

1 should be overcome by a more explicit focus on soil ecosystems and degradation
2 processes (Stringer, 2008).

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

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

18 One of the main academic consensus over the last decade is that desertification is
19 a complex problem that needs to be tackled by the integration of social and ecological
20 dynamics (e.g. Reynolds and Stafford Smith, 2002; MEA 2005). Drylands are linked
21 human-environmental or also called social-ecological systems, which means that we
22 require rigorous approaches of complex, multivariable, nonlinear, cross-scale and
23 changing systems (e.g. Reynolds *et al.*, 2007). This integral perspective gave rise to many
24 theoretical discussions and a concomitant development of conceptual frameworks aimed
25 at helping to orient research studies and decision making (e.g. Ostrom, 2007; Chapin *et al.*
26 2009).

27 Notwithstanding this undoubted and promising scientific progress, the transition
28 from discipline-based perspectives towards the emergence of more integral approaches
29 (e.g. sustainability science Clark and Dickson, 2003) is a complex social process in itself
30 and takes time. Desertification is not an exception and different theoretical and
31 methodological issues are still under debate (e.g. Thomas, 1997; Verón *et al.*, 2006; Vogt
32 *et al.*, 2011). Research contributions to biophysical degradation assessments (e.g. Cerdà

1 and Lavee, 1999; Cerdà 2002; Xie *et al.* 2015; Vieira *et al.* 2015) and monitoring of
2 desertification processes (e.g. Wang *et al.* 2013; Bai *et al.* 2013; Xu and Zhang 2014)
3 dates back to the recent decades. However, socio-economic issues still have scant links
4 with the core of biophysical science (Barbero-Sierra *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2015). A
5 step towards an integrated framework to combat desertification was recently proposed in
6 the 'Dryland Development Paradigm' to help understanding linked social-ecological
7 systems in drylands. These regions are characterized by a unique set of features that
8 should be taken into account to structure the analysis of change (Reynolds *et al.*, 2007),
9 and for the development of an integrated global monitoring and assessment (Reynolds *et*
10 *al.*, 2011). In particular, seven features were identified as causally linked in developing a
11 desert syndrome (Stafford Smith, 2008). Lately, a co-evolutionary process between global
12 political, social and economic drivers and local system changes in arid rangelands
13 complemented the perspective on the desert syndrome (Easdale and Domptail, 2014).
14 These concurrent frameworks demonstrate the recent efforts to better conceptualize
15 desertification, from the perspective of a complex social-ecological process across scales.

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

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

27 The main identified scientific challenges relate to monitoring and management
28 practices (Stavi and Lal, 2015). One of the highest priorities is producing a global
29 assessment of land and soil degradation, which involves measurements, monitoring
30 indicators and data, and verification of land status and effectiveness of restoration
31 measures at different spatial and temporal scales (Grainger, 2015; Stavi and Lal, 2015).
32 On the other hand, the main identified implementation challenges relates to political
33 consensus and support, awareness and empowerment of local communities, prescribing

1 relevant management practices and financial resources and supporting mechanisms
2 (Chasek *et al.* 2015; Stavi and Lal, 2015). Finally, some critiques and pitfalls from existing
3 environmental trading mechanisms are highlighted in order to develop recommendations
4 for future ZNLD policies (Tal, 2015). Some of the main issues include the unreliability of
5 trades aimed at restoring ecosystems, the need for clear and quantifiable units of
6 measure, accurate definitions of spatial and temporal equivalences given land
7 heterogeneity, and the need to consider delayed benefits and difficulties to ensure the
8 future benefits of present land restoration efforts (Tal, 2015).

9 **4. Sustainable livelihoods approach**


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

15 The sustainable livelihoods framework links inputs as measured by the access to a
16 range of livelihood resources and outputs such as livelihood strategies (Scoones, 2009).
17 Given a particular context (i.e. political, historical, agro-ecological and socio-economic),
18 the focus is to understand what combination of livelihood resources, which are designated
19 as a metaphor with the terms 'capitals' or 'assets', result in the ability to deliver a
20 combination of livelihood strategies such as agricultural intensification (Adams and
21 Mortimore, 1997), livelihood diversification (Ellis and Allison, 2004; Easdale and Rosso,
22 2010; Tesfaye *et al.*, 2011), or even not agricultural activities as tourism (Iorio and Corsale,
23 2010). Hence, the strongest focus have been oriented towards the so called asset
24 pentagon (i.e. where each vertex depicts a livelihood resource), with relevant discussions
25 about how assets can be combined, substituted and switched to develop different
26 portfolios for different farmers, in different places and under different environmental or
27 social changes (Scoones, 2009).

28 The five most frequent types of capitals that comprise the vertices of that pentagon
29 are the natural, human, social, manufactured and financial capitals (Ekins *et al.*, 2003;
30 Davies *et al.*, 2008). Natural capital is a metaphor to indicate the importance of elements
31 of nature to human wellbeing (Daly, 1994). It includes environmental functions and
32 services, which have been classified into four categories (de Groot *et al.*, 2002):


1 regulation, production, habitat and information functions. Human capital comprises all
2 individuals' capabilities important for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy (i.e. knowledge,
3 skills, labor capacities), while social capital relates to the networks and organizations that
4 coordinate individual contributions and actions. Manufactured capital comprises material or
5 physical goods typically involved in a production process (i.e. machineries, tools,
6 reproductive animals), while financial capital are monetary assets (or equivalent), which
7 contribute both to the production process and household economy (more information in
8 Scoones, 1998; Ekins *et al.* 2003).

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

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

23 Sustainable rangeland management cannot be achieved if sustainable livelihoods
24 of rangeland users are neglected (Gharibvand *et al.*, 2015). Interventions should be
25 oriented towards the enhancement of social-ecological resilience and adaptive capacity of
26 local communities in drylands (e.g. Davies *et al.*, 2008; Tittonell, 2014), by supporting the
27 diversity of rural livelihoods, which may be much more efficient than a narrow focus only
28 on sustainable land practices and soil management. For instance, this wider perspective
29 should avoid the erosion of traditional knowledge and weakening of local institutions
30 (Linstädter *et al.*, 2013; Schmidt and Pearson, 2016) in order to prevent crossing over
31 human critical thresholds that may drive future land degradation processes (Easdale and
32 López, 2014). For instance, local ecological knowledge, the social values and productive
33 logics involving mobile pastoralism with informal rules for management, local breeding or

1 common property are at the core of sustainable land management in many drylands (e.g.
2 Fernández-Giménez, 2000; Rohde *et al.*, 2006). However, they were frequently seen as
3 unsustainable from the perspective of a western mindset (e.g. Hardin, 1968) that proposes
4 radical shifts in land policies, technologies and innovations (Schmidt and Pearson, 2016),
5 which are said to be more sustainable since they are based on science (Easdale and
6 Domptail, 2014). Then, the statement that land-degraded management practices need to
7 be replaced with ones that conserve soils hides the assumptions that support this
8 argument, which regards to the kind of knowledge that defines indicators, data and
9 sustainable practices.

10 A livelihood is said to be sustainable *‘when it can cope with and recover from*
11 *stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in*
12 *the future, while not undermining the natural resource base’* (Chambers and Conway,
13 1992). This means that desertification combat should not only be directed to sustainable
14 management practices aimed at restoring degraded lands (e.g. organic-soil amendments)
15 or reducing the rates of current rangelands degradation (e.g. controlling livestock pressure
16 to prevent overstocking). The livelihood approach provides the perspective that natural
17 resource degradation should be tackled in a wider manner than only a cause-and-effect
18 logic due to a linear ecological process (Gharibvand *et al.*, 2015) Other socio-economic
19 direct and ultimate drivers should also be included in order to orient interventions
20 adequately (Easdale and Domptail, 2014). 

21 Policies aimed at supporting the diversity of livelihood resources can serve as a
22 portfolio to cope with or to offset further land degradation and even to restore degraded
23 land. For instance, different livelihood strategies such as income diversification and social
24 networks involving partnership to obtain better prices from associated sales, served as
25 decoupling mechanisms between smallholder’ household income and the impact of
26 drought on their livestock systems (Easdale and Rosso, 2010). Additional off-farm income
27 can favor conservative management, release pressure on natural resources and promote
28 reinvestment or complement livestock expenditures while natural resources recover (Kilic
29 *et al.*, 2009). Studies on the influence of the diversity of rural livelihoods on soil fertility
30 status and its spatial variation shed light in the promotion of differentiated technological
31 innovations to address the problem of poor productivity of smallholder farms (Tittonell *et*
32 *al.*, 2010). The identification of socio-economic variables associated with environmental
33 conditions can lead to a long-term reduction in land sensitivity to degradation (Salvati and

1 Carlucci, 2014). Then, tackling different household livelihood strategies is thus not only
2 necessary to target agricultural innovations, but also to understand how the specific
3 objectives, logics and endowments of different household types affect resource allocation
4 and management practices (Tittonell *et al.*, 2010).

5 **6. Conclusions**

6 The concept of zero net land degradation proposes the basis for a future protocol
7 to reduce global dryland degradation. However, there is an essential human dimension to
8 the sustainability of drylands that should be adequately tackled. In order to provide a wider
9 perspective of the zero net degradation in drylands, I suggest considering the different
10 livelihoods of rural households as a framework that encompasses the multidimensional
11 perspective of desertification as a complex social-ecological problem. Central to the
12 livelihood framework is the analysis of the institutional processes (Scudder, 2009). Zero
13 net livelihood degradation as a new UNCCD protocol to combat desertification should
14 foster sustainable livelihood outcomes rather than only sustainable land practices or soil
15 management.

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