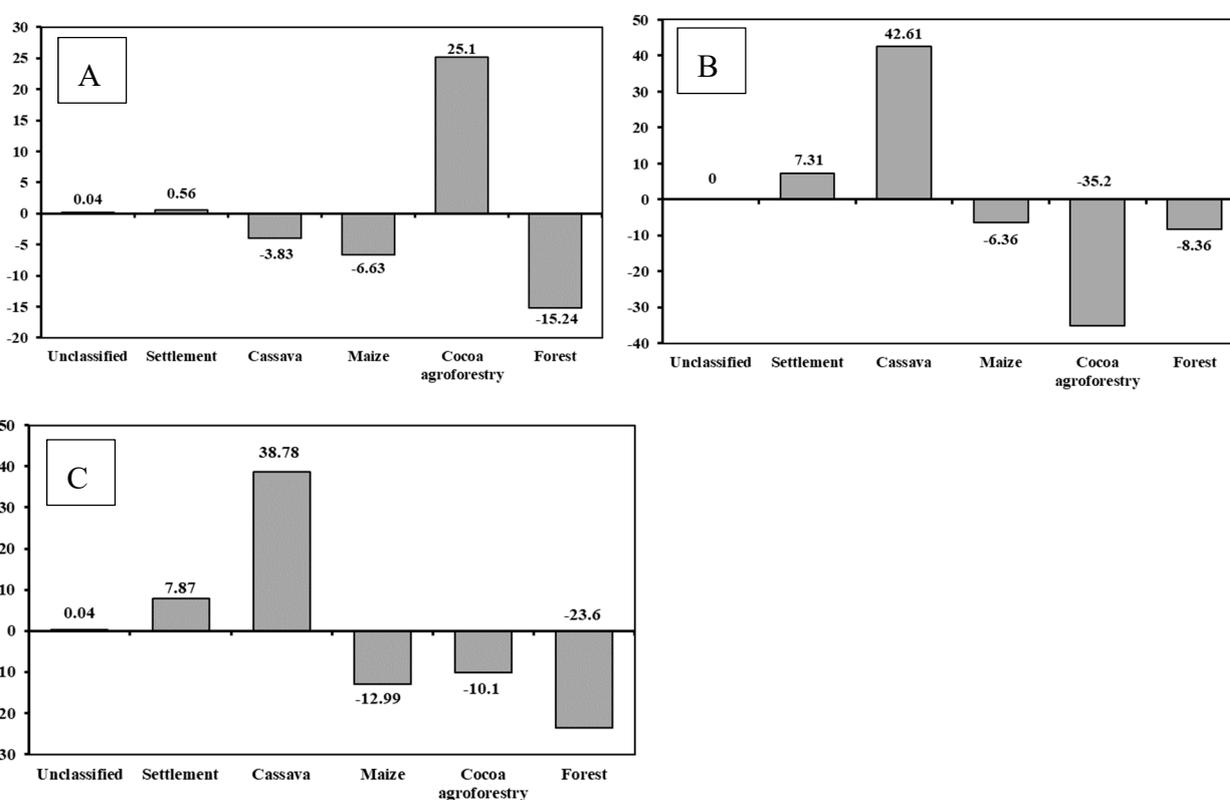
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170 Table 2. Dynamics in Land use land cover from 1985 to 2017

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	1985		2002		2017	
	km <sup>2</sup>	%	km <sup>2</sup>	%	km <sup>2</sup>	%
Unclassified	0.54	0.10	0.75	0.14	0.72	0.14
Settlement	8.29	1.57	11.24	2.13	49.89	9.44
Cassava	75.03	14.37	54.76	10.37	279.85	52.98
Maize	84.46	15.96	49.42	9.36	15.86	3.00
Cocoa agroforestry	133.52	25.23	266.14	50.38	80.16	15.18
Forest	226.37	42.78	145.92	27.62	101.74	19.26
Total	528.21	100.00	528.23	100.00	528.22	100.00

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180 Figure 3. Net Land Use Land Cover Changes of 1985-2002 (A) - 2002 – 2017 (B) and 1985 – 2017 (C)

181 Similarly, between 1985 – 2017, cassava and maize lost 3.83 and 6.63% of their area of cultivations to  
 182 the detriment of settlement expansions and cocoa agroforestry cultivations which, gained 0.56 and  
 183 25.1%, respectively (Figure 3). During the following period (2002 – 2017), settlement and cassava grew  
 184 in size up to 7.31 and 42.61%, respectively, while, maize, cocoa agroforestry and forests depicted  
 185 negative changes of 6.36, 35.2 and 8.36% in preceding order. Cocoa productions were low in some  
 186 villages (e.g. Gbalave Volove; Kpime Woume). In the meantime, deforestation and forest degradation  
 187 rates were also alarming in some areas, e.g. Kpime Woume, Atchave.

188 3.2. Current local farming and cropping systems in changing climate

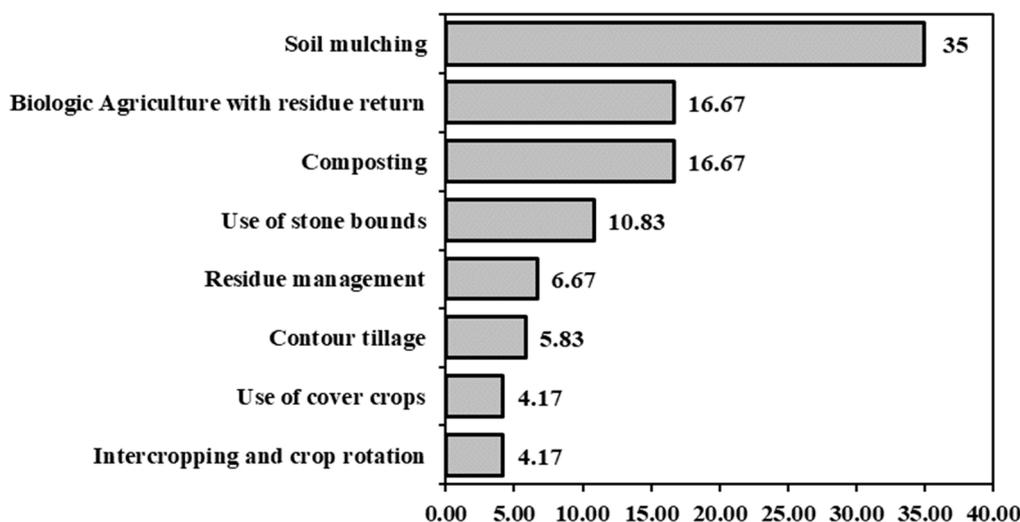
189 Results from questionnaires data revealed an agricultural system largely dominated by men (104/120;  
 190 86.7 %). The age of the interviewed active farmers ranges between 19 and 56 years. Most of farmers  
 191 have reached secondary (47.6%) and senior high (40 %) schools while, 11.7 % have primary degrees.

192 Among the respondents, only 0.6 % have not gotten an official degree and none of them have earned  
 193 a University degree. The test of knowledge on climate change and related effects on the  
 194 agroecosystems showed that, most of respondents (63.3 %) have not heard or educated on climate  
 195 change issues against a minority (36.7 %) whom affirmed to have some information on the subject  
 196 matter. Majority of agricultural lands are threatened by erosion (67.5 %) followed by land  
 197 degradation (56.7 %), soil fertility declining (32.5 %), declining in soil water holding capacity (11.7 %)  
 198 and changes in soil texture (3.3 %). In terms of farming activities, Cassava, cocoa agroforestry (cocoa  
 199 associated with plantain; trees and/or cassava at early stage) and maize are mainly produced at 34.2,  
 200 33.3 and 32.6 %, respectively under various cropping management systems. Land preparation and  
 201 farms management are based on manual (75 %) and chemical tillage (70.8 %) followed by slash and  
 202 burning (49.2%). 59.2 % are used to mixing cropping especially in cocoa production farming while  
 203 29.2 % and 11.7 % are practicing monoculture and rotational cropping, respectively. However, none  
 204 of respondents uses fallow and/or agroforestry farming systems. Monoculture is predominant under  
 205 maize (55 %) compared to cassava (32.5 %) while all farmers (100 %) practiced mixing cropping under  
 206 cocoa agroforestry compared to cassava (45 %) and maize (32.5 %) farming.

207

### 208 3.3. Local willingness to adopt integrated soil and water conservation practices

209 Analysis of questionnaire data related to the adoption of improved agricultural practices and  
 210 rainwater harvesting systems depicts favourable responses from respondents (Figure 4a and b). Soil  
 211 mulching (35 %) is given more attention compared to composting (16.67 %) and contour tillage (5.83  
 212 %). The use of stone bounds is also useful for some farmers to the detriment of other selected practices  
 213 (Figure 4a).

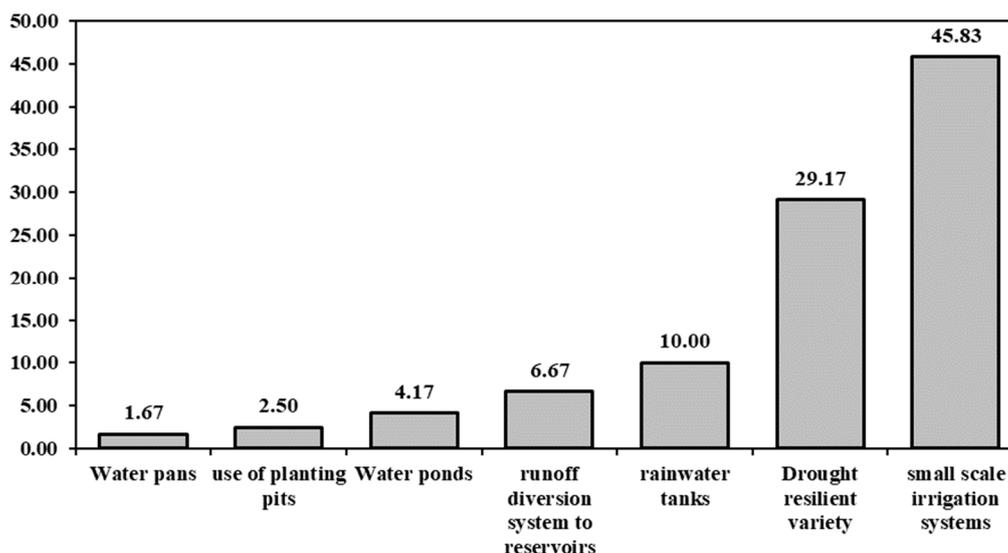


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215 Figure 4a. Expected level of Adoption of Improved soil conservation practices

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Figure 4b. Expected level of adoption of improved water management techniques

220 Regarding the integrated water resources and harvesting techniques, farmers will to pay more  
221 attention to small scale irrigation systems (cost effective drip irrigation) at 45.83 % (Figure 4b). In the  
222 meantime, relatively fair proportion intend to adopt drought resilient varieties (29.17%) to anticipate  
223 drought spells adverse. Additionally, respondents demonstrated strong willingness for adoption of  
224 other useful rainfall water harvesting systems such as: rainwater tanks (10%), construction of  
225 rainwater diversion systems to reservoirs (6.67%), use of planting pits (2.50%), water pans (1.67%)  
226 and ponds (4.17%).

#### 227 4. Discussion

228 The net deforestation rate (Figure 2 and 3) is induced by both agricultural activities and settlement  
229 expansions. Survey analysis revealed the weaknesses of the agricultural systems in terms of farming  
230 and cropping systems that deteriorate farmlands. Indeed, in response to fertility decline and erosion  
231 problems, forests are cleared for fresh and stable lands for cropping to sustain food production. In  
232 this study, majority of agricultural lands are threatened by erosion (67.5%) followed by land  
233 degradation (56.7%), soil fertility declining (32.5%), declining in soil water holding capacity (11.7%)  
234 and changes in soil texture (3.3%) due to deliberate use of conventional practices (e.g. monoculture,  
235 chemical tillage) and non-adoption of climate smart practices in changing climatic conditions and  
236 exponential demographic rate. This study confirms existing findings on the role of agriculture in  
237 mitigating food insecurity and deforestation and forest degradation in changing climate (e.g.  
238 Kissinger et al., 2012; Tegegne et al., 2016). On the other hand, exponential shifting of maize  
239 production to cassava production and the overall expansion of cassava farming could be the results  
240 of croplands health status. Maize production required a certain minimum soil fertility conditions and  
241 when soil fertility declines, productivity is compromised. At this stage, these farmers find an  
242 alternative which consists of growing low inputs crop to restore soil fertility and benefit from crop  
243 leaves for food. On the other hand, Klotto farmers associate cassava to cocoa agroforestry production  
244 at infant stages of cocoa plantation with plantain and wild trees. Additionally, some farmers also  
245 practice association and/or rotational cropping on soils with low fertility capabilities. Callo-Concha  
246 et al. (2013) presented major traits of farming and cropping systems in West Africa in changing  
247 climate. Results concluded the weaknesses of the systems vis a vis to technical, environmental and  
248 socio political constraints. Therefore, the formulation of strategies must be based on the assessment  
249 and understanding of the farming systems at local level through participatory approach with  
250 stakeholders. As African soils are poor in organic matter, improved soil fertility, erosion control and  
251 water management techniques are fundamental to guaranty a perfect cohabitation of agriculture and  
252 forests in developing countries. This study underlines the actual poor agricultural systems and

253 presents the expected adoption level of improved practices to the benefit of food security, forest  
254 sustainability and climate change mitigation.

## 255 5. Conclusions and Recommendations

256 Better understanding of west African farming, cropping systems and population dynamics is a  
257 prerequisite to develop measures and technologies in promoting perfect cohabitation of agriculture  
258 and forests sustainability schemes. In this light, this study combined remote sensing and survey data  
259 to first analyse the historical net changes in land use and land cover and assess and understand the  
260 reasons of deforestation and forest degradation in Kloto district (Togo, West Africa). This approach  
261 enables to better comprehend proximate drivers of deforestation and forest degradation by  
262 perceiving the weaknesses of the existing farming and cropping systems, major reasons of shifting  
263 from one farming systems to the another and more importantly, reasons of deliberate conversion of  
264 native forests and the willingness of farmers to adopt improved soil conservation and water  
265 management practices. Simply put, the participatory approach shows that pressure on croplands  
266 with actual farming and cropping systems entails severe land degradation. To circumvent these  
267 situations, farmers are obliged to shift either from cereal mono-cropping (e.g. maize) to root crops  
268 (e.g. cassava) as alternative to restore degraded soils or clear existing adjacent forests, in search for  
269 more stable and healthy soils to sustain food productions. Accordingly, this study paves way for  
270 policy formulation towards appropriate cropland land managements, land use planning strategies  
271 and capacity building of smallholders. These are of utmost relevance to slow down forests shrinking  
272 while sustaining foods and improving socio economic livelihoods conditions of the most vulnerable  
273 layers residing in poorest and remote communities of Kloto district (Togo, West Africa) whom leave  
274 and depend on agriculture and forests products. Joint efforts from governments, civil societies with  
275 farmer's collaborations to evaluate actual and emerging problems in the agricultural sector and  
276 identify, establish and implement sustainable solutions to promote agro and forest ecosystems  
277 through the following:

278 • Most suitable Governance principles: Transparency, fair accountability and inclusive  
279 Sustainable Agricultural Land Management (SALMP) and advanced crop breeding projects  
280 design, monitoring and management.

281 • Gender consideration in political decisions

282 Women are earful to new technologies and have the ability to implement them adequately. In our  
283 societies due to cultural barriers, this right. Accordingly, there is a need to reinforce women ability  
284 to get access the lands and revise land tenure and ownership systems through equity in land sharing.  
285 From climate change side, women are the most vulnerable entity for their various attributions to  
286 supply food and provide insurance for the whole family in case of climatic adverse. Front this fore  
287 front, their financial stability and strong technical capacity building is a prerequisite to the success of  
288 agro and forest ecosystem sustainable management.

289 • Capacity building of public workers in Agricultural Research Institutes, Extension Services  
290 and technology transfer.

291 Agricultural Research Institutes, Universities and Extension Services must collaborate, work hand-  
292 in-hand with local NGO's for proper dissemination and propagation of improved practices in  
293 exposed and targeted zones.

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305

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