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Title:

Analyzing the relationship between urbanization, food supply and demand, and irrigation requirements in Jordan

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Abstract: The landscape surrounding urban areas is often used as farmland. With the observed expansion of urban areas over the last decades and a projected continuation of this trend, our objective was to analyze how urbanization affects food supply and demand in The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. We used a chain of simulation models covering components of the atmosphere (climate simulations), biosphere (crop yield calculations), and anthroposphere (simulations of urban expansion and land-use change) to calculate the effect of farmland displacement on land and water resources (hydrosphere). Our simulations show that the displacement of farmland itself has hardly any effect on cropland demand, crop yields, or irrigation water requirements. These results indicate that Jordan has sufficient productive areas available to buffer effects of urban expansion on food production for the next decades. However, this picture changes dramatically once we include changes in socioeconomy and climate in our simulations. The isolated effect of climate change results in an expected increase in irrigation water requirements of 19 MCM by 2025 and 64 MCM by 2050. It furthermore leads to an increase in cropland area of 147 km² by 2025 and 265 km² by 2050. While the combined analysis of urban expansion, climate change, and socioeconomic change makes optimistic assumptions on the increase in crop yields by 2050, the results still indicate a pronounced effect on cropland demands (2,700 km²) and a steep increase in irrigation water requirements (439 MCM). Our simulation results highlight the importance of high resolution, spatially explicit projections of futures land changes as well as the importance of spatiotemporal scenario studies at the regional level to help improving water planning strategies on the regional level.

1 **Keywords:** land systems; climate change; food supply and demand; scenario analysis;
2 Middle East; urbanization;

3

4 **1. Introduction**

5 Worldwide, the percentage of urban population has grown from 30% in 1950 to 54% in 2014
6 (United Nations and Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division), 2015a),
7 which resulted in an increase in urban areas even exceeding population growth rates (Seto et al.,
8 2011). Projections indicate that this trend is expected to persist (Seto et al., 2012), and even
9 accelerate in some regions of the world, e.g., the Middle East (United Nations and Department of
10 Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division), 2015b). These urbanization trends are likely
11 to have a considerable effect on biodiversity (Seto et al., 2012), water quality, and urban
12 microclimate (Foley et al., 2005). Another important consequence of urban expansion is the loss,
13 displacement and degradation of fertile farmland - often located in proximity to urban areas - with
14 significant implications for food security (Shi et al., 2016). While most studies that are analyzing
15 the relationship between urbanization and food production focus on food supply (i.e., implications
16 on farmland) (López et al., 2001; Pandey and Seto, 2015; van Vliet et al., 2017), Seto and
17 Ramankutty (2016) emphasize the importance of food demand as an essential component of the
18 food production system.

19

20 The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is one example of a country that is likely to experience the
21 detrimental effects of urbanization on farmland. Over the last decades, Jordan has seen
22 considerable population growth, and more than 80% of Jordan's population lives in urban areas.
23 Most large cities are located in the north-western part of the country - a fertile area (part of the
24 "Fertile Crescent") that receives the highest mean annual precipitation in Jordan. The north-
25 western part is also where a large percentage of the farmland is located, with more than 90% of
26 farmland within a 50 km radius of Jordan's three most populated cities. Besides the potential
27 issues due to urbanization, Jordan's food production system is also likely to be negatively

28 impacted by climate change, driven by increasing temperatures and decreasing precipitation
29 (Smiatek et al., 2011).

30

31 Spatially explicit urban simulation models employing a Cellular Automata (CA) approach have
32 been used for several decades to analyze urban expansion and changes in shape, structure, and
33 composition of urban areas. Examples include the work of White and Engelen (1993), the
34 SLEUTH model (Clarke et al., 1997), and the pattern-based FUTURES model (Dorning et al.,
35 2015; Meentemeyer et al., 2013). Land change models, such as the widely used CLUE-S model
36 (Verburg et al., 2002) and the regional to global scale LandSHIFT model (Alcamo et al., 2011;
37 Schaldach et al., 2011b), also use a CA approach. As compared to urban simulation models, these
38 models emphasize the landscape as a whole and are better suited to analyze the spatial and
39 temporal relationships between different land uses, e.g., the competition for land resources
40 between urban land use and land use for production of agricultural commodities. One feature of
41 the land change model LandSHIFT is that it uses demand for agricultural commodities and not
42 area demand to drive changes in land use and land cover (Schaldach et al., 2011a; Schaldach and
43 Koch, 2009). This is realized through a soft coupling of LandSHIFT to crop productivity models
44 such as LPJmL (Bondeau et al., 2007) or GEPIC (Liu et al., 2007), which provide crop
45 productivity simulations for specific biophysical conditions (e.g., climate or soil) and crop
46 management (e.g., fertilizer input or irrigation levels). This endogenous representation of crop
47 productivity and water productivity allows for the inclusion of different food production
48 “intensities” and the inclusion of effects of climate change on food production and natural
49 resources (farmland area, crop yields, and irrigation water requirements) (Schaldach et al., 2012).

50

51 To better understand the intricate relationships among different components of the food
52 production system - namely food supply (influenced by climate change and urban expansion) and
53 food demand (driven by population growth and dietary changes) - we used a sequence of
54 simulation models producing downscaled climate projections, calculations of crop productivity,
55 and spatially explicit scenarios of land use and land cover change. We applied this chain of

56 simulation models and their output data to investigate the relationship between urbanization, food
57 production, and their combined effects on land and water resources. In our analysis, we included
58 potential changes in food supply due to the expansion of urban areas and resulting displacement
59 of farmland under climate change conditions. We furthermore include potential changes in food
60 demand caused by population growth, changes in technology, and changes in dietary composition.
61 Changes in dietary composition included through underlying assumptions on increases in per
62 capita availability of calories from all foods and a trend towards a more meat-based diet as
63 introduced by the Global Environmental Outlook 4 (GEO4). We used LandSHIFT.R, which has
64 been developed and extensively tested for the Middle East's biophysical conditions (Koch, 2010a;
65 Koch et al., 2012a, 2008). We apply the model to investigate how potential future changes in food
66 supply (driven by urban expansion and climate change) and food demand (driven by population
67 growth and dietary changes) may affect the food production system (focusing on location,
68 productivity, and irrigation requirements) in a region suffering from severe water scarcity.

69

70 **2. Materials & Methods**

71 *2.1 Study Area*

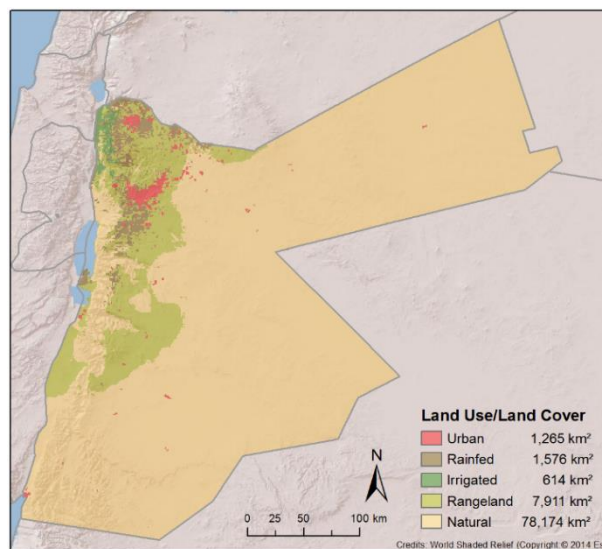
72 We conducted the study for the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, which covers a total area of 89,458
73 km². Over the last decades, Jordan has experienced considerable growth with population numbers
74 increasing from 2.181 million in 1980 to over 4.797 million in 2000 to 6.607 million in 2014 (The
75 World Bank Database). About 83% of the population lives in urban areas (United Nations and
76 Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population Division), 2015a), and the population of
77 the six largest cities adds up to about 45% of Jordan's total population (Amman - 1,276 million,
78 Zarqa - 0.793 million, Irbid - 0.306 million, Russeifa - 0.268 million, Wadi as Sir - 0.181 million,
79 and 'Ajlun - 0.126 million). All six of Jordan's largest cities are located in the north-western part,
80 which makes this area the most significant domestic market for agricultural products.

81

82 The north-western part of the country also receives the highest amount of mean annual
83 precipitation and, hence, the majority of Jordan's farmland is located in this region. According to

84 MODIS data, in 2001 96% of Jordan's cropland was located within 50 km of Amman, Zarqa, or
85 Irbid. Jordan's actual amount of renewable freshwater is 161 m³ per capita and year (Food and
86 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), 2016). This value is well below the
87 threshold for chronic water scarcity defined as 1,000 m³ per capita and year (Falkenmark and
88 Rockström, 2004). With about 65%, agricultural activities use a significant part of the available
89 freshwater resources according to the FAOSTAT database, which indicates that urbanization may
90 affect the location of farmland and the required water amount for agricultural activities.

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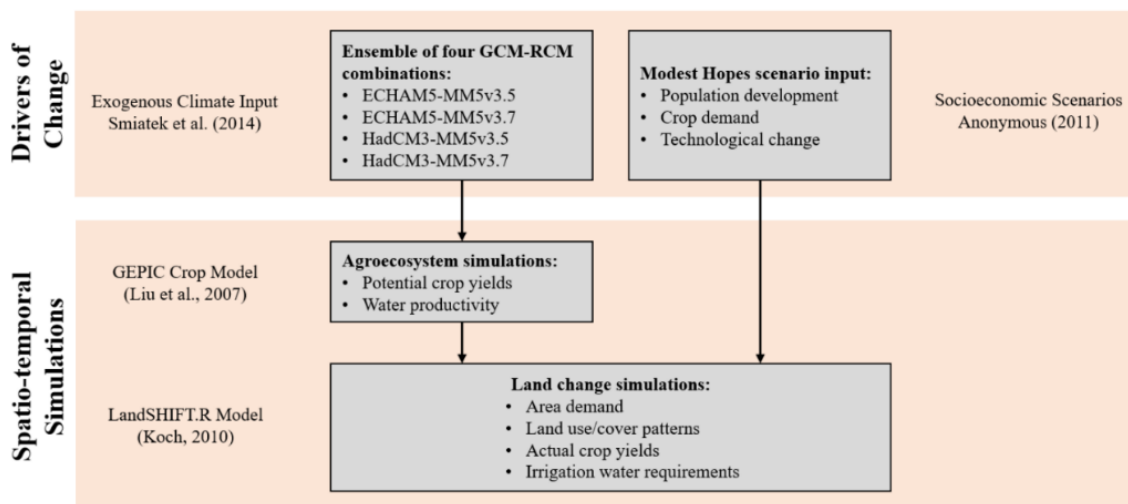
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COLOR - Figure 1. In the study region, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, the largest cities are located in the northwest of the country. These coincide with the areas of highest productivity, tied to high precipitation.

97 2.2 Simulation Workflow

98 One of the innovative features of this study is the evaluation of the isolated and combined effect
99 of change in climate and extent of urban area on land and water resources. Unlike existing studies
100 that focus on the displacement aspect of this relationship (e.g., van Vliet et al., 2017), the
101 workflow of this study allows the analysis of displacement effects on crop yields and irrigation
102 requirements. For this, we applied a two-step simulation approach (Figure 2). The workflow of
103 our simulations has the four major components climate projections, socioeconomic scenario data,
104 GEPIC simulations, and as the final step, land change scenario simulations. We use an ensemble
105 of climate projections for the calculation of potential crop yields and water productivity. We then

106 use these simulations in combination with socioeconomic scenario input as drivers of change in
 107 land use and land cover, calculated with LandSHIFT.R.
 108



109 **COLOR - Figure 2.** Schematic view of the study's simulation workflow. We used climate
 110 input to GEPIC (Liu et al., 2007) simulations for potential crop yield and water productivity
 111 calculations. These were then used in combination with socioeconomic scenarios as input for
 112 land change simulations with LandSHIFT.R (Koch, 2010b).
 113
 114

115 2.3 Simulation Experiments

116 Because the location of the major cities coincides with fertile areas that receive high mean annual
 117 precipitation, we hypothesized that the expansion of urban area leads to indirect land-use change
 118 in the form of displacement of farmland to other parts of the country, which is likely to have a
 119 considerable effect on both land and water resources. We expected the displacement to result in
 120 a decrease in average crop yields combined with an increase in area demand for crop production
 121 and an increase in irrigation water requirements. Based on this hypothesis, we formulated three
 122 research questions: (1) How do changes in food supply (climate change and the displacement of
 123 farmland due to urban expansion) affect land and water resources? (2) How do changes in food
 124 demand (population numbers, technological progress, and dietary composition) affect land and
 125 water resources? (3) How do the combined changes in food supply and demand affect land and
 126 water resources?

127

128 We developed a set of model runs that allow evaluating the isolated and combined effects of food
 129 supply and food demand on both land resources (area demand and crop productivity) and water
 130 resources (irrigation water requirements and water productivity). For those scenarios, we selected
 131 different drivers of change including **Urban Expansion (UE)**, **Climate Change (CC)**, and changes
 132 in **SocioEconomic conditions (SE)** as described below. We used all possible combinations of
 133 these three factors, resulting in three **Food Supply** scenarios (FS1 – FS3), one **Food Demand**
 134 scenario (FD1), and three combined scenarios (FSD1 – FSD3) (Table 1). We also calculated the
 135 baseline for which we did not include any of the factors and which does not include any change,
 136 but only describes the conditions for the base year of the study (the year 2000).

137

138 **Table 1.** Description of scenario characteristics. “+” indicates factor considered in the scenario;
 139 “-” indicates factor not considered in the scenario.

<i>Scenario Name</i>	Urban Expansion	Climate Change	SocioEconomic Change
<i>Baseline</i>	-	-	-
<i>FS1</i>	+	-	-
<i>FS2</i>	-	+	-
<i>FS3</i>	+	+	-
<i>FD1</i>	-	-	+
<i>FSD1</i>	+	-	+
<i>FSD2</i>	-	+	+
<i>FSD3</i>	+	+	+

140

141 We used the baseline simulation to compare it to the three FS scenarios to understand how
 142 changes in food supply affect land and water resources. We applied the FD scenario to address
 143 how changes in food demand affect land and water resources. The FSD scenarios are aimed at
 144 answering the third research question, i.e., how do the combined changes in food supply and
 145 demand affect land and water resources. Our analysis of the simulation results focused on four
 146 key components covering land and water resources: (1) area demand (urban, rainfed and irrigated
 147 farmland) and (2) crop productivity (average irrigated and rainfed crop yields), (3) irrigation water
 148 requirements and (4) water productivity.

149

150 2.4 Food Supply

151 2.4.1 Urban Expansion

152 The primary driver for urban expansion (UE) is growth in urban population. While population
153 growth is typically tied to an increase in demands for agricultural commodities, we excluded these
154 from the assumptions for UE to enable studying the isolated effect of expansion in urban areas on
155 farmland displacement. For population growth, we used values from the “Scenarios of Regional
156 Development under Global Change” that were specifically developed for the Jordan River region
157 (Israel, Jordan, Palestinian Authority), through a multi-year scenario exercise involving a series
158 of stakeholder workshops (Anonymous, 2011). This exercise includes four scenarios that differ
159 regarding their assumptions on future economic development and shared use of transboundary
160 water resources (Anonymous, 2011). We selected the “Modest Hopes” scenario (MH), which is
161 characterized by economic growth and unilateral water division. Anonymous (2011) describes
162 the situation under the MH scenario as

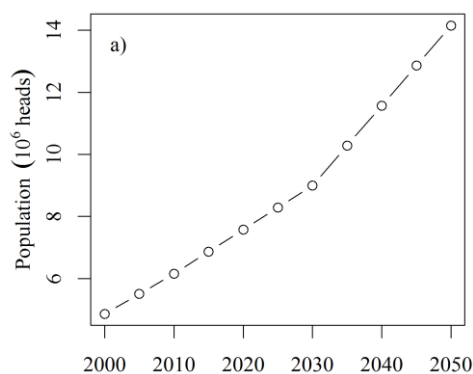
163 “a future world in which outside donors invest heavily in the region to prevent
164 deterioration of the political situation. The prosperity under this scenario leads
165 to a politically stable situation in the region with limited informal cooperation
166 (exchange of knowledge/technologies). The focus of water management is on
167 increasing the supply of water by large scale desalination and waste water
168 treatment and reuse, all on a high technical level.”

169

170 Since our scenario study tests several different factors, we decided to use only one of the four
171 scenarios for clarity. We specifically selected the MH scenario, because:

- 172 (1) With the recent approval of the Red Sea-Dead Sea canal project that includes large-
173 scale desalination, the scenario covers significant developments in the region;
- 174 (2) Among the four scenarios, the MH scenario is one of the more moderate ones.
175 However, it consistently provides the second highest assumptions regarding the
176 primary drivers of change (e.g., population growth).

177 Hence, the MH scenario captures a good representation of the situation and recent developments
178 in the study region while providing the opportunity to test the capacity of the land system under
179 study. Figure 3 shows the population numbers for MH, used for the scenarios FS1, FS3, FSD1,
180 and FSD3.
181



182 **NO COLOR - Figure 3.** Input information on population growth under the “Modest Hopes”
183 scenario for the period 2000-2050 (Anonymous, 2011).
184
185

186 2.4.2 Climate Change

187 In our simulation experiment, climate data is necessary to elucidate the future state of food supply
188 and water resources. We use climate projections as input for the calculation of potential crop
189 yields, water productivity, and irrigation water requirements. These are determinants of area
190 demand for domestic food production. To be able to provide a robust representation of climate
191 inputs and understand the sensitivity of the simulation workflow to climate inputs, we used four
192 different versions of climate projections for the Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES)
193 A1B scenario (Nakicenovic and Swart, 2000). These climate inputs were provided by Smiatek et
194 al. (2011), who calculated different projections for the Jordan River region with a spatial
195 resolution of 18.6 km using a nested dynamic downscaling approach. They used output from the
196 two Global Circulation Models ECHAM5 (fifth generation of the European Centre for Medium-
197 Range Weather Forecast model (EC) with a parametrization package developed in Hamburg
198 (HAM) at the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (Roeckner et al., 2006, 2003)) and HadCM3
199 (U.K. Meteorological Office Hadley Centre Coupled Model, version 3 (Gordon et al., 2000)).
200 They used the GCM simulation results to drive two different model releases (version 3.5 (Chen

201 and Dudhia, 2001) and version 3.7_4) of the MM5 Regional Climate Model (Dudhia, 1992). The
202 climate simulations (ensemble mean) show a mean annual temperature increase of 2.1 K and a
203 decrease in mean annual precipitation of 11.5% between the periods 1961-1990 and 2031-2060
204 (Smiatek et al., 2011). Furthermore, all climate simulations in this ensemble showed an increase
205 in the heat wave duration index and the coefficient of variation values for annual precipitation
206 (Smiatek et al., 2011).

207

208 With the projections based on the “representative concentration pathways” (Moss et al., 2010),
209 more recent climate data is available. We still decided to use the downscaled SRES A1B climate
210 projections from Smiatek et al. (2011) in our simulation experiment for two reasons: First, few
211 regional studies exist specifically for The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan evaluating the effect of
212 climate on water resources. These studies typically use the SRES climate projections; examples
213 include Al-Qinna et al. (2011), Smiatek et al. (2014), and Wade et al. (2010). Second, a study
214 conducted by Smiatek and Kunstmann (2016) using five downscaled climate datasets showed that
215 the new, downscaled climate projections for the Jordan River region based on the RCPs, are well
216 within the range of simulations using the SRES scenarios. Given the latter, we decided to use the
217 A1B climate projections that allow us to discuss and compare our simulation results in the context
218 of other regional studies for Jordan.

219

220 *2.4.3 Crop Productivity and Water Productivity*

221 We used high resolution, downscaled climate projections described above as input to GEPIC (Liu
222 et al., 2007) – the GIS version of the crop and soil productivity simulation model EPIC (Sharpley
223 and Williams, 1990). We used the four different GCM-RCM climate simulations for the periods
224 1971-2000 and 2035-2064 to calculate current and potential irrigated crop yields, potential rainfed
225 crop yields, and crop water productivity/evapotranspiration for the two periods. These simulations
226 form the basis for the projections of future farmland area and irrigation water requirements and
227 allow us to answer questions regarding area demand and discuss the relationship between
228 urbanization processes and farmland productivity. A detailed description of input data used to

229 parameterize and run GEPIC for Jordan is provided in Koch et al. (2012).

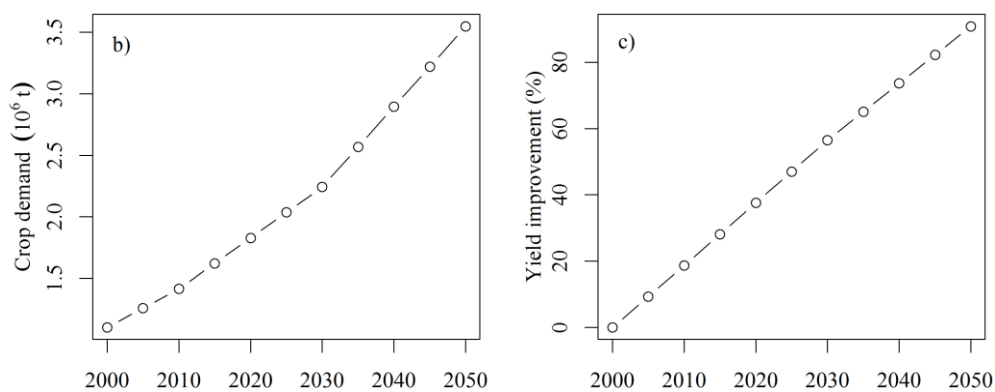
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231 2.5 Food Demand

232 2.5.1 Socioeconomic Change

233 The socioeconomic (SE) change component in our analysis includes two factors: (1) the
234 increasing demand for agricultural products driven by population growth and changes in dietary
235 composition, and (2) changes in crop yields (per hectare) due to advancements in plant breeding
236 and agricultural management. The scenario assumptions regarding demand for agricultural
237 products and dietary changes for the scenarios are based on calculations conducted for the United
238 Nations Environment Programme Global Environmental Outlook 4 (GEO4). It is important to
239 note that SE includes only the demand change, but not the population growth which is covered
240 in the UE component. The separation was necessary to be able to study the isolated effects of
241 urban expansion on farmland relocation. We use the values for projected demand increase and
242 yield improvement specified for the MH scenario (Anonymous, 2011). Figure 4 shows the
243 corresponding values for the simulation period.

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NO COLOR - Figure 4. “Modest Hopes” scenario assumptions on crop demand, and yield improvement due to advancements in plant breeding and agricultural management.

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248

249 2.6 Land Change Simulations

250 For the last step in our simulation workflow (Figure 2), we used a regional version of the global
251 land change model LandSHIFT (Alcamo et al., 2011; Schaldach et al., 2011b). We developed the
252 regional version – LandSHIFT.R – specifically for the Jordan River region and tested it

253 thoroughly (Koch et al., 2012a, 2008). LandSHIFT.R is a spatially distributed, dynamic
254 simulation model that calculates alternative projections of potential future changes in land use
255 and land cover. The model uses a cellular automata approach to identify suitable locations for
256 land change. Koch (2010a) and Schaldach and Koch (2009) give a detailed description of the
257 model functionality. We ran the simulation model for the territory of the Hashemite Kingdom of
258 Jordan with a 30 arc second spatial resolution, covering the period from 2000 until 2050 with a
259 5-year time step. Given the four different climate projections and eight different scenarios (Table
260 1), we ran 32 different simulations. The output for each of those simulations includes maps of
261 land use/cover, actual average crop yield (rainfed and irrigated), and total irrigation water
262 requirements in millions of cubic meters (MCM). LandSHIFT.R furthermore calculates a set of
263 area statistics on the country level.

264

265

266 **3. Results**

267 *3.1 Baseline Simulation Results*

268 Figure 1 displays the land use/cover map for the baseline (the year 2000) and Table 2 shows the
269 baseline areas for the focus land use categories of this study. Most of the rainfed and irrigated
270 farmland is located in relative proximity to the urban centers and water sources (Jordan River and
271 irrigation infrastructure such as the King Abdullah Canal (KAC)). Average crop yields –
272 including the crop categories fruits, vegetables, and cereals – are 0.6 t/ha under rainfed conditions
273 and 16.4 t/ha under irrigated conditions. The overall irrigation water requirements for crop
274 production totals 321 MCM. Since we did not include any assumptions on the change in input
275 data for this “scenario” the simulation results for the baseline do not change over the simulation
276 period. In this section, we compare the simulation results for the different scenario assumptions
277 against the baseline conditions.

278

279 *3.2 Food Supply*

280 *3.2.1 The Effect of Urban Expansion*

281 The simulation results for the FS1 scenario show the effects of urban expansion. This scenario
 282 shows an increase in urban area of 370 km² by 2025 and 834 km² by 2050 (Table 2, 3). Even
 283 though a moderate part of urbanization happens on former farmland, the displacement does not
 284 result in significant expansion of cropland (Figure 5(a) and 5(d)). By 2025, the rainfed cropland
 285 increases by only five km² and irrigated cropland area show a decrease of 22 km². The results for
 286 the year 2050 are in the same order of magnitude. The simulations furthermore show a reduction
 287 of irrigation water requirements of one MCM by 2025 and 10 MCM by 2050 as compared to the
 288 baseline. Figure 6 indicates that under the FS1 scenario, new farmland is allocated in the north-
 289 western tip of Jordan. The area along the Jordan River has comparably high mean annual
 290 precipitation values, which explains the reduction of irrigation water requirements as compared
 291 to the baseline.

292

293 **Table 2.** Simulated areas for the focus land use/cover categories for the year 2025. Simulation
 294 results considering climate change are given as ensemble means (scenarios FS2, FS3, FSD2 and
 295 FSD3).

Scenario	Areas in km ² (%) - 2025		
	Urban Area	Irrigated Farmland	Rainfed Farmland
Baseline	1,265	614	1,576
FS1	1,635 (29)	617 (0)	1,554 (-1)
FS2	1,265 (0)	700 (14)	1,637 (4)
FS3	1,635 (29)	701 (14)	1,639 (4)
FD1	1,265 (0)	859 (40)	2,188 (39)
FSD1	1,635 (29)	860 (40)	2,194 (39)
FSD2	1,265 (0)	966 (57)	2,257 (43)
FSD3	1,635 (29)	966 (57)	2,270 (44)

303

304 **Table 3.** Simulated areas for the focus land use/cover categories for the year 2050. Simulation
 305 results considering climate change are given as ensemble means (scenarios FS2, FS3, FSD2 and
 306 FSD3).

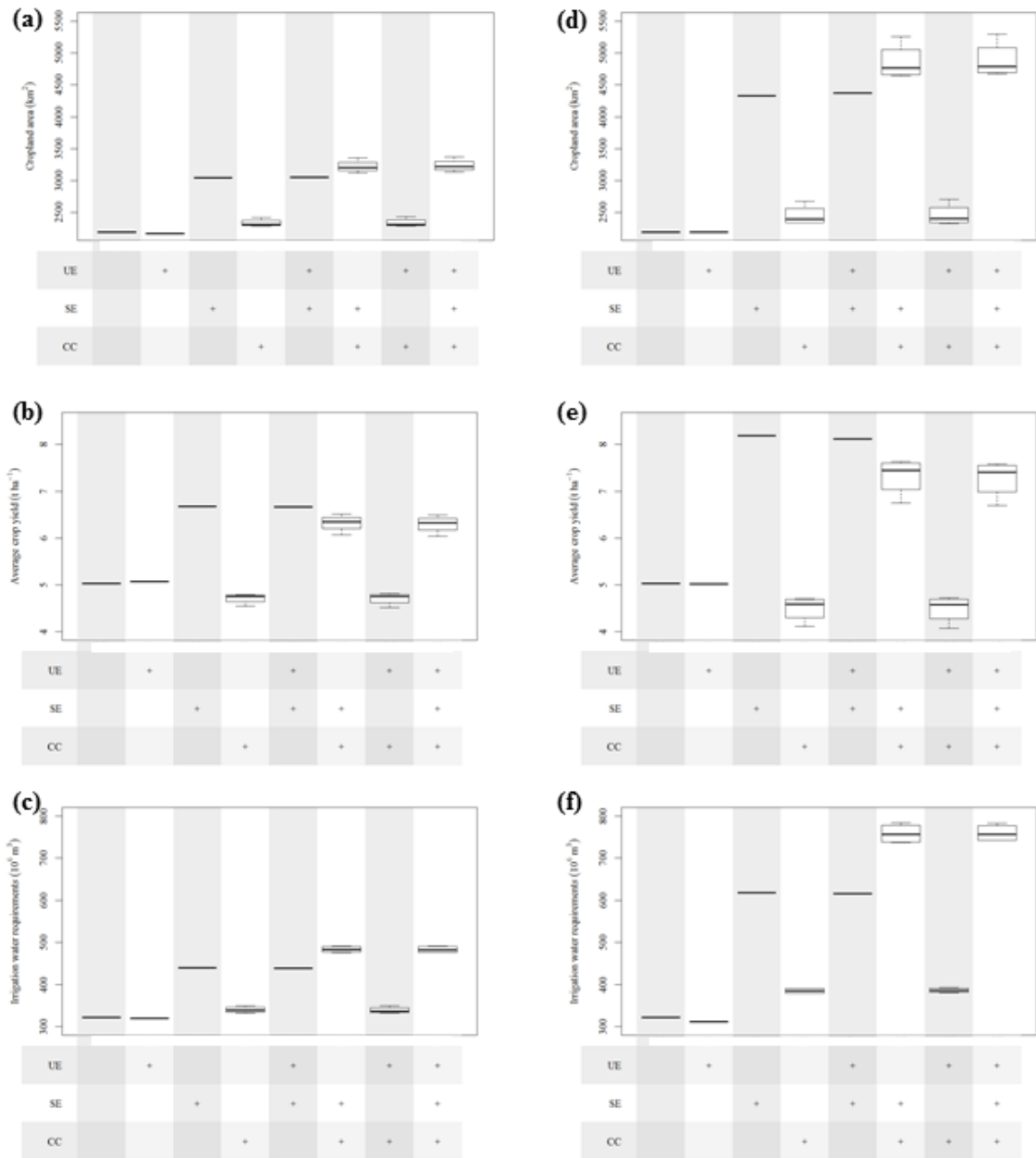
Scenario	Areas in km ² (%) - 2050		
	Urban Area	Irrigated Farmland	Rainfed Farmland
Baseline	1,265	614	1,576
FS1	2,099 (66)	619 (1)	1,576 (0)
FS2	1,265 (0)	795 (29)	1,660 (5)
FS3	2,099 (66)	795 (29)	1,668 (6)
FD1	1,265 (0)	1,206 (96)	3,127 (98)
FSD1	2,099 (66)	1,205 (96)	3,168 (101)
FSD2	1,265 (0)	1,576 (157)	3,283 (108)
FSD3	2,099 (66)	1,577 (157)	3,313 (110)

311

312 *3.2.2 The Effect of Climate Change*

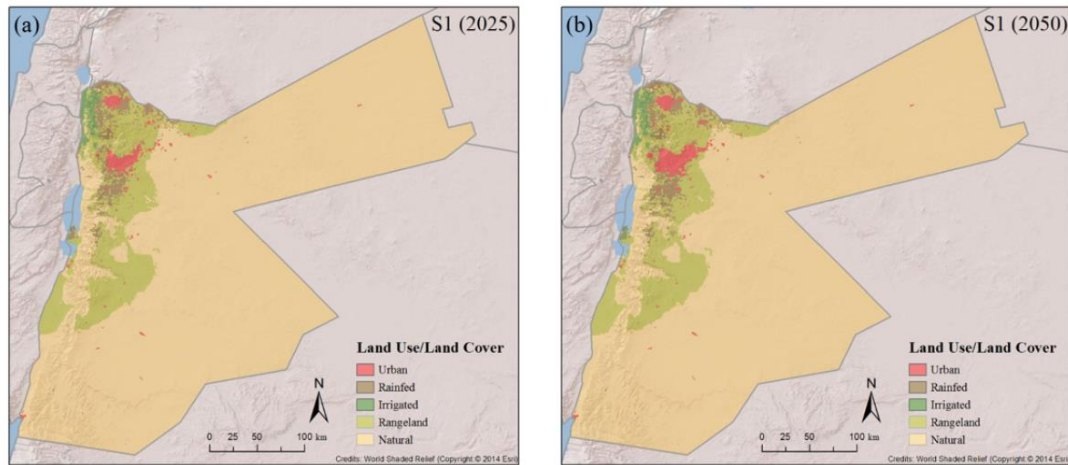
313 The simulation results for the FS2 scenario display the effect of climate change. In contrast to the
314 simulations without climate change, these results provide a range of results due to the four
315 different input datasets for climate, crops yields, and water productivity. Hence, the values
316 provided in Table 2, 3 are ensemble means. In contrast to the FS1 scenario, climate change has a
317 pronounced impact on farmland area, crop yields, and irrigation water requirements (Figure 5).
318 Even though no demand increase is considered in this scenario, cropland area increases by 147
319 km² until 2025 and by 265 km² until 2050 (compared to the baseline). The area increase is solely
320 driven by reduced crop yields due to changes in temperature and precipitation patterns (Figure
321 5(b) and 5(e)). Figure 5 also shows that climate projections introduce uncertainty the further into
322 the future we project. The expansion of farmland caused by reduced crop yields is also tied to an
323 increase in irrigation water requirements as displayed in Figure 5(c) and 5(f). The results show an
324 increase of 19 MCM by 2025 and 64 MCM by 2050.

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NO COLOR - Figure 5. Simulation results displaying (a) cropland area for the year 2025, (b) average crop yields for the year 2025, (c) irrigation water requirements for the year 2025, (d) cropland area for the year 2050, (e) average crop yields for the year 2050, and (f) irrigation water requirements for the year 2050.



COLOR - Figure 6. Grid-based LandSHIFT.R simulation results for the FS1 scenario (a) for the year 2025 and (b) for the year 2050. LandSHIFT.R simulation output is calculated covering the entire Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, with a spatial resolution of 30 arc seconds.

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337 3.2.3 The Combined Effect of Urban Expansion and Climate Change

338 The simulation results for the FS3 scenario display the combined effect of urban expansion and
 339 climate change. Since they also include the climate-driven crop yield and water productivity
 340 calculations, these results also give a range of uncertainty introduced by the climate projection
 341 ensemble. The simulation results for the FS3 scenario are in the same order of magnitude as the
 342 results for FS2. Projections of urban expansion under FS3 are identical to the FS1 scenario. While
 343 there are minor differences between the FS2 and FS3 scenario in irrigated farmland area (1 km²
 344 for 2025), rainfed farmland area (2 km² in 2025 and 8 km² in 2050) and irrigation water
 345 requirements (1 MCM in 2025 and 2050), the difference does not exceed the range of model
 346 uncertainty. These results emphasize the marginal effect of farmland displacement due to urban
 347 expansion on farmland area demands and irrigation water requirements.

348

349 3.3 Food Demand

350 The FD1 scenario explores the effect of socioeconomic change based on the assumptions
 351 regarding increasing crop demands and changes in dietary composition as described in
 352 Anonymous (2011). Because yield increase due to plant breeding and agricultural management
 353 advancements is part of the scenario assumptions, we see an increase in crop yields (mainly
 354 determined by irrigated crop yields) from 5.0 t/ha for the baseline to 6.7 t/ha by 2025 and 8.2 t/ha

355 by 2050. Nevertheless, the simulation results for this scenario show by far higher values in
356 farmland area, crop yields, and irrigation water requirements as compared to all FS scenarios
357 (Figure 5). Although the yield increase has a dampening effect on area demand for irrigated crop
358 production, the results still show a steep increase of 245 km² additional irrigated farmland by
359 2025 and 592 km² by 2050. This area expansion is accompanied by an almost doubling of the
360 irrigation water requirements by 2050 as compared to the baseline (618 MCM). The rainfed
361 farmland area also shows a sharp increase from 1,576 km² for the baseline to 2,188 km² in 2025
362 and 3,127 km² in 2050.

363

364 *3.4 Combined Effects of Changes in Food Supply and Demand*

365 Scenarios FSD1, FSD2, and FSD3 show how the combination of food supply factors (UE and
366 CC) and food demand (SE) manifest themselves in the landscape. Scenario FSD1 combines the
367 effects of urban expansion and socioeconomic change. The simulation results for this scenario are
368 almost identical to the results for the FD1 scenario, which is due to the dominant effect of
369 increased crop demands on land use patterns and water requirements. The only difference between
370 these two scenarios is in rainfed farmland, where we see slightly higher values for the FSD1
371 scenario. This can be attributed to slightly smaller crop yields (Figure 5). A similar effect is visible
372 for the comparison between the FSD2 and FSD3 scenarios, where differences are only visible for
373 rainfed farmland area and yields. This is because the highly productive areas along the Jordan
374 River and the KAC are used for cash crops that are typically irrigated. The (rainfed) production of
375 staple food such as grains and cereals is pushed towards the more marginal lands where small
376 changes in the location can have a detrimental effect on the already low rainfed crop yields.
377 Overall, the latter two scenarios including CC and SE show the highest increase in farmland
378 (1032-1045 ha by 2025 and 2618-2667 ha by 2050) and irrigation water requirements (162 MCM
379 by 2025 and 437-439 MCM by 2050). For these, the dominating effect of additional food demand
380 is combined with the detrimental effect of climate change on crop yields, and hence, farmland
381 expansion. Given the scale of changes introduced by CC and SE, the effects of UE can be
382 neglected.

383

384

385 **4. Discussion**

386 Urbanization is a significant development at the global scale (Seto et al., 2011; van Vliet et al.,
387 2017) with important implications for food security and biodiversity (Güneralp et al., 2013). In
388 our study, we analyzed the spatial effect of urbanization on land and water resources for The
389 Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. In contrast to typical scenario studies, we designed our study to
390 be able to analyse and evaluate the isolated and combined effects of different components of the
391 urbanization process. For this, we used a chain of simulation models to include multiple
392 components of the land system and differentiated between the effects of food supply and food
393 demand tied to urbanization and population growth. This is the first study to analyze the effects
394 of urbanization on land change and irrigation water requirements in Jordan, making use of
395 downscaled climate projections and spatially explicit, high-resolution land change simulations.
396 In this section, we discuss our findings in the context of the two processes identified by Seto and
397 Ramankutty (2016), analyze how the linkages between food supply and demand affect land and
398 water resources and how they manifested themselves in the landscape at the regional scale.

399

400 *4.1 Effects of Changes in Food Supply and Food Demand*

401 Cropland loss driven by urbanization has been a major concern in many parts of the world, such
402 as China (Shi et al., 2016), Puerto Rico (López et al., 2001), or India (Pandey and Seto, 2015).
403 Urban expansion often has a substantial effect on crop yields within a region, since fertile
404 agricultural land is converted to urban areas and as a result, agricultural activities may be pushed
405 to more marginal lands (Seto and Ramankutty, 2016). According to Seto and Ramankutty (Seto
406 and Ramankutty, 2016), two characteristics describe in which countries cropland loss due to urban
407 expansion are likely to occur: (1) countries that show a high urban population growth rate and a
408 strong reliance on an agrarian economy, and (2) countries where fertile agricultural area is located
409 in proximity to cities. With a current urbanization rate of 83% and expected increase of this rate
410 to 89% in 2050 (United Nations and Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Population

411 Division), 2015a), the importance of agricultural activity for sustenance and income for a major
412 part of the poor (Sidahmed et al., 2012), the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan falls into the category
413 of countries that are expected to experience farmland loss driven by urban expansion.

414

415 In the past, population growth in Jordan has resulted in land-use change and especially expansion
416 of urban area (Al-Bakri et al., 2001; Potter et al., 2009). Saleh and Rawashdeh (2007) used
417 Remote Sensing and GIS to analyze the expansion of Amman, Ma'daba, and Irbid and found an
418 area increase from 106 km² to 163 km² for Amman, and from 4 km² to 11 km² for Ma'daba
419 between the years 1983 and 2002. For Irbid, the authors found an increase in the urban area from
420 10 km² to 38 km² between the years 1983 and 2000. Compared to these observations, the
421 simulation results for the FS1 scenario – analyzing the isolated effect of urban expansion – are in
422 a realistic order of magnitude. Given that this study does not only focus on the major urban centers
423 in Jordan, but on all urban areas, the projected increase in urban area from 1,265 km² in 2000 to
424 1,635 km² by 2025 and to 2,099 km² by 2050 is feasible. Resulting from this urban expansion,
425 the simulations show by 2050 183 km² of urban area in areas formerly used as farmland. As a
426 result, farmland is displaced to other areas in Jordan to fulfil the crop demands. Against
427 expectations, the results of our study show that the displacement of farmland has no detrimental
428 effect on crop yields or irrigation water requirements. On the contrary, the simulations indicate a
429 slight increase in crop yields. This is because urban expansion “pushes” farmland into areas
430 located in the Jordan Valley and the highlands along the King Abdullah Canal. These areas exhibit
431 high precipitation and potential crop yields. Hence, we conclude that the isolated effect of urban
432 expansion is not likely to impact food production in Jordan over the next few decades since
433 sufficient fertile cropland is still available and irrigation infrastructure is in place to support
434 irrigation agriculture. The downside of the dislocation of farmland to those areas is an average
435 increase in the distance to markets of agricultural commodities.

436

437 Unlike urban expansion, we found that another process influencing food supply – climate change
438 – has a strong effect on the regional land and water resources. The study workflow includes

439 downscaled climate data to calculate changes of potential crop yields and water productivity,
440 which are used as the basis for calculating scenarios of land change and irrigation water
441 requirements. This experimental design synthesizes different inputs and allows simulating the
442 effect of climate change on food production with a relatively high spatial detail. We only use one
443 SRES scenario (Nakicenovic and Swart, 2000) as input for our analysis, but we considered four
444 different downscaled climate data sets for the Jordan River region (Smiatek et al., 2011). The
445 consideration of different climate realizations was important to understand the sensitivity of our
446 modeling approach to climate data, to understand the range of uncertainty in our simulation
447 outputs and to gain confidence in the results of our simulations (Sargent, 2013). The simulation
448 results for FS2 – including only climate change - show a detrimental effect on crop yields and
449 irrigation requirements, as well as the range of uncertainty introduced by different GCM-RCM
450 combinations (Figure 5). The latter increases over the simulation period. The decrease in crop
451 yields due to less favorable climate conditions (higher temperatures and decreasing precipitation)
452 leads to a significantly higher area demand for crop production and an increase in irrigation water
453 requirements. These findings are in line with other studies on crop production and irrigation water
454 requirements in the Mediterranean and the Middle East (Giannakopoulos et al., 2009; Koch et al.,
455 2012b; Parry et al., 2004).

456

457 The analyses of urban expansion alone and in combination with climate change (FS1 - FS3)
458 focuses on food supply. However, Seto and Ramankutty (2016) also argue for the consideration
459 of food demand as an important aspect of urbanization. While we did not have appropriate data
460 available to study the isolated effects of changes from rural to urban lifestyles on food demand,
461 we did use scenario assumptions that include the effect of change in diets on food demand and
462 that were specifically developed for the study area in the context of a multi-year scenario
463 development process (Anonymous, 2011). Given the already high urbanization rate in Jordan,
464 which projections show to increase in the future, we considered it important to analyse the effect
465 of increasing food demand on land and water resources, and to compare it to the effects of changes
466 in food supply. We consider the increasing food demand due to population growth, which in

467 Jordan mainly takes place in urban areas (United Nations and Department of Economic and Social
468 Affairs (Population Division), 2015a), in the scenarios focusing on socioeconomic change in
469 Jordan. Besides the rising demand from population growth, the scenario assumptions also
470 consider a change in dietary preferences as an important driver of demand change.

471

472 Our simulations results translate the changing demands for agricultural commodities into
473 demands for area and irrigation water. The results indicate that – even though the scenario
474 assumptions include an optimistic increase in crop yields (Figure 4) – the increasing food demand
475 leads to a significant expansion of cropland area (Table 2, 3) and irrigation water requirements.
476 Farmland areas, both irrigated and rainfed are likely to double, as are irrigation water
477 requirements. The effect of a changing demand is multiple times higher than that of climate
478 change alone (Figure 5) and is likely to put additional pressures on food security in Jordan. With
479 irrigation water requirements calculated to more than double by 2050, the results indicate
480 additional detrimental effects on the already scarce freshwater resources (Hadadin and Tarawneh,
481 2007). In combination with changes in climate, the resulting increases of cropland demands and
482 especially irrigation water requirements are even more pronounced, with the latter almost tripling
483 (Figure 5). In comparison to this, the effects of urban expansion are small.

484

485 *4.2 Importance of Regional Studies and Implications of Findings*

486 Global studies are of exceptional importance for the identification of broad trends, critical issues
487 and concerns (Laurance et al., 2014; Myers et al., 2000; Seto et al., 2012), but they are not
488 designed to work on a spatial resolution allowing the inclusion of processes and spatial
489 heterogeneity required to provide details applicable to regional policy and decision-making.
490 Dalla-Nora et al. (2014) and Lambin and Meyfroid (2011) stress the necessity of connecting local
491 and regional with global-scale factors to better understand the functioning of land systems. In this
492 sense, an important objective of our study was filling the gap between coarse global studies and
493 very detailed local studies.

494

495 While urban expansion and its effect on the displacement of productive farmland is a concern at
496 the global level, we were interested in its importance at the regional scale for Jordan. We designed
497 our simulation study to compare and contrast three processes that contribute to global
498 environmental change and operate on three difference scale levels: urban expansion, climate
499 change, and socioeconomic change. We used a scenario study as a method to specify meaningful
500 combinations of global drivers such as climate change and regional factors such as assumptions
501 regarding water infrastructure (e.g. Red Sea-Dead Sea Canal) and urbanization trends. With our
502 modeling approach that couples a set of sub-models representing land-use processes (crop yields
503 and land-use change) with high-resolution climate simulations, we were able to identify
504 socioeconomic change in combination with climate change as the dominant factors that drive
505 future land and water requirements. The simulation results depend on scenario assumptions and
506 on the continuation of observed trends (e.g. population densities in urban areas and per capita area
507 demands). Because of this, the simulations are likely to differ from what will manifest itself in
508 future landscapes as a result of stakeholder and resource manager decision-making. However,
509 scenario-based studies like the one presented here allow the exploration of regional trends and
510 their quantification and visualization. We think that these results are valuable to inform regional
511 decision makers and raise their awareness for different problem domains and their respective
512 interlinkages.

513

514 The major outcome of this study is that, assuming continuation of current trends of population
515 densities, farmland displacement due to urban expansion will not result in increasing farmland
516 demands and decreasing regional crop yields. Urban expansion will also not lead to additional
517 irrigation water requirements. As compared to that, a change in climate will add additional
518 pressure to both land and water resources – as has been found in earlier studies (Koch et al.,
519 2012a, 2012b). However, the effects of both of these components can almost be neglected when
520 compared to the impact of additional food demand on land and water resources. This seconds the
521 findings of Seto and Ramankutty (2016) and emphasizes the need for data allowing the analysis
522 of outcomes due to changes in diet and lifestyle choices in general. Furthermore, while the effects

523 of farmland displacement on land and water resources were minor, other important effects were
524 not in the focus of this study. These include increases in impervious surface and changes in
525 microclimate, which need to be considered in a study similar to those once conducted by Menzel
526 et al. (2009), Smiatek et al., (2014), and Smiatek and Kunstmann (2016) to understand their
527 importance for hydrological systems in general.

528

529 For Jordan, the findings of this study have important implications. With the recent approval of
530 the Red Sea-Dead Sea Canal, an additional source of freshwater for irrigation will become
531 available. While this may help to close the gap in water availability, the canal is also likely to
532 introduce additional stress on the environment (Asmar and Ergenzinger, 2002). Furthermore,
533 additional irrigation not only results in additional pressures on the environment, but also requires
534 careful planning and trade-offs between different demands to be able to achieve them in a region
535 of the world that is already experiencing high water scarcity (Hoff et al., 2011). Factors like the
536 new development of irrigation infrastructure are likely to require additional financial investments.
537 Our simulation results include sufficient spatial detail and cover a broad range of assumptions
538 about future development. The quantifications and visualizations of future land change provided
539 by this study help improve the understanding of the magnitude of change. Early investments in
540 additional infrastructure and adjustment in agricultural management may allow us to change the
541 trend of decreasing agricultural self-sufficiency in Jordan (Hadadin and Tarawneh, 2007).

542

543

544 **5. Conclusions**

545 The results of our simulation study do not serve as forecasts or predictions, but projections of
546 likely future developments under scenario assumptions based on historic data and observations.
547 Their value lies in providing estimates and improved understanding of future pressures on land
548 and water resources, allowing for adjustments in planning and management. Combining our
549 estimates of land demand and especially irrigation water requirements with spatially explicit
550 simulations of future water availability will provide a more complete understanding of additional

551 pressures on the hydrological system in a region already suffering from severe water stress. Also,
552 improved understanding of gaps in water availability will allow for a better planning and
553 development of infrastructure, since the adjustment of natural resource management will
554 ultimately steer the manifestation of future use of land and water resources.

555

556

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563

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