1	A Proposal for Simplifying and Increasing the Value of Local to Global Land
2	Degradation Monitoring
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21 Impact Statement

22 The alternative land degradation monitoring framework presented in this paper

addresses four limitations of the current approach used to report on land degradation

neutrality. The current approach relies on indicators of land cover, primary productivity
 (NPP) and soil carbon stocks. First, these indicators often do not reflect local

26 understanding of land degradation and recovery. Second, global land cover categories

- are too broad. Third, land degradation and recovery *within* land cover types is often
- 28 uncorrelated, or even negatively correlated, with NPP indicators. Perhaps the most
- 29 widely cited example is woody species invasion of grasslands, which often results in an
- 30 improvement in NPP indicators (including satellite-based "greening"), but is associated
- 31 with degradation in many ecosystems, including much of southern and eastern Africa.
- 32 Other examples include the replacement of heavily fertilized and often irrigated annual
- monocultures with more diverse polyculture farming systems, including perennials.
 Another concern is the difficulty of calculating the indicators. The framework proposed
- 35 here allows for the definition of degradation hierarchies based on "states", which can be
- 36 as broad or as narrow as required for the monitoring objective. Unique land
- 37 classifications can be developed for different countries and even different landscapes
- allowing, for example, perennial cropland to be ranked above a highly degraded
- 39 shrubland. The proposed framework will allow for more accurate reporting at national

40 scales, and more useful information at the local levels at which land degradation is

- 41 addressed through improved management and restoration.
- 42

43 Abstract

44 Land degradation is reducing biodiversity and crop yields, and exacerbating the impacts 45 of climate change, throughout the world. Monitoring land degradation is required to 46 determine the effectiveness of land management and restoration practices, to target 47 investments where they are most needed, and will have the greatest impact, and to 48 track progress towards reaching land degradation neutrality (LDN). The most useful 49 indicators of land degradation vary among soils and climates. The United Nations 50 Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) selected three widely accepted land 51 degradation indicators for LDN: land cover, net primary production (NPP) and soil 52 carbon stocks. In addition to non-universal relevance, use of these indicators has been 53 limited by data availability, especially for carbon. This paper presents an alternative monitoring framework based on the definition and ranking of states on a degradation 54 55 hierarchy. Unique classifications can be defined for different regions and even different landscapes allowing, for example, perennial cropland to be ranked above a highly 56 57 degraded grassland. The article concludes with an invitation to discuss the potential 58 value of this approach and how it could be practically implemented at landscape to 59 global scales. The ultimate objective is to support decision-making information at the local levels at which land degradation is addressed through improved management and 60 61 restoration while providing the information necessary for reporting on progress towards 62 meeting goals.

65 Introduction

66

67 Land degradation is widely recognized as a global challenge negatively affecting both

- 68 individual livelihoods and global food security. It is also severely limiting our ability to
- adapt to climate change (Webb et al., 2017). Soil erosion compromises air and water
- 70 quality and releases stored soil organic carbon (SOC) to the atmosphere. Declines in
- soil water infiltration and storage capacity associated with degraded soil structure and
 the exposure of clay-rich soil at the surface reduce rainfall use efficiency (or the ratio of
- 72 annual primary production to annual rainfall). Soil temperature increases are
- 74 exacerbated by the loss of protective vegetation and plant litter cover.
- 75
- 76 The objective of this paper is to define an approach to land degradation monitoring that
- accurately reflects changes in the land for reporting progress to the United Nations
- 78 Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD). The proposed approach increases the
- 79 value of reporting by generating information that can also be used to guide the
- 80 development and prioritization of programs designed to avoid, reduce and reverse land
- 81 degradation. Furthermore, it explicitly addresses a recent decision by the UNCCD 16th
- 82 Conference of the Parties to, "more effectively reflect changes in the health of
- agricultural lands and soils" (UNCCD, 2024a).
- 84

85 The approach is conceptually based on the way in which "state and transition models"

- are currently used to inform management of rangelands (Bestelmeyer et al., 2017).
- 87 State and transition models are simple tools that allow practitioners to easily document
- the soil and vegetation indicators associated with different types of degradation on
- different types of land, and to share their understanding of the drivers of transitions
- among states, the extent to which these transitions are possible or likely, and the
- 91 methods and costs of reversing undesired transitions (i.e. degradation). Furthermore,
- 92 several countries are already developing these models (e.g., Barrio et al., 2018; Altesor
- 93 et al., 2019; Sato and Lindenmayer, 2021; Han et al., 2022; Dashbal et al., 2023;
- Hernández-Valdez et al., 2023) Tools necessary to organize and store this information
 are already available (Bestelmeyer et al., 2021).
- 96
- 97

98 Land degradation neutrality

The Parties (countries) to the UNCCD identified land degradation neutrality (LDN) as a 99 100 goal that could help focus attention on solutions to land degradation, rather than simply 101 documenting the problem. LDN is defined as "a state whereby the amount and quality of 102 land resources necessary to support ecosystem functions and services and enhance 103 food security remain stable or increase within specified temporal and spatial scales and 104 ecosystems" (Orr et al., 2017). LDN was subsequently adopted by the United Nations 105 as Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 15.3. To support countries in their pursuit of 106 LDN, the UNCCD's Science-Policy Interface developed the LDN Conceptual 107 Framework (Orr et al., 2017; Cowie et al., 2018). The Framework prioritizes actions to 108 avoid, reduce and recover degraded land based on the relative return on investment 109 (avoid > reduce > recover). A number of recent publications have subsequently provided 110 conceptual frameworks on how to translate indicators of land degradation neutrality into

111 action, taking into account local knowledge and social and environmental contexts (e.g.,

- 112 Kust et al., 2017; Crossland et al., 2018; Chasek et al., 2019).
- 113

114 LDN is now included in national reporting to the Convention. There are three indicators

- 115 used to determine whether land has been recovered or restored, degraded or has
- 116 remained unchanged: land cover, net primary production (NPP) and soil carbon stocks.
- 117 Default data are provided to every country based on standard analyses. Parties have 118 the option to accept the default data, substitute their own data, or not report.
- 119
- 120 The default dataset is generated using the Trends.Earth platform based on a set of rules 121 (Conservation International, 2022) that ensure that the indicators are generated
- 122 consistently. These rules are also reflected in the "Good Practice Guidance" (Sims et al.,
- 123 2021) for Parties that wish to generate their own indicators. Land cover is evaluated
- 124 using a default transition matrix (Figure 1), which can be modified based on local
- 125 conditions. NPP is determined using satellite imagery. SoilGrids is used to estimate
- baseline soil carbon stocks, and positive or negative changes in soil carbon are
- determined using the land cover matrix, which means that the soil carbon indicator
- 128 mirrors land cover.
- 129
- 130 [INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]
- 131

A "one out, all out" rule is applied, meaning that land is considered to have degradedduring the reporting period if any one of the indicators reflects degraded conditions. For

- example, if land cover (and therefore SOC) is unchanged, but NPP has declined, the
- 135 land would be considered to have become degraded. Achieving LDN would require that
- another similar area of land must show improvement or recovery during the reporting
- period, such as an area where NPP increased or was unchanged, and land coverchanged from an artificial surface, such as asphalt, to grassland (Figure 1).
- 139

During the first reporting period, 115 countries reported on the proportion of land that is
degraded over total land area, with the majority also reporting on all three sub-indicators
(UNCCD, 2023). Thirty-five to fifty percent of the countries accepted the default data
depending on the indicator and the remainder generated their own indicator values
(ibid). Based on these data, land degradation was estimated to have increased from

- 145 14.7% in the baseline period to 18.9% between 2015 and 2019 (ibid).
- 146

147 Challenges and limitations of the current reporting system

- 148 A number of challenges and limitations have been identified for the current reporting
- 149 system, including through the UNCCD's recent Mid-Term Evaluation (UNCCD, 2024b).
- 150 The first three concerns are related. First, parties indicated that the reporting often did
- 151 not accurately reflect local understanding of land degradation and recovery, particularly
- 152 when the default data were used. These concerns ranged from differences in
- 153 interpretation of the land cover classes, to soil degradation and recovery that were not
- reflected in any of the indicators. Second, land cover categories are too broad. Lumping
- all croplands into one category was of sufficient concern that it was explicitly addressed
- in a UNCCD negotiated decision (UNCCD, 2024a). Third, land degradation and

- 157 recovery *within* land cover types is often uncorrelated, or even negatively correlated,
- 158 with NPP indicators.
- 159

160 Perhaps the most widely cited example is woody species invasion of grasslands, which

161 often results in an improvement in NPP indicators (including satellite-based "greening"),

- but is associated with degradation in many ecosystems, including much of southern and
- 163 eastern Africa (Li et al., 2020; Morford et al., 2021). Other examples include the
- replacement of annual monocultures with more diverse polyculture farming systems, including perennials. Another concern is the difficulty of calculating the indicators. Many
- 166 Parties that did not report, indicated that they were neither satisfied with the default
- 167 indicators, nor did they have the technical capacity, budget, or both, necessary to
- 168 generate their own indicators.
- 169
- 170 Together these challenges and limitations contributed to the relatively low rate of 115 of
- 171 197 Parties to the Convention reporting on land degradation neutrality. Perhaps even
- more significantly, many of those that did report indicated that while the data were
- 173 useful at the national level, they could not be used to make local decisions about how to
- 174 prioritize land for land degradation avoidance, reduction or recovery.
- 175

176 Five criteria for an alternative monitoring system

- 177 Our objective is to define an approach to land degradation monitoring that addresses 178 the limitations of the current system and meets five specific criteria. First, it should be **as**
- 178 the limitations of the current system and meets live specific chiena. First, it should be as 179 compatible as possible with the current system. Second, it should allow Parties to
- 180 more accurately and usefully define when land has become degraded or restored
- 181 *relative to the criteria established by the users*. Third, it should be *applicable at any*
- 182 scale. Fourth and fifth, it should be *intuitive and simple*, allowing it to be implemented
- 183 by virtually any land manager, consultant or policymaker with basic geospatial and land
- 184 evaluation skills.
- 185
- 186 The system proposed here is based on the concept of an ecological "state" (Suding et 187 al., 2004, Bestelmeyer et al., 2015; Maestre et al., 2016). While there are several 188 definitions of alternative states in ecological science (e.g. Petraitis, 2013), for purposes 189 of land degradation monitoring we recommend that a state be defined based on any 190 one or more criteria that reflect the status of the land relative to its inherent potential 191 (see Bestelmeyer et al., 2017). Potential plant productivity is defined as a function of 192 soil, topography and climate (UNEP, 2016). Potential with respect to non-vegetation 193 indicators, such as soil carbon, is based on predicted or observed values associated 194 with undegraded plant communities for the particular combination of inherent or 195 relatively static soil, topographic and climate properties. These criteria can meet any, or 196 all, of the three current LDN indicators (land cover, NPP and SOC), as well as others 197 such as species composition, diversity and modeled or measured soil erosion rates. 198 Land degradation, recovery, or avoided degradation is then identified as transitions 199 between alternative land states. 200
- Different indicators can be applied at different scales. Ideally these indicators should be hierarchical up to the coarsest reporting scale (e.g. nation). For example, for a

203 hypothetical and relatively homogenous country at the national scale, a simple land 204 cover classification could be used, such as assigning grassland to the undegraded 205 state, and defining all shrublands and farmlands to be equally degraded. At the 206 landscape scale, multiple grassland states could be defined, and a shrub-invaded 207 grassland state could be identified, focusing attention on those lands that are 208 approaching a degradation threshold, where a restoration treatment or even a simple 209 change in management could return them to the undegraded state (Figure 2a, b). We 210 note that caution is required when classifying land cover in terms of vegetation types, 211 such as grassland or shrubland, that do not have clear definitions because the terms 212 often have quite different meanings for different people. 213 214 Similarly, multiple cropland states could be defined, reflecting the fact that well-215 managed cropland may be healthier than a degraded grassland in a particular 216 ecosystem (Figure 2b). Benchmarks, defined as indicator values or ranges of values for 217 states, can then be established to enable objective and actionable assessment of risks, 218 degradation status and management success (Webb et al., 2024). 219 220 However, hierarchical fidelity is not absolutely required by the system, provided that the 221 states and assignment of changes in state (state transitions) to one of the three 222 categories (degrade, no change, recover) is not modified between the beginning and 223 end of the reporting period. There are two major advantages of this approach. The first 224 is that it allows the same state transition to be assigned to different categories in different landscapes or regions, or even different soils within the same region. For 225 226 example, in the Great Basin of the United States, shrubs are key components of 227 undegraded plant communities on most soils, while in much of the Chihuahuan Desert, 228 replacement of grasslands by shrublands is associated with degradation due to 229 increased soil erosion and reduced forage availability. And yet even within the 230 Chihuahuan Desert, there are soils that cannot support perennial grasslands. On these

soils shrub-dominated plant communities are generally viewed as an undegraded state
 despite the fact that grasslands are typically more highly valued in the region.

- 233
- 234 [INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]
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236 Mongolia: a simple example that works

237 While the basic principles underlying the approach described here are well established 238 and applied through state and transition models (Bestelmeyer et al. 2017), there are 239 relatively few examples of where it has been applied to monitoring beyond the project 240 level. Mongolia has implemented a relatively simple national rangeland monitoring 241 system based on the principles described above. For each major region, a unique set of 242 five classes of states has been defined, incorporating local knowledge. The states are 243 ranked from undegraded to degraded, specifying the actions needed and timelines for 244 recovery, and standardized vegetation monitoring data are used to assign each location 245 to one of the classes (Dashbal et al., 2023). The data are so easy to understand that 246 they are frequently referenced by the Mongolian Parliament and news media, and can 247 be easily communicated to pastoralists (Figure 3). 248

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Does the system meet the five criteria for an alternative monitoring system?

- 252 1. As compatible as possible with the current system: it depends. The extent 253 to which the system is compatible with the current system will depend on how it 254 is applied in each country. The fact that the land cover and SOC indicators are 255 essentially redundant under the current default reporting system simplifies the 256 problem for those countries that wish to be able to compare future data with data 257 reported on LDN through 2030. These countries would need to continue to apply 258 the same broad land cover classes and NPP analyses for national reporting. 259 However, to make their monitoring more useful at landscape to regional scales, 260 they could define additional states within the land cover classes and could define 261 different states in different regions. Some of these states could even be defined 262 based on measured or modelled changes in soil carbon, allowing changes in this 263 important indicator to be documented. Finally, backward compatibility would be 264 increased by limiting the indicators adopted to observable and previously used 265 indicators (e.g., land cover and NPP), rather than surrogate indicators (e.g., soil 266 erosion).
 - 2. More accurately define when land has become degraded or restored: yes, usually. Allowing states, and the relationship between states, to be defined based on scientific data and local ecological knowledge should increase the accuracy of these determinations. The approach described here allows for the development of consensus among stakeholders using different indicators of degradation, or reference benchmarks.
 - **3. Possible to apply at any scale: yes**. Examples from many locations around the world illustrate how the system can be uniquely applied for individual soils or agroecosystem types within the same landscape or region. However, there can be challenges to consistency in reporting across scales. The decision of whether to adopt a hierarchical system, or one that is flexible and adaptable to different landscapes and regions, will determine *how* it is applied at multiple scales.
- 282 4. Intuitive: yes. In our experience working with practitioners and land managers 283 throughout the United States and internationally, we have found that this 284 approach is guite intuitive because it uses the observed or measured state of the 285 land that is based on indicators that best reflect degradation of that particular 286 type of land, rather than attempting to universally apply an indicator to all types of 287 land. Surrogate indicators (such as soil erosion or NPP) may help define the 288 state, but the selected indicators are typically those that reflect local 289 understanding. States may be defined by one or many correlated indicators and 290 functions. They allow for locally important indicators to discriminate land 291 conditions. The key is to ensure that states are distinguished consistently based 292 on simple observable indicators, such as vegetation cover or obvious soil surface 293 properties, and these simpler indicators are related consistently to more complex 294 processes and indicators defining degradation. It is also intuitive because local

295 inhabitants typically evaluate land degradation via the classification and contrast 296 of discrete types of land. 297 298 5. Simple, allowing it to be implemented by virtually any land manager, 299 consultant or policymaker with basic geospatial skills: a qualified yes. The 300 system can be relatively simple to implement at the landscape scale, based on 301 our and our collaborators' experiences over the past several decades. We 302 acknowledge that it can become increasingly complex to manage at the national 303 level where there is a desire to maintain a hierarchical structure at coarser 304 scales, while noting that this complexity will not be visible to land managers 305 working at the landscape scale. 306 307 308 309 310 Conclusion, final thoughts and an invitation 311 Our suggestion to use states and transitions as a basis for monitoring global land 312 degradation and LDN warrants robust discussion of the opportunities that this approach 313 may provide, and whether and how it might be implemented to support individuals, 314 organizations and nations pursuing land degradation neutrality. Based on our 315 experiences and an extensive global literature, there is substantial evidence that the 316 use of states and transitions will be more effective than current approaches. Recently 317 developed concepts and tools can be used to provide a globally consistent but locally-318 tailored approach to the use of state-transition concepts. 319 320 The authors of this paper humbly recognize that while it draws from the global literature, 321 and represent three nationalities, we are all currently based in the western United 322 States where state and transition-based monitoring approaches are well developed. We 323 would welcome a discussion of the potential value of this approach and how it could be 324 practically implemented at landscape to global scales. Implementation of this approach 325 will require some type of quality control, particularly in the definition of comparable 326 classifications. There will necessarily be tradeoffs between deference to local 327 knowledge and understanding and a set of more universal guidelines, perhaps focusing 328 on the decision-making process itself. For example, if soil organic matter is identified as 329 the most relevant indicator of a change in state for a particular combination of soil. 330 topography and climate, the process could include consideration of both modeled levels 331 in the undegraded state, as well as measurements from undegraded states (e.g. under 332 native vegetation). These locations should be carefully selected to ensure that they 333 have similar potential. This could also allow soil organic matter to be integrated into a 334 state-based system such as that described above for Mongolia. 335 336 Finally, we recognize that no monitoring system is value-neutral. The flexibility that the 337 proposed approach provides to take regional to landscape-scale variability into account

reduces the impact of global biases (e.g. the relative value of some land cover types

- over others, or of prioritizing soil carbon sequestration over other ecosystem services)
- on land degradation determinations. At the same time, however, it opens the door to

- 341 debates about what the reference should be, particularly in systems where restoration is
- biophysically, or at least economically, impossible, or land cover has been completely
- transformed by a change in land use for decades, centuries or more.
- 344

345 We believe that this challenge may be mitigated by two considerations. The first is that a 346 future monitoring system based on the approach described here can continue to use a 347 particular point in time as the baseline, rather than the natural potential of a particular 348 piece of land. The second, which we have successfully applied in many debates in the 349 United States, is to agree to transparently include in the evaluation matrix what is 350 biophysically *possible* (e.g. reconversion of cropland to a diverse perennial grassland), 351 while also including states that can be *realistically* achieved (e.g. a crop production 352 system resulting in minimal erosion and increased soil carbon content and biodiversity). 353 This, in fact, may be the greatest benefit of the approach: it should lead to the 354 development of local to global monitoring systems that can be used to create positive 355 incentives for good land use practices, even if they aren't the best. Future refinements 356 of this approach could follow the approach taken by some certification systems and 357 reflect the magnitude of improvement at the risk of making the system too complex. 358

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- 367

368 Author contribution statement

- 369 All authors contributed to the drafting of the manuscript.
- 370

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375 Conflict of Interest statement

376 No conflicts of interest.

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484

485

487 Graphical abstract



490 Figure 1

_	Tree-covered	Grassland	Cropland	Wetland	Artificial	Other land	Water body	
Tree-covered	0	e e	+	-	-	-	0	
Grassland		0				18	0	
Cropland	-+		0				0	
Wetland		8		0	20		0	
Artificial	+	ž	*	+	0	*	0	
Other land	÷	÷	+	+	.	0	0	
Water body	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
jend								
egradation		Stable	Stable			Improvement		
	-		0			+		





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496 Figure 3

