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1 Unpacking the concept of Land Degradation Neutrality and addressing its operation 2 through the Rio Conventions

3

4 Abstract

5 The world's commitment towards land degradation neutrality (LDN) became enshrined in
6 various international agreements and decisions throughout the year 2015. The challenge now
7 becomes one of addressing its operation, in order to achieve these new policy goals and
8 targets by the year 2030. Advancing LDN demands attention to what the concept seeks to
9 achieve, as well as unravelling the perspectives of the key multi-lateral environmental
10 agreements through which progress can be made. The three Rio Conventions (the UN
11 Convention to Combat Desertification, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change
12 and the Convention on Biological Diversity) all play key roles in shaping the international
13 LDN governance and implementation context. Their different but related foci create a number
14 of challenges and opportunities for advancing LDN. In this paper we critically analyze the
15 literature to elucidate potential challenges and opportunities in moving LDN towards
16 implementation, considering the mandates and objectives of all three Rio Conventions. We
17 first unpack the concept of LDN's aspirations. We highlight the importance of the definitions
18 and terminology used, and the relationships between those definitions, terms and the actors
19 using them, as well as their implications in framing the range of policy actions and synergies
20 that could benefit progress towards multiple Sustainable Development Goals. We then
21 examine the LDN pilot project spearheaded by the UNCCD to identify key lessons for LDN
22 implementation. Synthesising these lessons, we present a portfolio of blended interventions
23 that seeks to address the aspirations of the UNCCD, UNFCCC and CBD in the LDN space,
24 identifying synergistic options for national actions to move towards LDN. Overall, our
25 analysis provides insights in advancing LDN from its current position as a policy target,
26 towards synergetic action.

27 **Keywords:** UNCCD, restoration, rehabilitation, sustainable land management, CBD,
28 UNFCCC

29 1. Introduction

30 On 25th September 2015, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were formally adopted
31 by the UN General Assembly. SDG 15 includes a target (15.3) to: “*combat desertification,*
32 *restore degraded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods,*
33 *and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world*” by 2030 (UNGA, 2015). This target
34 builds upon political momentum that initiated in 2011 to tackle issues of land degradation,
35 when leaders of Member States at the UN General Assembly High-Level Meeting noted that:
36 “*... if the international community was serious in its commitment about reversing land*
37 *degradation and desertification, the time had come to commit for building a land degradation*
38 *neutral world, ...*” (UNGA, 2011). While the centrality of land in addressing a number of
39 sustainable development challenges has now been politically recognized (including challenges

1 relating to poverty, food, water and energy security, human health, migration, conflict
2 tackling climate change and biodiversity loss and so on (Thomas et al., 2012)), the next step is
3 for the world to operationalize its new commitment to LDN. The 2030 deadline set by
4 political decision makers is less than 15 years away, leaving a challenging timeframe for
5 action. It will be difficult to raise such political interest again should substantial
6 implementation fail to materialize in the coming years.

7

8 One important step towards LDN has been taken by the United Nations Convention to
9 Combat Desertification (UNCCD) in decisions adopted at its twelfth Conference of the
10 Parties (COP), held in Ankara, Turkey in October 2015. Parties decided to integrate LDN into
11 the implementation process of the UNCCD, noting that: “*striving to achieve SDG target 15.3*
12 *is a strong vehicle for driving the implementation of the UNCCD*” (UNCCD 2015a, decision
13 3). At the same time, SDG target 15.3 is relevant to the other Rio Conventions: the
14 Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and the United Nations Framework Convention
15 on Climate Change (UNFCCC). LDN implementation underpins and catalyzes achievement
16 of other SDGs and their related targets (see Figure 1). For example, SDG 13 on climate
17 change is particularly relevant to the UNFCCC, while multiple relationships and feedbacks
18 between land and climate are noted in the literature (e.g. Reed and Stringer, 2016).
19 Biodiversity related targets under SDG 15 show clear links to the CBD, with biodiversity
20 supporting many of the processes that underpin the ecosystem functioning of land.
21 Developing interconnected actions that span the interests of the Rio Conventions will be vital
22 in moving towards LDN, especially at national level where cross-compliance in actions will
23 be necessary. Such interplay creates a number of challenges and opportunities, many of which
24 are well-rehearsed in the existing literature, particularly regarding the meaning of LDN and
25 what is meant by land degradation more generally.

26

27 **Insert Figure 1 here: Sustainable Development Goal target 15.3 on achieving a land**
28 **degradation-neutral world as a catalyst for achieving other SDG targets**

29 In this paper, we take the complex relations between the three Rio Conventions as our starting
30 point to identify ways forward in advancing along an LDN trajectory. Examination of LDN
31 through the tripartite lens of the Rio Conventions provides a practical, implementation-
32 oriented approach that accepts that the different Conventions have both distinct and
33 complementary objectives. Through analysis of the academic, policy and grey literature, we
34 elucidate potential challenges and opportunities for synergy between the three Rio

1 Conventions in addressing LDN. Our assessment highlights the importance of the definitions
2 and terminology used, and the relationships between those definitions, terms and the actors
3 using them, as well as their implications in framing the range of policy actions and synergies
4 that could be delivered. We then draw on important lessons from the UNCCD’s LDN pilot
5 project to develop a portfolio of blended options that can help operationalize LDN, in the
6 context of both the mandates of the three Rio Conventions and the findings from our literature
7 analysis.

8
9 Consideration of the mandates of the Rio Conventions is particularly pertinent in view of
10 paragraph 74(f) of the UN General Assembly resolution 2030 Agenda for Sustainable
11 Development, which explicitly states that SDG implementation “will build on existing
12 platforms and processes, where these exist, avoid duplication and respond to national
13 circumstances, capacities, needs and priorities” (UNGA, 2015). Synergies between the Rio
14 Conventions in general are covered in detail elsewhere in the literature (see e.g. Cowie et al.,
15 2007; Cowie et al., 2011; Chasek et al., 2011), so we focus specifically on synergies relating
16 the achievement of LDN. Overall, by presenting novel and original insight through a rigorous
17 analysis of the current state-of-the-art literature and application of the findings to the
18 UNCCD’s LDN pilot project, we provide a significant contribution to the global effort to
19 tackle land degradation and reorient activities along a trajectory towards LDN.

20

21 **2. Materials and methods**

22 Our methodological approach required identification, review and analysis of published
23 scientific peer reviewed literature, as well as grey literature (i.e. accessible information,
24 reports and briefs of institutional or governmental actors and of independent, non-
25 governmental stakeholders). Starting with searches using Google and Google Scholar to
26 identify and review recent articles published close to SDG adoption in 2015, we then refined
27 the search with temporal records of topical keywords in scientific articles. For this we used
28 search engine WorldWideScience.org (2016) and the Scopus database, allowing for simple
29 multi-temporal listings of articles and disciplines containing the keywords. Searches showed
30 that the literature began to focus much more on natural capital in the context of land
31 degradation and desertification following the Desertification Synthesis of the Millennium
32 Ecosystem Assessment (MA, 2005a). Publications rapidly increased after 2010, containing
33 ideas about Zero Net Land Degradation and the concept of LDN from 2012. Articles at this
34 time also identified a need to enhance synergies between the Rio Conventions in the context

1 of the debate and negotiation of the then proposed Sustainable Development Goals.
2 Consequently, the main timeframe considered in our analysis of peer reviewed articles and
3 grey literature was 2005-2016, with a large number of articles published from 2010 onwards,
4 given that year marked the start of the development of the post-2015 development agenda.

5
6 Noting the entry and evolution of the LDN concept in the global sustainable development
7 debate, initial ideas to define an approach to achieve Zero Net Land Degradation (ZNLD, Lal
8 et. al., 2012) followed similar terminology for configuring measures to reduce carbon dioxide
9 in the atmosphere, thereby striving to achieve carbon neutrality as an option for the use of the
10 Clean Development Mechanism (the latter established as a component of the Kyoto Protocol)
11 (UNFCCC, 2016). Emerging from ZNLD, LDN first appeared in the context of the Open
12 Working Group's preparations for the Rio+20 Conference in 2012 and its resolution to further
13 elaborate the SDGs. The dynamic process to establish and finally adopt the wording "land
14 degradation-neutral world" under SDG target 15.3 triggered specific research and discussion
15 of implementation aspects within a relatively short time period. Our literature search focusing
16 on LDN used keywords: "LDN definition", "LDN implementation", "LDN operationa*",
17 "LDN legal frameworks", "LDN multi-level" and "LDN stakeholders". Further search terms
18 included: "land degradation", "desertification", "mitigation", "natural capital", "ecosystem
19 services", "sustainable land use", "degraded land", "degrading land", "restoration" and
20 "rehabilitation". Terminology covering specific multi-sectoral and multi-level policy
21 frameworks for implementing measures to "assess" and "combat" different forms of land
22 degradation, as well as "implementation frameworks" and "methodologies" for land
23 restoration, rehabilitation, "conservation" and the implementation of "sustainable land
24 management" was also used. In searches focusing on the Rio Conventions using search terms
25 "LDN and climate", "LDN and biodiv*" "LDN and UN*", we considered the period from
26 their initiation in 1992 until 2016, though as for searches on LDN, articles from 2010 onwards
27 were found to be most relevant and numerous. Documents were reviewed with a view to
28 identify potential and actual synergies between the three Rio Conventions in the context of
29 LDN implementation.

30 We also assessed the specific role of the UNCCD and the preliminary results of its LDN pilot
31 project. The project envisaged to elaborate and test with participating countries a common
32 concept, based on the three land-based UNCCD progress indicators, which would facilitate
33 LDN target setting and reporting as new elements in the implementation of the Convention.
34 The concept included standardized reporting by participating countries to enable the

1 extraction of lessons. 13 countries had been able to implement the full target setting and
2 reporting process such that all country reports included: statement of aims and objectives;
3 description of degradation drivers; mapping of trends in land cover, land productivity and soil
4 organic carbon; elaboration of corrective measure and targets; analysis of strength,
5 weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT analysis) of National Action Programmes
6 (NAPs); description of hotspot sites; list of national coordination body members; sometimes
7 an analysis of relevant laws and regulation; and a budget outline. The analysis of these
8 country reports in this paper was qualitative in nature and mainly focused on the outcomes of
9 the SWOT analysis with a view to better understand the available national legal financial, and
10 administrative frameworks and identify typical gaps or limitations in the countries' capacities
11 required for LDN monitoring and implementation.

12

13 **3. Results**

14 This section presents the findings of our analysis. It first sets out the mandates and foci of the
15 three Rio Conventions and highlights five important considerations in relation to the only
16 currently available definition of LDN. It then highlights key lessons from the UNCCD's LDN
17 pilot project. Opportunities for synergy between the Rio Conventions relating to LDN are
18 considered in section 4.

19

20 **3.1 LDN in relation to the three Rio Conventions**

21 Each of the Rio Conventions has a different politically defined mandate, with its own
22 particular objectives (Table 1). Ways in which the mandates and objectives of the different
23 Conventions interplay shape the possibilities for the implementation of joint LDN actions. In
24 addition to the mandates and objectives presented in Table 1, the ways in which each Rio
25 Convention conceptualizes land and ecosystems is important in understanding the variety of
26 political interests in and approaches towards LDN. Land comprises a variety of ecosystems
27 which provide a range of different essential functions and services to humans. Land, including
28 soil, biodiversity and water resources, is essential for food production and the delivery of
29 other benefits or ecosystem services to support humans. Ecosystem services thus flow to
30 society through the land, which can be conceptualized as natural capital: those components of
31 the natural environment that provide benefits to people (Costanza and Daly, 1992).

32 **Insert Table 1: Politically defined mandates of the three Environmental Rio**
33 **Conventions** (Authors' emphasis)

1 The ecosystem-based approach used in the CBD (CBD 2000, decision V/6) is the primary
2 framework for its actions. The land-based approach used by the UNCCD considers that land
3 comprises a multifunctional ecological system “whose natural capital... supports human
4 *wellbeing by securing the life and livelihood of individuals and communities*” (UNCCD,
5 2015b: 7). Although the difference between these approaches is an expression of the
6 differences in foci of both agreements, both CBD and UNCCD are critical for the effective
7 implementation of the UNFCCC in terms of adaptation to climate change. Adaptation
8 provides a clear bridge between the Rio Conventions. The CBD looks for means for nature to
9 adapt to climate change; the UNCCD looks for land-based adaptation to climate change by
10 enhancing the adaptive capacity and resilience of ecosystems and human populations. Both
11 approaches are required to address UNFCCC’s approach: “As part of an adaptation strategy,
12 approaches that integrate healthy and intact ecosystems (including aquatic ones) can
13 deliver...benefits...Ecosystem-based approaches...may be more cost-effective...than measures
14 based on hard infrastructures and engineering” (UNFCCC, 2011: 4).

15 The land-based adaptation approach of the UNCCD addresses all terrestrial ecosystems that
16 are used by humans and which, in most cases, have been transformed through human
17 activities and management. UNCCD’s brand is “land”. Land-based approaches, as outlined in
18 the mandate of the UNCCD, have the potential to support not only adaptation to climate
19 change, but also mitigation.

20 While important scientific debate took place prior to LDN’s formal adoption regarding the
21 scientific definition and viability of the concept (e.g. Grainger 2015; Welton et al. 2014; Lal
22 et al. 2012; Caroli, 2012) and this touched on several core aspects, LDN to date has been
23 viewed largely through a UNCCD lens. Welton et al. (2014) and Chasek et al. (2015) observe
24 that to achieve LDN, land-based activities have to be implemented that consider ecological,
25 social, cultural and economic realities at local, national and regional scales. This gives
26 humans a role at the centre of LDN, in line with the UNCCD’s approach (Table 1).
27 Nonetheless, Reed and Stringer (2016) link efforts to tackle land degradation with those to
28 mitigate and adapt to climate change in order to achieve and maintain human wellbeing over
29 the medium and long term. Thus, it remains clear that the LDN concept has the potential to
30 provide multiple wins, both across a range of development and environmental sectors at the
31 national level and for several Multi-lateral Environmental Agreements.

32

33 Unpacking the definition of LDN

1 At the time of writing (Feb 2016), the UNCCD was leading the way as the only Convention to
2 have established a definition of LDN. The definition was provided by the UNCCD's
3 Intergovernmental Working Group (IWG), endorsed by the UNCCD's 12th Conference of the
4 Parties (UNCCD, 2015a, decision 3), and was politically as well as scientifically agreed. It
5 defines LDN as a *“state whereby the amount and quality of land resources necessary to*
6 *support ecosystem functions and services and enhance food security remain stable or increase*
7 *within specified temporal and spatial scales and ecosystems”*.

8 Several operational aspects feature in this definition, in terms of both their presence and
9 absence. First, use of the words *“amount and quality”* suggests that both qualitative and
10 quantitative measures and indicators would lend themselves to assessing progress towards
11 LDN. Second, the LDN definition uses the words *“ecosystem functions and services”*,
12 common in the CBD and UNFCCC arena, but which are rather complex expressions for
13 application by land users operating at the level of actions to prevent, reduce, and reverse
14 degradation. Whereas the term ‘ecosystem functions’ conveys a focus on the system level, the
15 term ‘ecosystem services’ highlights land-based ecosystems as production systems. This
16 anthropocentric focus is further enhanced through the mention of food security. This contrasts
17 with a focus on ecosystem processes and structures and conservation, which is generally seen
18 as the core business of the CBD.

19 Following the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA, 2005a and b), ecosystems are include
20 systems changed by humans, thereby recognizing agricultural ecosystems as key in offering
21 provisioning services. Such recognition has been reinforced in the ongoing assessments of the
22 Intergovernmental science-policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES)
23 (IPBES, 2014a), which emphasize agriculture as both a beneficiary and provider of ecosystem
24 services. Such a stance fits well with UNCCD's anthropocentric approach as well as CBD's
25 increasing focus not only on ecosystem conservation but also on the sustainable use of
26 ecosystems.

27 Third, “food security” is specifically mentioned in the UNCCD's LDN definition, again,
28 emphasizing that people are at the center of its agenda. From an ecosystem service
29 perspective, this prioritizes provisioning services. Indeed, one of the major findings of the
30 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA, 2005b) was that humans have increased the flow of
31 provisioning services at the expense of regulating and cultural services of ecosystems. Such
32 findings are supported elsewhere in the literature as well. For example, Favretto et al. (2016)

1 examined cattle production on Botswana's rangelands, finding land privatization prioritizing
2 provisioning services reduced the overall range of ecosystem services delivered from the land.
3 The major trade-off in need of consideration in relation to LDN is between provisioning and
4 regulating services. For example, water regulation provided by forests and shrublands,
5 particularly in drylands, is vital in directing rainfall to surface and sub-surface water
6 reservoirs that become irrigation water. Without this service, water would run to the ocean
7 (Safriel, 2014). If water regulating services are diminished then it ultimately impacts upon
8 provisioning services. Movement towards LDN will require the ability to forecast trade-offs
9 between ecosystem services resulting from particular interventions and decisions, and will
10 need to balance these trade-offs with restoration and rehabilitation costs and demands.

11 Fourth, the terminology at the end of the UNCCD's definition of LDN is necessarily
12 ambiguous on the question of who should define "*spatial and temporal scales*". This leaves
13 countries to formulate voluntary LDN targets according to their specific national
14 circumstances and development priorities. Attention needs to be paid to the interactions of
15 LDN efforts across different scales and the distributions of 'winners' and 'losers': who
16 benefits and who is disadvantaged by LDN activities, across different stakeholder and social
17 groups. How this should happen is not immediately clear from the definition.

18 Fifth, the UNCCD's LDN definition states that the amount and quality of land resources
19 should "*remain stable or increase*". However, in order to assess 'stable' or 'increase' a
20 baseline is required to monitor the direction of any change. Conservative estimates from 2005
21 suggested that 10-20% of global drylands are degraded with medium certainty (MA, 2005a).
22 A recent review by Caspari et al. (2015) highlights the shortcomings of currently available
23 global estimates of degraded land, noting the range of different systems and components of
24 focus, and the variety of different methods and indicators used. At the same time, global
25 information and statistics about the overall extent of the areas that are currently following a
26 degradation trajectory are available (Cherlet et. al., 2013; Le et al., 2014; Yengoh et. al.,
27 2015) but limited due to the finite number of regularly measurable parameters and the short
28 time span covered in the data archives.

29 To assess and monitor options to achieve neutrality, the adequate definition, planning and
30 monitoring of efforts to achieve LDN requires both conceptual and technical ability to
31 distinguish between already degraded but stable land and land on an active degradation
32 trajectory. This aspect is particularly important because it will shape the priorities required for

1 concrete actions. Although not mutually exclusive, priorities for concrete actions should
2 determine where focus is to be put on preventing, halting and reversing land from degradation
3 e.g. through SLM practices, and/or where more attention to intervention measures to
4 rehabilitate and/or restore already degraded land is justified. What exactly constitutes
5 degradation then becomes important, as change and degradation are sometimes treated
6 synonymously. For example, it could be argued that for millennia, natural land-based
7 ecosystems worldwide have been degraded for the purpose of food production. This suggests
8 that as land use is highly dynamic (particularly as we see increasing urbanization, soil sealing,
9 deforestation and so on), degraded land is continuously increasing, preventing the possibility
10 of ever achieving a 'stable state'. LDN therefore cannot be achieved without responding to
11 degradation with counter-measures, which have or will have a cost implication, because
12 operationalization of LDN implies that the rate of restoration and rehabilitation measures
13 equal the rate of degradation (in temporal and spatial dimensions). The essence of LDN is
14 thus the need to ensure that the rate of land restoration and rehabilitation and sustainable land
15 management should at least match and ideally exceed the rate of ongoing degradation of land
16 under degrading use. In this way the amount of productive land remains stable or even
17 increases within the domain of focus. However, rehabilitating the productivity of degraded
18 rangeland for example, cannot offset ongoing degradation for instance of a cereal cropland.
19 This is because the quantity and productivity of rangelands differ from those of croplands.
20 This suggests that "Some provision for balancing land degradation within (rather than
21 across) ecosystem types is therefore essential" (UNCCD, 2015c: 13).

22 The UNCCD defines SLM as "The use of land resources, including soils, water, animals and
23 plants, for the production of goods to meet changing human needs, while simultaneously
24 ensuring the long-term productive potential of these resources and the maintenance of their
25 *environmental functions*" (UNCCD, 2016a: 32). The CBD defines sustainable use as "The
26 use of components of biological diversity in a way and at a rate that does not lead to the long-
27 term decline of biological diversity, thereby maintaining its potential to meet the needs and
28 *aspirations of present and future generations*" (CBD, 2008: 292). This suggests that CBD
29 puts more emphasis on the value of biodiversity and biodiversity conservation (in most cases,
30 nature conservation), while UNCCD's core interest is in preventing land from being degraded
31 to ensure the use of land in order to harness benefits (e.g. food and water) for people.

32 Evidence suggests that prevention of degradation is most cost effective over the medium to
33 long term (ELD Initiative, 2015) and likely more appealing to developing countries whose

1 populations are severely affected by land degradation. However, due to extensive land
2 degradation, achievement of LDN is impossible in the absence of a portfolio of place-based
3 rehabilitation and restoration measures that are appropriate to context.

4 The terms “restoration” and “rehabilitation” are often used interchangeably and distinguishing
5 between them is a longstanding challenge. However, there are no formally adopted definitions
6 for rehabilitation or restoration within the UNCCD. Working definitions have been included
7 in the UNCCD’s glossary for reporting, which sees land rehabilitation as a process that puts
8 the “*landscape to a new or altered use to serve a particular human purpose*”. The same
9 glossary sees restoration as a process aiming to “*return an ecosystem to a former natural*
10 *condition*” (UNCCD, 2016a: 10). However, it is unclear which former state should be used as
11 a reference point for restoration, and who should be involved in deciding. These questions are
12 especially important in many regions suffering from land degradation that are characterized
13 by old cultural landscapes in use for millennia. In order to maintain a restored state, this
14 could, in certain contexts, imply exclusion of human activities such as food production from
15 some areas, and could be said to be at odds with the UNCCD’s anthropocentric approach that
16 appreciates current and future productive land use systems.

17 The CBD formally defines restoration as the “return of an ecosystem or habitat to its original
18 community structure, natural complement of species, and natural functions” and rehabilitation
19 as the “recovery of specific ecosystem services in a degraded ecosystem or habitat” (CBD,
20 2008: 291). Use of the term “habitat” in both definitions used by the CBD already underlines
21 the different foci of the CBD and the UNCCD. As we argue below, the UNCCD tends to
22 emphasize rehabilitation, while the CBD tends towards restoration, although scientists have
23 been calling for a review of the concept of restoration, to focus on rehabilitation of ecosystem
24 functions (Choi, 2007). The work of the IPBES which is undertaking a Thematic Assessment
25 on Land Degradation and Restoration (IPBES, 2014b) also tends towards restoration as the
26 title of its assessment implies. SDG 15 uses the word “restore” only. The Intergovernmental
27 Working Group on LDN of the UNCCD considers the need for SLM, rehabilitation and
28 restoration (UNCCD, 2015d).

29 Rehabilitation and restoration require different stakeholders, decisions and approaches. It
30 should therefore be clear within LDN political processes what LDN is striving for because
31 each of these terms demands different types of interventions, supported by different funding
32 approaches and partnerships.

1 Binding resources and excluding certain human activities will need careful consideration
2 when implementing LDN, especially if restoration concerns land comprising several
3 ecosystems (Society for Ecological International Science & Policy Working Group, 2004).
4 This is because multiple stakeholders would need to be considered, and restoration of
5 different ecosystems may require different approaches and timescales (e.g. installation of
6 measures for specialized species). Implementation of any long-term restoration measures will
7 have to show clear benefits/incentives for local populations in order to ensure their
8 acceptability. On radically disturbed sites it is not practical to aim for the restoration of
9 historical ecosystems.

10 Rehabilitation measures aim to repair damaged or blocked ecosystem functions, processes,
11 and services, with the primary goal of raising ecosystem productivity for the benefit of people
12 (Aronson et al. 1993; Society for Ecological International Science & Policy Working Group,
13 2004) (see Table 2 for illustrative and referenced examples of rehabilitation measures that do
14 not preclude further use of land over a long time period, and which demonstrate the
15 complexity and overlaps of components that come under the LDN umbrella). Rehabilitation
16 thus seems to align to the UNCCD's definition of LDN if it is followed by SLM practices of
17 sufficient magnitude to counterbalance ongoing degradation. Rehabilitation measures are
18 usually designed to achieve results as rapidly as possible, but the type of rehabilitation
19 intervention and its temporal span will vary between locations depending on the types and
20 severity of degradation and the dominant land use/livelihood system. The illustrative
21 examples of rehabilitation in Table 2 show the diversity and the extent to which resources are
22 bound through active intervention measures to combat land degradation, thus, reinforcing
23 preventive SLM as a key action in implementing and maintaining LDN. Essentially,
24 rehabilitated landscapes will always require some intervention, ideally minimizing resource
25 requirements while optimizing ecosystem services (Doley and Audet, 2013). The first step
26 towards action therefore involves careful analysis of the biophysical environment and socio-
27 economic aspects, followed by identification and consideration of possible interventions (e.g.
28 analysis of legal, economic, social and political enablers), and the progressive development of
29 a manageable final landscape.

30 **Insert Table 2: Illustrative rehabilitation measures to reverse degraded or degrading**
31 **land**

32 The five challenges identified in this section relating to the definition of LDN and its links to
33 the different mandates of the three Rio Conventions provide an important backdrop for the

1 next part of our analysis, as they impact upon the possible synergies and interactions that can
2 be harnessed between the Rio Conventions during operationalization of the LDN concept.

3 **3.2 Putting LDN into operation: lessons from the UNCCD and opportunities for synergy** 4 **between the Rio Conventions**

5 The previous section focused on definitions, considering how words and actions are being
6 defined and used in the quest for LDN. However, as noted by Chasek et al. (2015), putting
7 LDN into operation needs to occur across scales from the local to the international, and it is
8 the aggregation of efforts that determines progress along an LDN trajectory; this includes the
9 aggregation of efforts between the Rio Conventions. In this section we first present key
10 lessons from an LDN pilot project spearheaded by the UNCCD secretariat at the national
11 level. Based on these findings, in section 4 we explore entry points for the Rio Conventions to
12 work together to advance their goals and the LDN concept.

13 LDN: from pilot to scale under the UNCCD

14 In 2015, the UNCCD secretariat facilitated a pilot project to support a sample of countries to
15 translate the LDN goal into national voluntary targets. The project sought to demonstrate how
16 LDN can be applied in practice and helped create political momentum for its official
17 adoption. The pilot project's approach for setting LDN targets was anchored in the UNCCD's
18 implementation framework and established monitoring and assessment mechanism. Indicators
19 adopted by the COP in 2013 (UNCCD 2013a, decision 22) were used to identify negative
20 trends indicating signs and risks of land degradation (see below), while countries' NAPs were
21 reviewed to ascertain if their legal, financial, scientific and administrative frameworks, and
22 land management options, would be appropriate to stop and/or reverse the identified negative
23 trends.

24 The main challenge faced by the pilot project was one of monitoring. As suggested by the
25 LDN definition, a blend of qualitative and quantitative measures and indicators is required,
26 alongside means of assessing the status of land degradation (i.e. distinguishing between
27 already degraded land, and land on a degradation trajectory) at different spatial and temporal
28 scales. In light of climate change impacts, monitoring land degradation and LDN also requires
29 differentiation between human- and climate-induced degradation so that the key drivers
30 responsible for particular impacts can be identified and addressed. This differentiation would
31 ensure that any efforts are not just addressing the impacts themselves but the drivers of those

1 impacts, thereby also providing a basis to analyse the interaction between both processes
2 (UNCCD, 2015c).

3 The UNCCD monitoring and assessment framework offers a flexible approach to monitoring
4 and reporting. It merges top-down and bottom-up approaches and datasets, is open to both
5 quantitative and qualitative information, draws on existing data, and emphasizes stakeholder
6 participation (UNCCD, 2013a and b). It is centered on six global indicators, but recognizes
7 that their assessment needs to take place within the context of broader monitoring and
8 accountability strategies and be complemented by indicators relevant to specific national
9 contexts. Out of the six global indicators, three land-based indicators (land cover, land
10 productivity and carbon stocks above and below ground) were used by the pilot project to
11 understand the status of land degradation and the potential for measures to halt and reverse
12 land degradation (including SLM and other actions for land rehabilitation and restoration).

13 Land productivity, disaggregated by land use/cover, responds to the focus on provisioning
14 ecosystem services embedded in the LDN definition. Temporal and spatial land productivity
15 dynamics were derived from remotely sensed data, particularly time series of Normalized
16 Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), as these data are highly correlated with vegetation
17 characteristics such as photosynthetic capacity and primary production (Yengoh et al., 2015;
18 Ivits et al., 2013). For the indicator on carbon stocks (where the above-ground component can
19 be assessed using NDVI as well), soil organic carbon (SOC) was used as a metric that
20 focused on just one of five carbon pools in order to indicate overall soil quality. It has been
21 further suggested that the indicator on carbon stocks can help quantify the benefits of
22 achieving LDN in terms of climate change mitigation (UNCCD, 2015e; UNCCD 2015f). The
23 UNCCD monitoring and assessment framework and its indicators suggest a generically
24 applicable and pragmatic approach to establishing a baseline and tracking progress towards
25 LDN targets, which would broadly support the objectives of the CBD and the UNFCCC (see
26 section 3.1). However, the three land-based indicators do not fully capture the complexity of
27 land degradation processes and will need to be supplemented with national or sub-national
28 indicators, data and assessments to more fully account for national circumstances and contexts
29 (UNCCD 2016b). Moreover, the indicators in the UNCCD LDN pilot project do not
30 necessarily enable a clear distinction to be made between land that is degrading and land
31 which is already degraded and holds potential for restoration or rehabilitation.

32 Building on the LDN pilot project, in late 2015 the UNCCD COP decided to officially invite
33 Parties to “formulate voluntary targets to achieve LDN [and] explore options on how to

1 integrate the voluntary LDN targets in their NAPs” (UNCCD 2015a, decision 3). In response
2 to this decision the UNCCD’s Global Mechanism established the LDN Target Setting
3 Programme (TSP) which will support interested countries in establishing LDN targets and
4 identifying measures to achieve LDN. In scaling up the LDN target setting exercise the TSP
5 can build on the experience gained from the pilot project, providing an opportunity to address
6 the identified challenges.

7 One important lesson from the pilot project is that more comprehensive technical guidance is
8 needed to support interested countries in implementing LDN. To obtain this first requires
9 clarity in the concept of LDN itself. As noted in section 3.1, uncertainties remain as to what
10 neutrality means in the context of land degradation. Another key question refers to the
11 appropriate scale for LDN interventions and to what extent national LDN targets can be
12 broken down to smaller scales of action, whether through UNCCD-led efforts, initiatives
13 spearheaded by the other Rio Conventions or by countries themselves, who would decide and
14 implement the actions at appropriate scales according to national priorities. These and other
15 key questions will be addressed by the UNCCD Science-Policy Interface (SPI) which is
16 developing a conceptual framework on LDN to provide a scientifically-sound basis for
17 understanding LDN, and to inform the development of practical guidance for implementing
18 and monitoring progress towards achieving the LDN target (UNCCD 2016c).

19 Additional technical guidance is necessary also with regard to the indicators (e.g. relating to
20 frequency of measurement, resources required etc.) and respective requirements for data
21 processing and interpretation. This needs to consider the availability, accessibility and
22 reliability of data and information- these are crucial for operational monitoring in support of
23 policy formulation, implementation and evaluation. Technical guidance documents on the
24 respective LDN indicators need to include details such as:

25 The rationale and precise definition of each indicator, including references to statistical and
26 other standards and classifications, relying on international agreed definitions; the method of
27 computation, including mathematical formulae and descriptive information on computations
28 made on the source data to produce the indicator; a description of existing and recommended
29 sources of data (both remote and in situ) for addressing different scales, including the methods
30 used for data acquisition and processing; and examples and guidance on each indicator’s
31 correct implementation in terms of frequency of derivation and interpretation, also placing it
32 in context with additional indicators and at different scales.

1 A combination of bottom-up and top-down approaches is needed to fill data gaps at national
2 level. In order to ensure longevity and thus success of any measures for attaining LDN, there
3 is a need to strengthen the capacity of national statistical offices and data systems to ensure
4 access to high-quality, timely, reliable and disaggregated data. It is also essential to promote
5 coordinated actions of global, regional and national Earth observation data providers. This
6 will allow exploitation of a wide range of data sources, including remote sensing, field
7 observatories and national statistical records, in order to map and monitor degrading and
8 degraded lands, and the effects of measures implemented to achieve LDN.

9 The aim of the LDN pilot project was to test and demonstrate the operationalization of LDN
10 within the UNCCD framework. While potential synergies with the objectives of the other Rio
11 Conventions were not the focus, several countries participating in the LDN pilot project used
12 the opportunity to identify linkages between their tentative LDN targets and their climate and
13 biodiversity policies.

14 As mentioned, the indicator on carbon stocks allows countries to directly link LDN activities
15 with climate change mitigation targets. For instance, the pilot country Belarus directly
16 integrated its LDN target on increasing the area of restored peat lands into its Intended
17 Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) under the UNFCCC (Republic of Belarus,
18 2015). Ethiopia made LDN a key tenet of national climate change action plans (UNCCD,
19 2015g) while Italy's approach to setting LDN targets successfully used IPCC methodologies
20 to model stock changes in SOC based on land use/cover change (UNCCD 2015h). As regards
21 synergies with the objectives of the CBD, all 14 pilot countries included LDN targets relating
22 to forest and wetland conservation. In some countries progress, towards LDN targets is thus
23 also likely to contribute to the target of increasing the number of habitats of rare and
24 endangered species (UNCCD 2015h).

25 With regard to institutional aspects, pilot countries expressed the need for national LDN
26 working groups which may include different public and private sector agencies as well as the
27 National Focal Points from the Rio Conventions. For instance in Grenada, the pilot project
28 reinforced an existing intention to move towards a single National Coordinating Body for all
29 Rio Conventions (UNCCD 2015g).

30 Another key aspect in scaling-out and scaling-up LDN target-setting and implementation
31 involves financing and resourcing. Addressing SDG target 15.3 will require extensive
32 mobilization of additional financial resources but also in-kind resources at the country level.

1 Next to established funding sources such as the Global Environmental Facility (GEF), LDN
2 activities are likely to become eligible under the Green Climate Fund and other climate
3 financing mechanisms in view of their significant benefits for climate change adaptation and
4 mitigation. Furthermore, the Global Mechanism is in the process of establishing a LDN Fund
5 aiming at attracting blended financial assistance (UNCCD 2015a, decision 3).

6 **4. Discussion: Enhancing synergy through efforts to implement actions that support** 7 **LDN**

8 Building on the lessons learned from the UNCCD pilot project and synthesizing these with
9 the five definition-based challenges identified from our analysis in Section 3.1, Figure 2
10 illustrates key potential complementarities and entry points for the development of synergies
11 in UNCCD, CBD and UNFCCC actions, to advance towards LDN.

12 **Insert Figure 2: Key complementarities and entry points for the development of**
13 **synergistic actions between UNCCD, CBD and UNFCCC. Note: EI: Expected Impact;**
14 **DLDD: desertification, land degradation and drought; SLM: sustainable land management; DLD:**
15 **desertification/land degradation; NAP: National Action Programme; NBSAP: National Biodiversity**
16 **Strategies and Action Plans; NAPA: National Adaptation Programmes of Action; REDD+: Reducing**
17 **Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries.**

18 Two key entry points for potential synergy are observed: 1) on-the-ground operationalization
19 actions and instruments that promote rehabilitation and/or restoration of degraded
20 lands/ecosystems and advance Conventions' goals, and 2) synergy of processes. While several
21 opportunities exist, it is important that the definition based challenges identified in section 3.1
22 are also addressed.

23 For example, Figure 2 includes CBD's Aichi Biodiversity targets 5, 7, 14 and 15, which are
24 crucially important milestones on the way to LDN. Target 15 intends that by "2020,
25 ecosystem resilience and the contribution of biodiversity to carbon stocks has been enhanced,
26 through conservation and restoration, including restoration of at least 15 per cent of
27 degraded ecosystems, thereby contributing to climate change mitigation and adaptation and
28 to combating desertification." (CBD, 2010:9). The CBD nevertheless fails to mention specific
29 ecosystems it addresses with its target 15. This target also does not mention "rehabilitation",
30 and could restrict the CBD solely to participate in joint restoration measures with UNCCD,
31 thus providing little scope for synergistic action. Conversely, the UNFCCC mentions
32 "rehabilitation" (UNFCCC, 1992, Article 4e). The UNFCCC further advocates for
33 cooperation in research, training, information compilation and sharing on nationally

1 appropriate mitigation actions to be implemented by developing country Parties, thereby
2 considering both restoration and rehabilitation (UNFCCC, 2013). This indicates that the
3 UNFCCC consciously differentiates between restoration and rehabilitation, offering
4 opportunities to pursue joint activities with the UNCCD (rehabilitation) or the CBD
5 (restoration; see previous section).

6 The impacts of climate change, such as changing precipitation patterns and increased
7 instances of severe weather events (including drought) will impact biodiversity and
8 ecosystems and thus also affect long-term trends in land productivity and its resilience.
9 Regarding discussions on climate change adaptation and mitigation, the CBD may face
10 challenges with its restoration focus. “Restoration” or “conservation” are difficult under
11 climate change conditions because as noted earlier, it is unclear to what state
12 biodiversity/ecosystems should be restored, and how durable the implemented measures
13 might be under future climates. In many areas it may be unrealistic/illogical to try to restore
14 biodiversity or other ecosystem functions that land provides to an original condition, or to
15 invest substantially and then try to maintain a status quo (“conservation”) if a region is
16 exposed to climate change (see also Welton et al., 2014).

17 At the national level, research and forestry departments are already promoting the concept of
18 climate-smart reforestation which considers climate change mitigation and adaptation, while
19 in some locations climate analogue approaches are pairing sites so that the projected future
20 climate in one location may learn lessons from the current climate experienced in another
21 location (Locatelli et al., 2015; Ramírez-Villegas et al., 2011). Developing synergies between
22 the three Rio Conventions in moving towards LDN may therefore pragmatically tend to lean
23 more towards rehabilitation and not restoration, as restoration measures cannot durably
24 enhance ecosystem resilience due to climate change.

25 The UNFCCC and the CBD have their own sets of existing proposals, agreed measures and
26 targets to address climate change through mitigation and adaptation efforts and conserving
27 and sustainably using biodiversity. Different regions and countries have their own sets of
28 policies and actions to implement these at the national and local levels (see for instance
29 UNCCD’s NAPs (UNCCD, 1994, Article 10) or UNFCCC’s proposals for nationally
30 appropriate mitigation actions (NAMAs) (UNFCCC, 2013)). Rehabilitation, restoration and
31 SLM measures will have to be integrated (as appropriate) with these existing national policies
32 and prioritized actions, which emerge from Parties’ strategies to implement these multi-lateral
33 environmental agreements. In theory, this presents a useful opportunity to: a) support the

1 consideration of measures to attain LDN in existing financial frameworks, b) strengthen
2 cross-sectoral support for the measures, c) strengthen engagement with existing national,
3 regional and international organizations, centers and networks in relevant fields such as
4 ecology, agriculture and food security, socio-economics, infrastructure, and d) implement no
5 regret actions with potential benefits for the goals of the UNCCD, CBD and the UNFCCC.

6 Synergies between the three Rio Conventions on rehabilitation and restoration measures could
7 also be strengthened by first conducting a systematic assessment such as with the Resilience,
8 Adaptation and Transformation Assessment (RAPTA) (O’Connell et al., 2015) or similar
9 tools.

10 The engagement of a broad range of stakeholders will be key to the success of any nationally
11 driven rehabilitation, restoration and SLM measures and will be vital in operationalizing LDN
12 “within specified temporal and spatial scales and ecosystems”. Table 3 summarizes and
13 blends relevant priority actions that together address the foci of the three Rio Conventions.
14 These actions would support synergies for timely operationalization of LDN measures, while
15 supporting mitigation and adaptation to climate change and helping to conserve and
16 sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystem services to sustain human well-being.

17 **Insert Table 3: Portfolio of options for achieving LDN blending relevant priority actions**
18 **of the three Rio Conventions.**

19 Measures outlined in Table 3 comprise several small initiatives. They are not costly and could
20 complement each other or be ordered in a timely step-wise sequence according to national
21 socio-economic priorities and realities to move towards LDN. If, for example, cultivated land
22 is to be addressed, then initiatives would target maintaining or enhancing the persistent level
23 of net primary production, and could be assessed using its measurable proxy (vegetation
24 indices such as the NDVI). This enables countries to better accommodate LDN efforts in
25 their national agenda setting, in ongoing activities and accounting. Measures also have the
26 strength of being easily adapted to local and national social, cultural and economic realities,
27 thereby creating synergies in action for the implementation of all three Rio Conventions at
28 national and local levels. Table 3 includes both rehabilitation and restoration measures, as
29 some rehabilitation measures can also support the initialization of restoration, which would
30 enable countries, if required, to carry on with a more “*holistic process not achieved through*
31 *the isolated manipulation of individual elements*”, which would lead “*as closely as possible*
32 *to pre-disturbance conditions and functions*” of degrading or degraded ecosystems (UNCCD,
33 2016a: 10).

1 **5. Conclusion**

2 Operationalizing LDN necessitates unpacking the concept and associated terms, as well as
3 analyzing the mandates of UNCCD, UNFCCC and CBD in order that synergies in action may
4 be developed at both national and international levels. Our analyses show that incompleteness
5 in the definition of LDN is academically challenging due to its inherent ambiguity. However,
6 its vagueness can provide flexibility in identifying practical opportunities: the definition
7 leaves space for negotiation and compromise at national level to operationalize this voluntary
8 target at spatial and temporal scales that are relevant to meet countries' needs and aspirations.
9 Notwithstanding the ambiguity, the UNCCD definition of LDN remains anthropocentrically
10 focused by including the aim to stabilize or increase food security by enhancing the provision
11 of land's ecosystem services and thus enhancing human livelihoods.

12 UNCCD's land-based approach offers an appropriate anchor for blending relevant priority
13 actions under the three Rio Conventions, especially given the links between land and
14 biodiversity, and land and climate change (including the bridging role of adaptation across the
15 three Conventions). Harnessing possible synergies in actions could lead to a pragmatic,
16 integrated framework of complementary, rehabilitation, restoration and SLM measures to
17 achieve LDN, as suggested in the portfolio of options presented in Table 3. It could also
18 stimulate actions at the national level that enhance human wellbeing. Developing such
19 synergy will be vital in the post-2015 development context as countries seek both policy
20 alignment and cost-effective action.

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