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Modelling soil erosion response to sustainable landscape management scenarios in the Mo River Basin (Togo, West Africa)

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1 **Supporting Information to the manuscript:**

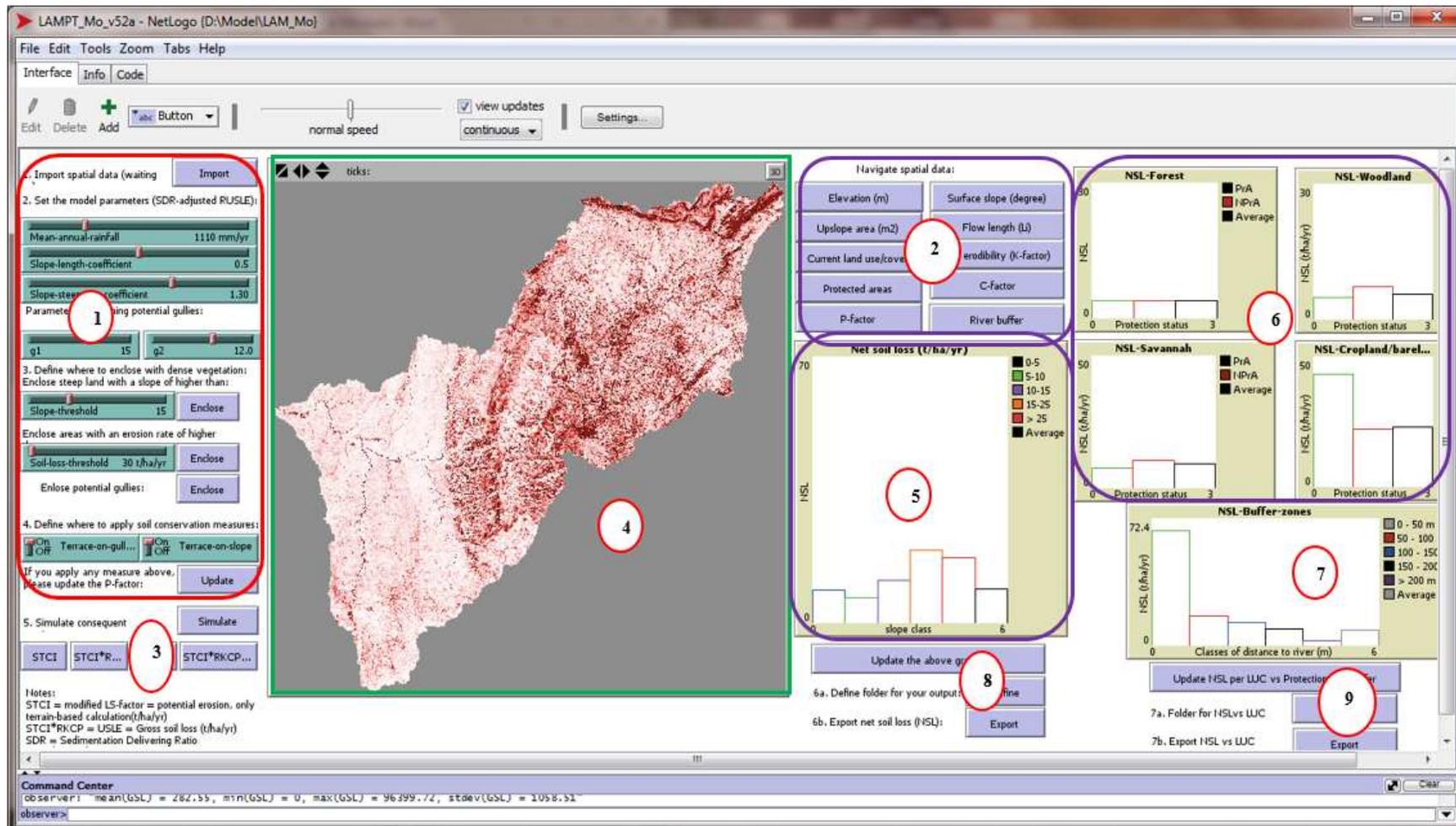
2 **Modelling soil erosion response to sustainable landscape management**
3 **scenarios in the Mo River Basin (Togo, West Africa)**

4

5 ***Graphical user interface of the LAMPT_Mo***

6 Fig S1 presents the graphical use interface of LAMPT_Mo adapted from the original
7 LAPMAT (Tamene et al., 2014). Labelled feature 1 composes of options for
8 importing input variables spatially explicated through maps (individually displayed
9 via Feature 2). The selection of adequate values for mean annual rainfall, slope
10 steepness and length, and definition of threshold constants for potential location of
11 gullies (Moore et al., 1991) are performed under Feature 1. Management options
12 for enclosing gully lands, erosion hotspot areas, and steep lands, as well as
13 terracing steep lands and gully areas and updating P factor are proposed under the
14 same Feature 1. Feature 3 offers the ability to compute the spatially explicit
15 potential (STCI) and actual (GSL) soil loss, sediment delivery ratio (SDR) and net
16 soil loss (NSL) at the landscape level. While the imported and generated variables
17 as well as the simulated soil loss are visualised for their spatial configuration
18 (Feature 4), graphical options are offered to visualise the outputs according to slope
19 classes (Feature 5), land use/cover types and protection status (Feature 6), and
20 river buffer zones (Feature 7). Features 8 and 9 are provided for exporting the
21 outputs in tabular forms for usage in other analytical environment (GIS, statistical
22 software, etc.).

23 Different types of settings (key inputs) are relevant to design and implement
24 LAMPT_Mo. Therefore, initial biophysical conditions (data on terrain and its
25 derivatives, land use/cover, soil erodibility based on soil types, protection status of
26 lands, buffer zones of river network, etc.) are prepared for the Mo River basin (see
27 Fig S2).



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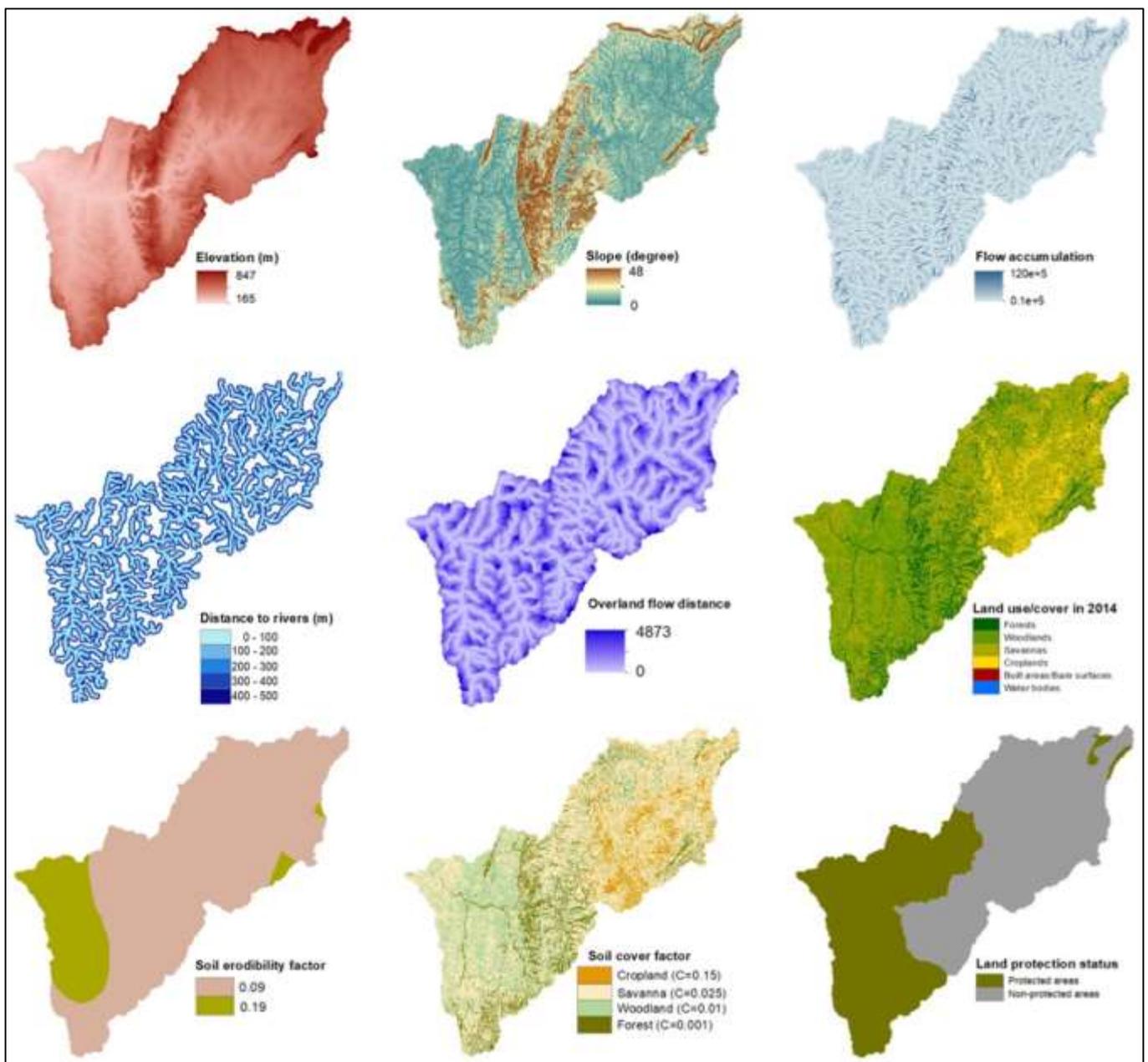
29 Fig S1. Graphical user interface of the LAMPT_Mo

30

31 **Key inputs for LAMPT_Mo**

32 The different key layers used to design and implement LAMPT_Mo are presented in
33 Fig S2. They are provided at 30 m resolution. These data show only those that were
34 imported into the model as maps. Other numerical inputs are presented in the main
35 text of the paper.

36



37 **Fig S2. Input layers for LAMPT_Mo**

38 ***Description of scenarios and simulation outputs***

39 According to Economics of LD initiative, scenario analysis or planning is a 'structured
40 process of exploring and evaluating alternative futures', whose ultimate aim is to
41 illustrate the consequences of policy options, inform and improve decisions. In this
42 context, two categorical scenarios were defined for simulating soil loss and propose
43 alternatives for adapted land management: (i) simulation based on business as usual
44 (BAU or S0) conditions, and (ii) simulation based on LUC management options (S1).
45 For all scenarios, simulated soil loss is analysed to highlight the contribution of specific
46 LUC types, slope-classes and river buffer zones to soil erosion. Most of the scenario
47 designs result from LUC-reorganisation at the landscape level in order to identify
48 viable options that significantly reduce soil loss (Tamene, 2005; Tamene et al., 2014).
49 In all of the scenarios proposed in the LAMPT_Mo, default values of model variables
50 are offered according to the conditions in the Mo river basin. Nevertheless, large
51 ranges of values are provided for selecting appropriate design of conservation in
52 specific sites and when facing uncertainties related to the selection of values (Tamene
53 et al., 2014).

54 ***a) Scenario of business as usual for historical soil loss assessment***

55 Simulation was performed for the status quo (BAU) i.e. annual soil loss/sediment yield
56 rate and its spatial pattern for 2014 was calculated based on the landscape conditions
57 representing the existing land conditions (Tamene, 2005; Tamene et al., 2014). The
58 result of 2014 served as reference data for comparison of the simulated soil
59 erosion/sediment yield of 1972, 1987 and 2000 in order to highlight not only the effects
60 of LUCC but also the potential effects of changing rainfall. Since there is no historical
61 reference for the Mo basin for quantitative validation of the simulated historical NSL,

62 the reference simulation for 2014 was used to qualitatively validate the aforementioned
63 data based on LUCC.

64 ***b) Management scenarios (S1): reducing soil loss at landscape level***

65 Management options are built to express scenarios that focus on reorganising LUC
66 types and adopting conservation practices across landscapes based on predefined
67 criteria, such as conserving gullies and their buffer zones (S1G), managing intensive
68 erosion areas or hotspots (S1H), reducing erosion from steep slopes (S1S), and
69 planting strips along stream network in UPA (Strips).

70 - **Management options targeting gullies (S1G)**

71 Conservation measures to reduce erosion from gullies, especially in human-
72 accessible landscapes, are recognised as preventive measure for reducing soil loss
73 potential (Tamene et al., 2014; Tamene, 2005). For that purpose, scenario S1G
74 focused on the conservation of gullies and buffer zones of 25 m alongside these gullies
75 (Tamene et al., 2014). Though this study encompasses both natural (protected or not)
76 areas and human dominated landscapes (agrosystems), management efforts through
77 S1G aim at terracing the 25 m buffer zones by converting them into vegetated lands
78 (woodlands), suggesting a status of these areas as protected against human impacts.
79 Therefore, it is proposed as default values for *P* factor (0.5) and *C* factor (0.01). *C*
80 factor meets the proposed value for woodlands based on the patterns of the study
81 area where most of the streams and rivers, acting as gullies, are bordered by
82 vegetation. The outputs from this scenario are compared to the benchmark (scenario
83 S0) to highlight the efficiency of the proposed preventive measure.

84 - **Management options targeting the conservation of erosion hotspots**
85 **(S1H)**

86 In this sub-scenario S1H, efforts are undertaken in reducing the erosion severity in the
87 identified erosion hotspots based on acceptable soil loss in the area (Tamene et al.,
88 2014). For the Mo basin with tropical climate, mountainous topography and medium
89 annual rainfall, the tolerable soil loss is located on potential hotspots with soil loss
90 higher than or equal to 15 t/ha/yr. The latter threshold was considered to evaluate and
91 easily compare the NSL in the Mo basin with the tolerable limits of 12 – 15 t/ha/yr
92 (Roose, 1996), used in West Africa environments (Le et al., 2012b). In addition,
93 varying threshold for hotspots definition, this scenario evaluated the effects of
94 management size on the NSL at landscape level, if efforts could target soil loss limits
95 lower than (5 and 10 t/ha/yr) or higher than (20 and 25 t/ha/yr) the acceptable value of
96 15 t/ha/yr. The scenario principle is that erosion hotspots higher than the tolerable set
97 value are assumed to be converted into either vegetated areas (S1HA). In addition,
98 terraces or grasses could be used to conserve gullies along with the enclosure of the
99 erosion-prone areas (S1HB). Proposed default values for P and C factors were 0.5
100 and 0.01, respectively. The results from this scenario are compared with the
101 benchmark (S0) and other management options to judge their efficiency on the
102 reduction of soil loss.

103 - **Management targeting exclusively areas with steep slopes (S1S)**

104 Due to the high roughness of the Mo landscapes, conservation measures focusing on
105 steep slope management are oriented towards the reduction of surface runoff and
106 hydrological processes, which often occur at relatively high rate on these slope
107 positions, regardless of the surface cover. The rate of sediment yield and transport
108 toward rivers/streams is acutely observed in these sensitive lands since slope
109 influences the surface flow rates and sediment movement by increasing surface
110 hydrological phenomena (e.g. Moore et al., 1991). Therefore, efforts targeting these

111 erosion-prone areas are assumed to reduce the amount of net soil loss at the
112 landscape level and reduce river siltation. Though the purpose of this option is not to
113 cut down the steep slopes into gentle ones, it is assumed that preventive measures
114 such as covering these slopes with dense vegetation will stabilise lands and reduce
115 the occurrence of new gullies, and consequently abate the rate of surface runoff and
116 transported sediments (Tamene, 2005). The proposed preventive measures in the
117 current study focused on land with slope higher or equal to 15° (considered as very
118 steep). In this scenario (S1S), the considered steep lands ($> 15^\circ$) are converted into
119 PA with restricted human interventions affecting their stability. Therefore, they are
120 assumed to be covered by relative dense vegetation (e.g. woodlands), setting the C
121 factor value to 0.01. Finally, the outputs from this scenario are compared with other
122 scenario runs and the benchmark to assess the efficient impact of the proposed
123 management option on soil loss/sediment yield at the landscape level.

124 **- Planting strips along river network in unprotected areas**

125 Like terraces and contour lines, strip cropping represents a support practice for soil
126 erosion control. In contrast to structural technologies such as terracing, stonewalls and
127 ridging, strip cropping is part of organic technologies that improve the soil
128 characteristics to resist erosion while increasing biomass production and ground
129 coverage (Donovan & Casey, 1998). A buffer strip of native plants can reduce the
130 impact of surrounding land uses on the sediment yield downstream. This scenario
131 could help in addressing issues of soil loss in undisturbed landscapes that affect
132 biogeochemical cycles of carbon and nitrogen, and implications for climate change
133 issues. In the LAMPT_Mo, it is suggested that the planting of highly diverse native
134 plant species in order to match local soil types and especially increase the resistance
135 to soil erosion (Berendse et al., 2015). Therefore, an alternation of strips and natural

136 vegetation is proposed in the riparian lands up to 500 m alongside rivers (Table 7.3).
 137 Exclusively, this option is implemented in unprotected areas to highlight the influence
 138 of this support practice on agricultural land use system. In the first 100 m from the
 139 riverbanks, the option sets strips of natural vegetation (mainly as riparian forests with
 140 heavy-deepen root systems) and the C factor is 0.001. This option is implemented
 141 regardless of the stream importance and location in unprotected areas.

142 **Table 7.3. Strip planting in the first 500 m along riversides**

Buffer zones	Strip types	C factor and Ri
0 – 100 m	Natural vegetation (Riparian forests)	C=0.001; Ri = 0.35
100 – 200m and 300 – 500 m	Perennial croplands/orchards /Agroforests	C= 0.15; Ri = 2.13
200 – 300 m	Natural vegetation (woodland/savannah)	C= 0.01 ; Ri = 0.40

143 ***Group discussions and participatory mapping***

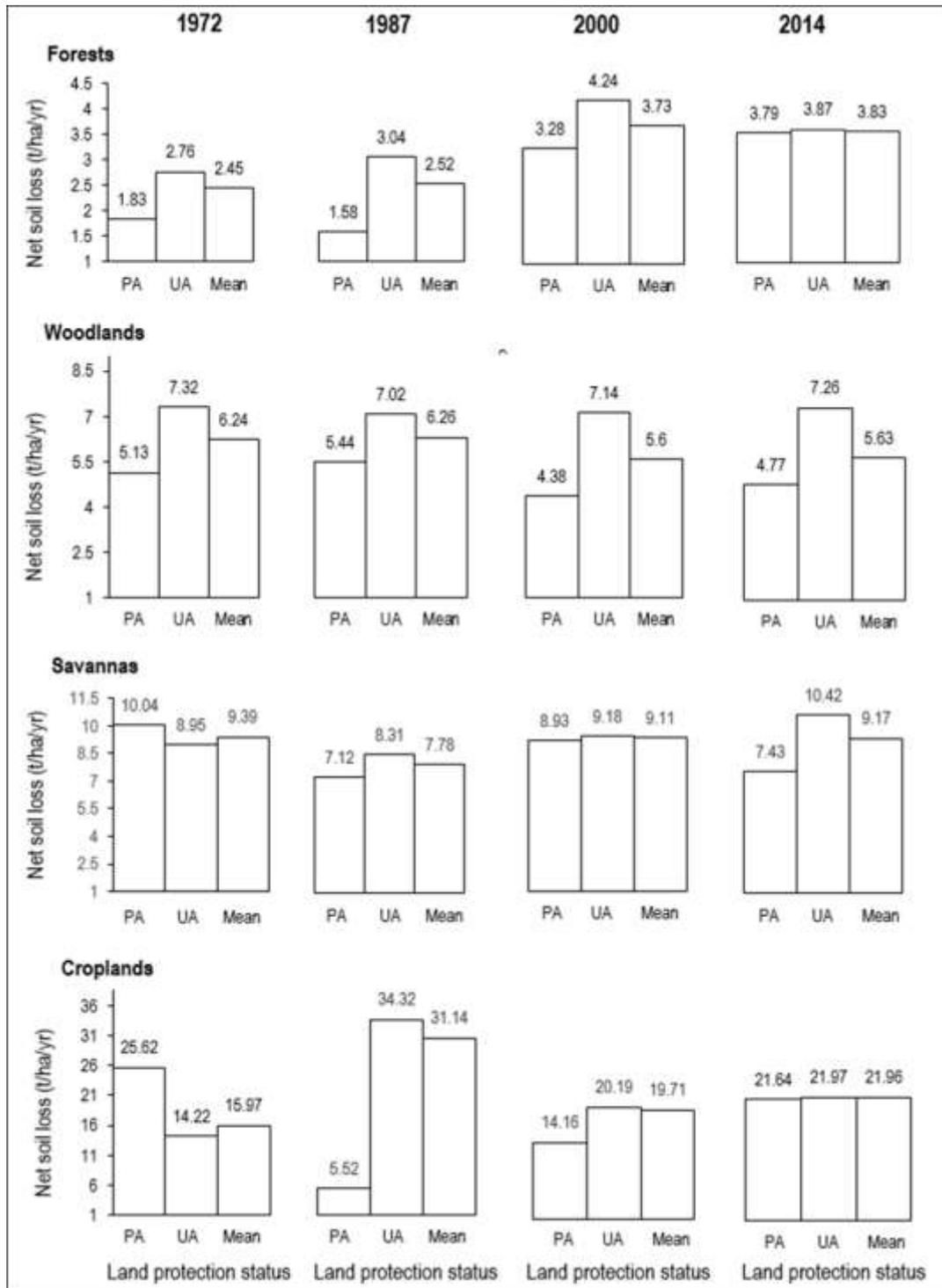


144
 145 Photo S1. Group meeting sketching erosion prone areas during a participatory
 146 mapping in Aleheride

147

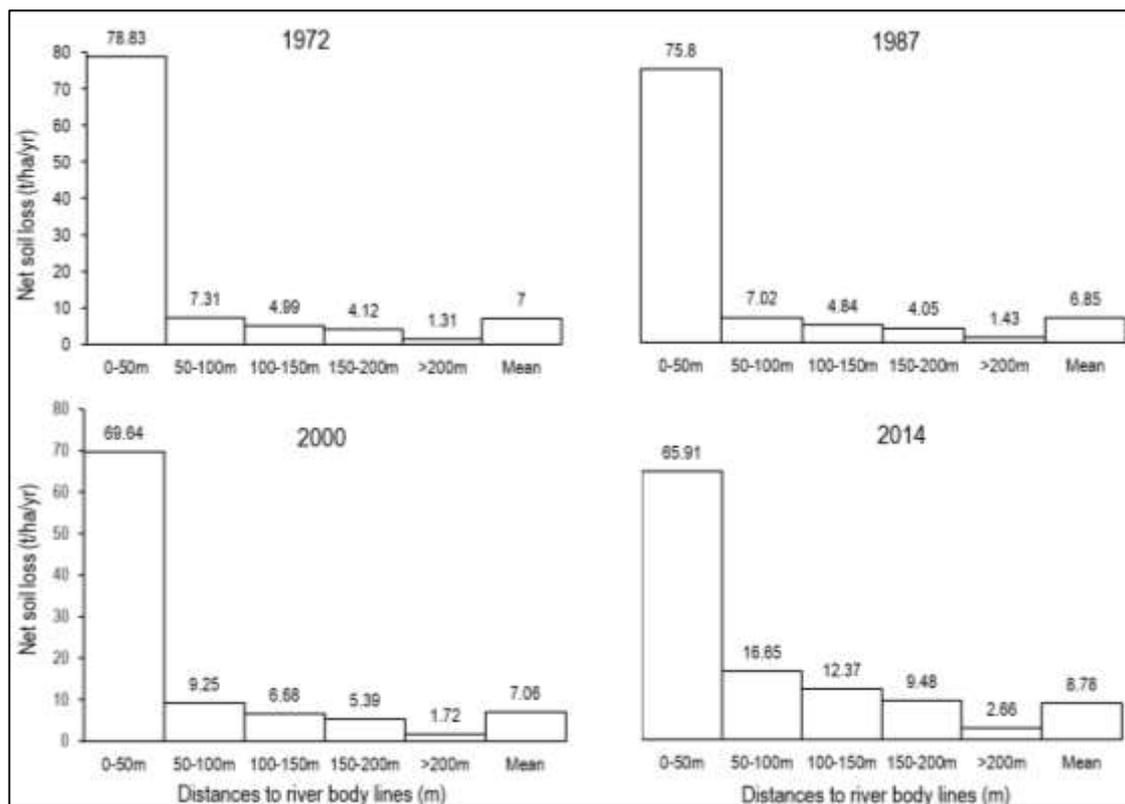
148 **Historical NSL according to LUC types in the Mo basin**

149 The distribution of NSL according to the four major LUC types (forests, woodlands,
 150 savannas and croplands) are presented in Fig S3.



151

152 **Fig S3. Historical NSL in different land use cover types per land protection**
 153 **status (PA = protected areas, UA = unprotected areas, Mean = average value)**



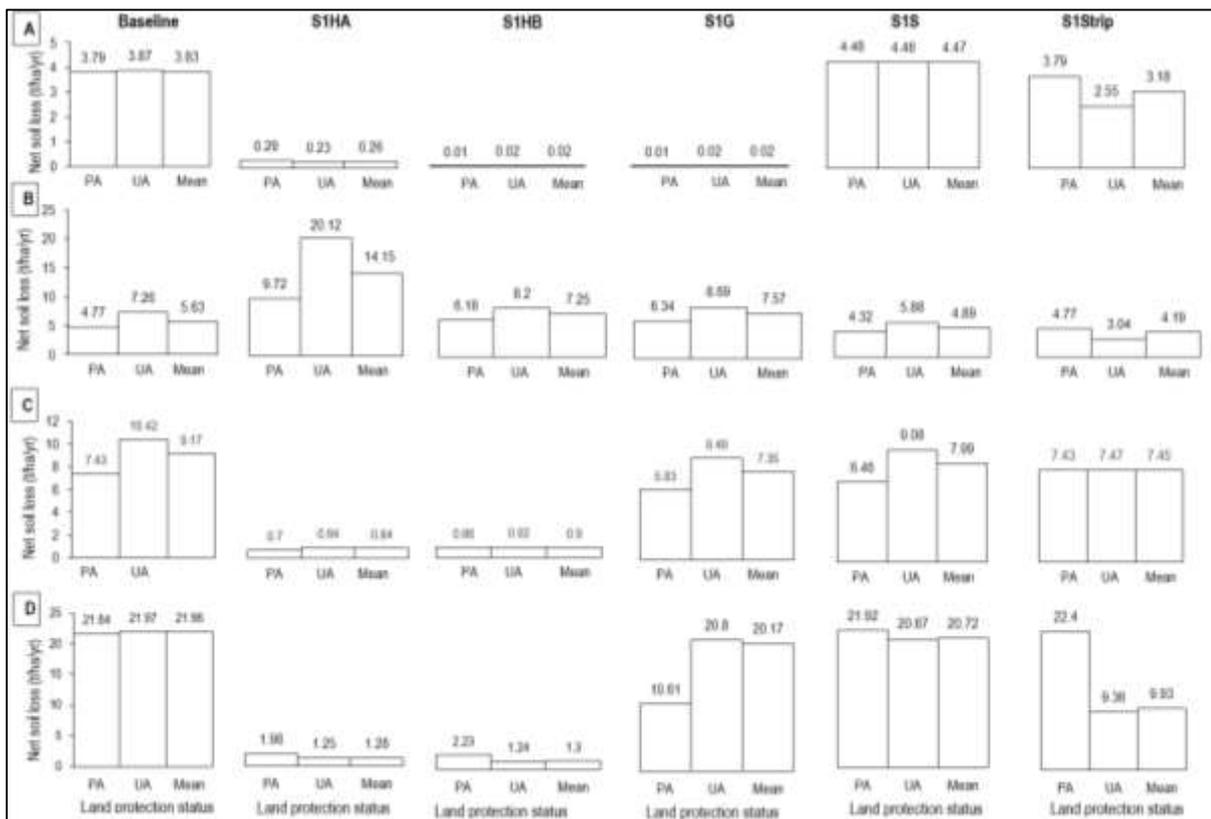
164 **Fig S4. NSL over time according to distances to river/stream**

165

166 **Effects of land management on NSL in forest areas**

167 Though S1G and S1S show a slight decrease of savannah-NSL in both PA and UPA,
 168 the effects are very low to encourage the adoption of such options towards the
 169 reduction of savannah-specific NSL reduction. In areas with poor surface cover
 170 dominated by croplands, Strip planting in UPA contribute to a significant reduction of
 171 NSL (from 22 to 9 t/ha/yr), indicating that this option is effective in reducing soil loss
 172 up to 59 % compared to the baseline. The NSL in UPA remains unchanged for
 173 croplands because the strip-planting option suggests that sole areas outside are
 174 managed since croplands in PA are illegal incursions that will not gain agreement for

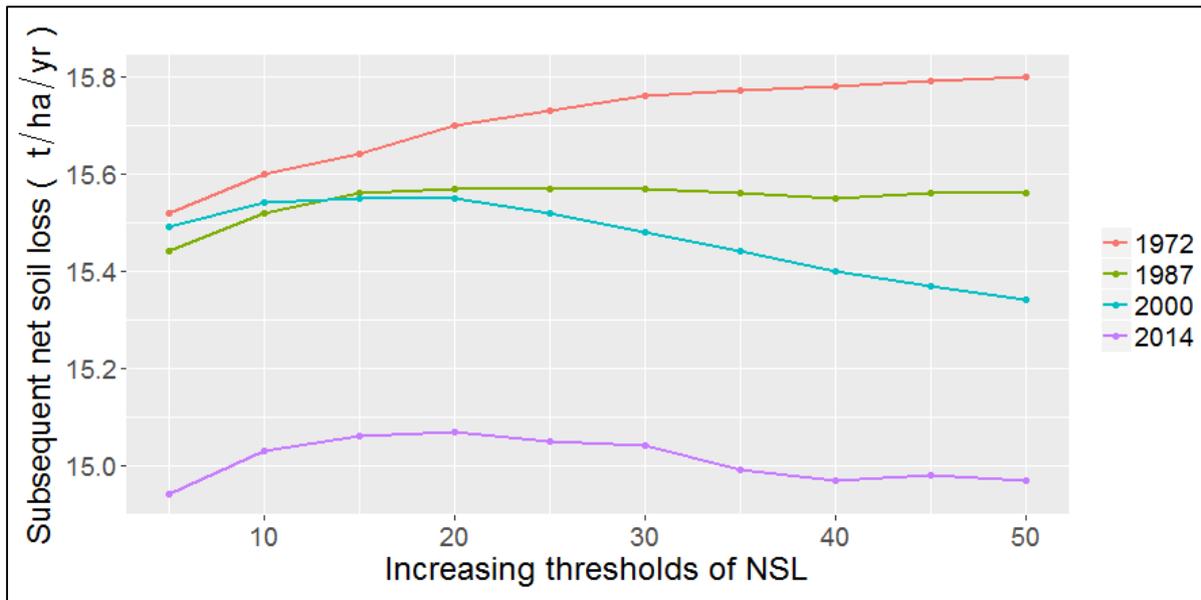
175 option implementation. Option S1S seems to be not efficient in reducing NSL since it
 176 is rare to observe croplands on steep lands. When land management aims at targeting
 177 gullies, NSL in PA significantly reduces by 50 % whereas in UPA, the change is not
 178 sensitive at landscape level. This is because gullies are densely developed in PA,
 179 which lies in more rough landscapes while in UPA, farmers concentrate on more fertile
 180 lands on flat terrains and inland valleys.



181

182 Fig S5. NSL (in t/ha/yr) in LUC according to protection status (PA = Protected Areas,
 183 UA = Unprotected Areas) and management options (Baseline, S1HA= scenario aiming
 184 at controlling erosion hotspots, S1HB = S1HA + terraces + grasses; S1G = Protection
 185 of gullies; S1S = Protection of steep slopes; S1Strip = Planting strips). A = Forests, B
 186 = Woodlands, C = Savannas; D = Croplands.

187 **NSL sensitivity to management thresholds of NSL**

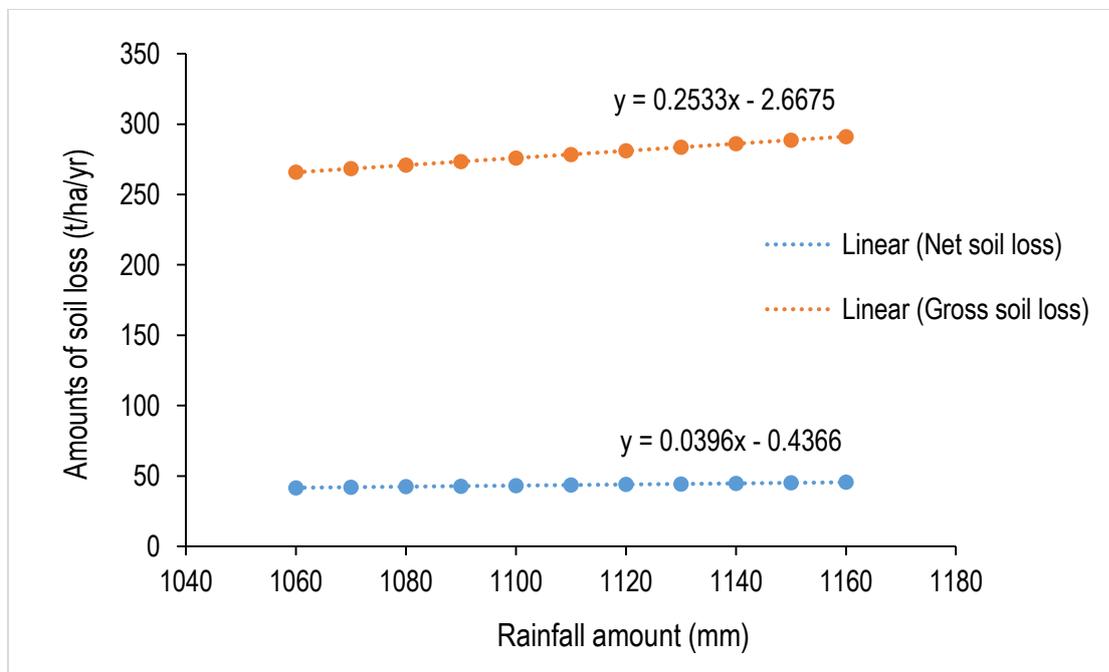


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189 **Fig S6. Consequent NSL in relation to soil loss thresholds for the four years**

190

191



192

193 **Figure S7. Linearity between rainfall and the simulated soil loss at the basin**

194 **level**

195 **References**

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