

1 Net Land Degradation' (ZNLD) made by the United Nations Convention to Combat
2 Desertification secretariat (UNCCD, 2012). Then, the Conference of the Parties of the
3 UNCCD established an intergovernmental working group to examine all the available
4 options to achieving LDN in drylands (Grainger, 2015). Notwithstanding the institutional
5 processes of the UNCCD needed to formally adopt this framework, the concept have
6 already gained consensus as a proposal for a new global protocol to orient the
7 implementation of policies to combat desertification in drylands (Stavi and Lal, 2015). The
8 piecemeal political approach that has prevailed in international desertification legislation
9 should be overcome by a more explicit focus on soil ecosystems and degradation
10 processes (Stringer, 2008).

11 As a goal to be achieved by 2030, the concept of ZNLD proposes that the extent of
12 global degraded lands will decrease or at least, remain stable. For that end, the rate of
13 global land degradation should not exceed that of land restoration, which should consider
14 not only agricultural landscapes, but also natural and semi-natural lands that do not
15 necessarily generate direct economic revenues (Stavi and Lal, 2015). Whereas there is
16 recognition of the socio-economic contexts that underlie degradation processes, there is a
17 narrow focus on land and soil as the end core that needs to be protected in drylands.
18 Hence, the significance of sustainable land practices and soil management, and the need
19 for coordination actions across scales to monitor and restore lands are emphasized
20 (Salvati *et al.*, 2013). The aim of this paper is to propose an enhanced perspective of the
21 zero net degradation in drylands, by considering the different livelihoods of rural
22 households, which I called the Zero Net Livelihood Degradation. This framework
23 encompasses the multidimensional perspective of desertification as a complex social-
24 ecological problem.

25 **2. Desertification as a complex social-ecological problem**

26 One of the main academic consensus over the last decade is that desertification is
27 a complex problem that needs to be tackled by the integration of social and ecological
28 dynamics (e.g. Reynolds and Stafford Smith, 2002; MEA, 2005). Drylands are linked
29 human-environmental or also called social-ecological systems, which means that we
30 require rigorous approaches of complex, multivariable, nonlinear, cross-scale and
31 changing systems (e.g. Reynolds *et al.*, 2007). This integral perspective gave rise to many
32 theoretical discussions and a concomitant development of conceptual frameworks aimed

1 at helping to orient research studies and decision making (e.g. Ostrom, 2007; Chapin *et*
2 *al.*, 2009).

3 Notwithstanding this undoubted and promising scientific progress, the transition
4 from discipline-based perspectives towards the emergence of more integral approaches
5 (e.g. sustainability science Clark and Dickson, 2003) is a complex social process in itself
6 and takes time. Desertification is not an exception and different theoretical and
7 methodological issues are still under debate (e.g. Thomas, 1997; Verón *et al.*, 2006; Vogt
8 *et al.*, 2011). Research contributions to biophysical degradation assessments (e.g. Cerdà
9 and Lavee, 1999; Cerdà, 2002; Xie *et al.*, 2015; Vieira *et al.*, 2015) and monitoring of
10 desertification processes (e.g. Wang *et al.*, 2013; Bai *et al.*, 2013; Xu and Zhang, 2014)
11 dates back to the recent decades. However, socio-economic issues still have scant links
12 with the core of biophysical science (Barbero-Sierra *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2015). A
13 step towards an integrated framework to combat desertification was recently proposed in
14 the 'Dryland Development Paradigm' to help understanding linked social-ecological
15 systems in drylands. These regions are characterized by a unique set of features that
16 should be taken into account to structure the analysis of change (Reynolds *et al.*, 2007),
17 and for the development of an integrated global monitoring and assessment (Reynolds *et*
18 *al.*, 2011). In particular, seven features were identified as causally linked in developing a
19 desert syndrome (Stafford Smith, 2008). Lately, a co-evolutionary process between global
20 political, social and economic drivers and local system changes in arid rangelands
21 complemented the perspective on the desert syndrome (Easdale and Domptail, 2014).
22 These concurrent frameworks demonstrate the recent efforts to better conceptualize
23 desertification, from the perspective of a complex social-ecological process across scales.

24 **3. Zero Net Land Degradation: Bases and challenges for a new protocol**

25 The concept of ZNLD proposes that the extent of global degraded lands in arid,
26 semi-arid and dry sub-humid areas will decrease or at least, remain stable for the next
27 fifteen years. This approach is based on three key premises (Chasek *et al.*, 2015): i) the
28 goal to completely prevent further degradation is too ambitious and the focus should be
29 rather on reducing its rate, ii) the global land that is already degraded has reached a
30 warning spatial extent of almost 20% (MEA, 2005), and iii) the provision of ecosystem
31 services (in particular biological productivity) from already degraded lands can be
32 recovered or restored. For that end, there are a series of scientific and political challenges

1 and opportunities for the implementation of a ZNLD protocol in drylands worldwide
2 (Gnacadjia, 2015).

3 The main identified scientific challenges relate to monitoring and management
4 practices (Stavi and Lal, 2015). One of the highest priorities is producing a global
5 assessment of land and soil degradation, which involves measurements, monitoring
6 indicators and data, and verification of land status and effectiveness of restoration
7 measures at different spatial and temporal scales (Grainger, 2015; Stavi and Lal, 2015).
8 On the other hand, the main identified implementation challenges relates to political
9 consensus and support, awareness and empowerment of local communities, prescribing
10 relevant management practices and financial resources and supporting mechanisms
11 (Chasek *et al.*, 2015; Stavi and Lal, 2015). Finally, some critiques and pitfalls from existing
12 environmental trading mechanisms are highlighted in order to develop recommendations
13 for future ZNLD policies (Tal, 2015). Some of the main issues include the unreliability of
14 trades aimed at restoring ecosystems, the need for clear and quantifiable units of
15 measure, accurate definitions of spatial and temporal equivalences given land
16 heterogeneity, and the need to consider delayed benefits and difficulties to ensure the
17 future benefits of present land restoration efforts (Tal, 2015).

18 **4. Sustainable livelihoods approach**

19 The sustainable livelihoods approach is a multidisciplinary framework that
20 organizes in a hierarchical manner the information related to how different people in
21 different places live. The approach is people-centered and emphasizes multiple resources,
22 actors, strategies and outcomes (Scoones, 2009), with strong opportunities for scientific
23 interdisciplinary integration.

24 The sustainable livelihoods framework links inputs as measured by the access to a
25 range of livelihood resources and outputs such as livelihood strategies (Scoones, 2009).
26 Given a particular context (i.e. political, historical, agro-ecological and socio-economic),
27 the focus is to understand what combination of livelihood resources, which are designated
28 as a metaphor with the terms 'capitals' or 'assets', result in the ability to deliver a
29 combination of livelihood strategies such as agricultural intensification (Adams and
30 Mortimore, 1997), livelihood diversification (Ellis and Allison, 2004; Easdale and Rosso,
31 2010; Tesfaye *et al.*, 2011), or even not agricultural activities as tourism (Iorio and Corsale,
32 2010). Hence, the strongest focus have been oriented towards the so called asset

1 pentagon (i.e. where each vertex depicts a livelihood resource), with relevant discussions
2 about how assets can be combined, substituted and switched to develop different
3 portfolios for different farmers, in different places and under different environmental or
4 social changes (Scoones, 2009).

5 The five most frequent types of capitals that comprise the vertices of that pentagon
6 are the natural, human, social, manufactured and financial capitals (Ekins *et al.*, 2003;
7 Davies *et al.*, 2008). Natural capital is a metaphor to indicate the importance of elements
8 of nature to human wellbeing (Daly, 1994). It includes environmental functions and
9 services, which have been classified into four categories (de Groot *et al.*, 2002):
10 regulation, production, habitat and information functions. Human capital comprises all
11 individuals' capabilities important for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy (i.e. knowledge,
12 skills, labor capacities), while social capital relates to the networks and organizations that
13 coordinate individual contributions and actions. Manufactured capital comprises material or
14 physical goods typically involved in a production process (i.e. machineries, tools,
15 reproductive animals), while financial capital are monetary assets (or equivalent), which
16 contribute both to the production process and household economy (more information in
17 Scoones, 1998; Ekins *et al.*, 2003).

18 **5. A step towards a multidimensional protocol to combat desertification**

19 The aim of reducing the rate of land degradation and increasing the rate of
20 restoration of already degraded land should not be promoted with a side-effect such as
21 increasing degradation of other human and social livelihoods. There is an assumption that
22 the reduction of the rate of land degradation and restoration of already degraded lands are
23 the main options at hand to enhance the wellbeing of local poor people, as well as the
24 global community in the long term. However, there is an essential human dimension to the
25 sustainability of trades in native products from drylands that needs to be adequately
26 tackled (Walsh and Douglas, 2011). Concurring with this statement, the question then is:
27 which are the most effective policy interventions and where should they focus? In this
28 direction, I propose that ecosystem conservation and restoration debates in ZNLD policies
29 should be integrated into the concept of food sovereignty, where nature matters in terms of
30 autonomous food and local farming systems (Altieri and Toledo, 2011; Wittman and
31 Desmarais, 2011), by strengthening the linkage between local communities and nature
32 (e.g. Beyene, 2015; Assefa and Hans-Rudolf, 2015).

1 Sustainable rangeland management cannot be achieved if sustainable livelihoods
2 of rangeland users are neglected (Gharibvand *et al.*, 2015). Interventions should be
3 oriented towards the enhancement of social-ecological resilience and adaptive capacity of
4 local communities in drylands (e.g. Davies *et al.*, 2008; Tittonell, 2014), by supporting the
5 diversity of rural livelihoods, which may be much more efficient than a narrow focus only
6 on sustainable land practices and soil management. For instance, this wider perspective
7 should avoid the erosion of traditional knowledge and weakening of local institutions
8 (Linstädter *et al.*, 2013; Schmidt and Pearson, 2016) in order to prevent crossing over
9 human critical thresholds that may drive future land degradation processes (Easdale and
10 López, 2014). Local ecological knowledge, the social values and productive logics
11 involving mobile pastoralism with informal rules for management, local breeding or
12 common property are at the core of sustainable land management in many drylands (e.g.
13 Fernández-Giménez, 2000; Rohde *et al.*, 2006). However, they were frequently seen as
14 unsustainable from the perspective of a western mindset (e.g. Hardin, 1968) that proposes
15 radical shifts in land policies, technologies and innovations (Schmidt and Pearson, 2016),
16 which are said to be more sustainable since they are based on science (Easdale and
17 Domptail, 2014). Then, the statement that land-degraded management practices need to
18 be replaced with ones that conserve soils hides the assumptions that support this
19 argument, which regards to the kind of knowledge that defines indicators, data and
20 sustainable practices.

21 A livelihood is said to be sustainable *'when it can cope with and recover from*
22 *stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in*
23 *the future, while not undermining the natural resource base'* (Chambers and Conway,
24 1992). This means that desertification combat should not only be directed to sustainable
25 management practices aimed at restoring degraded lands such as inorganic and organic-
26 soil amendments, or reducing the rates of current soil erosion (e.g. by using straw
27 mulching and crop residues), and rangeland degradation (e.g. by controlling livestock
28 pressure to prevent overstocking). The dominant approaches of many suggested practices
29 are still purely biophysical (e.g. García-Orenes *et al.*, 2012; Weyers and Spokas, 2014;
30 Sadeghi *et al.*, 2015; Cerdà *et al.*, 2015). However, the livelihood approach provides the
31 perspective that natural resource degradation should be tackled in a wider manner than
32 only a cause-and-effect logic due to a linear ecological process (Gharibvand *et al.*, 2015).
33 Other socio-economic direct and ultimate drivers should also be included in order to orient
34 interventions adequately (Easdale and Domptail, 2014).

1 Policies aimed at supporting the diversity of livelihood resources can serve as a
2 portfolio to cope with or to offset further land degradation and even to restore degraded
3 land. For instance, different livelihood strategies such as income diversification and social
4 networks involving partnership to obtain better prices from associated sales, served as
5 decoupling mechanisms between smallholder' household income and the impact of
6 drought on their livestock systems (Easdale and Rosso, 2010). Additional off-farm income
7 can favor conservative management, release pressure on natural resources and promote
8 reinvestment or complement livestock expenditures while natural resources recover (Kilic
9 *et al.*, 2009). Studies on the influence of the diversity of rural livelihoods on soil fertility
10 status and its spatial variation shed light in the promotion of differentiated technological
11 innovations to address the problem of poor productivity of smallholder farms (Tittonell *et*
12 *al.*, 2010). The identification of socio-economic variables associated with environmental
13 conditions can lead to a long-term reduction in land sensitivity to degradation (Salvati and
14 Carlucci, 2014). Then, tackling different household livelihood strategies is thus not only
15 necessary to target agricultural innovations, but also to understand how the specific
16 objectives, logics and endowments of different household types affect resource allocation
17 and management practices (Tittonell *et al.*, 2010).

18 **6. Conclusions**

19 The concept of zero net land degradation proposes the basis for a future protocol
20 to reduce global dryland degradation. However, there is an essential human dimension to
21 the sustainability of drylands that should be adequately tackled. In order to provide a wider
22 perspective of the zero net degradation in drylands, I suggest considering the different
23 livelihoods of rural households as a framework that encompasses the multidimensional
24 perspective of desertification as a complex social-ecological problem. Zero net livelihood
25 degradation as a new UNCCD protocol to combat desertification should foster sustainable
26 livelihood outcomes rather than only sustainable land practices or soil management.

27 **7. Acknowledgments**

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