APPENDICES

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APPENDIX 1

UNDERPINNING CONSERVATION AGRICULTURE’S BENEFITS: THE ROOTS OF SOIL HEALTH AND FUNCTION

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Background document for the:

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UNDERPINNING CONSERVATION AGRICULTURE’S BENEFITS: THE ROOTS OF SOIL HEALTH AND FUNCTION

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“Despite the artistic pretensions, sophistication and many accomplishments of mankind, we owe our existence to a six-inch layer of topsoil and the fact that it rains”. ?Confucius

“Without regular and dependable supplies of food, other agricultural products and water, our whole economic structure will collapse, and no amount of accounting, book-keeping, reckoning, buying or selling will sustain it”. Cormack & Whitelaw, 1957

“Some are predicting that water will replace oil as the resource of greatest concern to the global community – there are alternative fuels, but there are no alternatives to water”.

Craig Cox (SWCS) in testimony to the US Senate 17.1.07, Quoted in JSWC (USA) Mar/Apl.2007, p.23a
ABSTRACT

This paper considers features underlying conservation-effective agricultural systems’ impacts, because they can explain present successes, suggest guidelines for future initiatives, and indicate criteria for judging their effectiveness. Once farmers have made the transition in awareness, thinking and practice of Conservation Agriculture (CA), positive benefits which attract farmers include savings in time, labour, energy and expenditure, with increased productivity and profit margins, greater stability of production, opportunities for diversification. These are accompanied by agro-ecologic improvements to the physical catchments in which such farms are aggregated, and additional socioeconomic and environmental benefits to the wider community that surrounds them. CA protects and enhances the roots of sustainability whereas conventional tillage agriculture adversely affects soil quality and productivity. CA can offer significant advantages to producers in all agricultural environments including in suboptimal and marginal ecologies. The paper highlights the need to think unconventionally and not to be constrained by the dogma underpinning conventional tillage agriculture. To maximize the opportunity and benefits offered by CA, key areas of further investigations by the scientific and development community are elaborated.
1. Introduction

In many landscapes, we expect three-dimensional catchments which are clothed in soil to yield sufficient vegetation of various types, including crops, and volumes of clean water regularly on an annual basis. It is becoming widely acknowledged that Conservation Agriculture (‘CA’) systems, when fully expressed, can improve catchments’ (often damaged or degraded) capacities to provide these essential biological and ecosystem service products on a sustainable basis. CA simulates formerly-sustainable systems but at higher levels of productivity.

Optimal CA systems are based on at least three practices: no disturbance of the soil; permanent cover of the soil with organic matter provided by mulch and cover-crops; and diversified crop rotations, which preferably include N-fixing legumes in the sequence.

In many areas, to date, satisfying the needs of expanding human populations for water has resulted in increasing rates of draw-down of subsurface groundwater from wells and boreholes, though without other actions to ensure equal rates of replenishment by infiltrated rainfall water. The consequences are all too often a need to deepen the boreholes, and an increased incidence of streams ceasing to flow ever earlier after the onset of the dry season.

Increased demands for plant products including food have been addressed through both intensification of inputs per unit area - particularly of agrochemicals and energy - more fertilizer and pesticides, and expansion of agriculture onto ‘virgin’ land. In many situations, the resulting increased frequency of physical tillage, more fertilizers and pesticides, and/or expansion onto more ‘fragile’ types of land have resulted in dynamic re-adjustments of the original ecosystems to altered, less-productive states and, as evidenced - particularly in the tropics and sub-tropics, but also in temperate regions - by increased soil erosion and surface runoff, and the degradation of soil and water quality and of biodiversity. Soil erosion signifies loss of land quality, of soil porosity and of soil depth, while surface runoff signifies wastage of volumes of potentially usable water. Neither of these wastages, nor other environmental degradation, are acceptable features of an agriculture which attempts to be productive, efficient and sustainable.

Human populations and their associated demands from the land - to yield plant products and water - continue to rise even as productive potentials of much land continue to fall (or can only be maintained with rising costs
of production per unit of output) due to past and ongoing damage to the environment.

1.1 CHALLENGE
The challenge is to reverse the observable trend of what is commonly accepted as ‘conventional agriculture’ - towards declining sustainability of land’s productivity accompanied by increasing costs to farmers, to the environment and to society at large. As additional challenge this reversal in trend has to be combined with an increase in production.
2. Components of soil productivity

Soil plays a central role in agricultural production. It determines the production but also the efficiency of many other production factors and inputs. The productivity of a soil, evidenced by yields of plants and input factor productivities, is derived from four components which interact dynamically in space and over time:

1. **Physical**: its ‘architecture’, made up of the arrangement of spaces and solid particles and organic materials, including the forces holding the elements together, and a soil’s depth, defined in three dimensions; the special arrangement of the elements is as important as their quantitative distribution.

2. **Hydrological**: its capacity to absorb, transmit and retain water received at the surface; the supply of soil water to plants is determined by the range of pore-sizes which determine the water’s availability to them. In considering ‘soil fertility’ rather than ‘soil productivity’ this feature generally becomes obscured (even though implied) beneath acknowledgement of the physical and biologic components. In CA, ‘soil productivity’ is the preferred term, because of this stress on soil moisture availability.

3. **Chemical**: dissolved substances which serve as plant nutrients; organic (= C-based) chemical complexes as by-products of organisms’ metabolic activities which, with active clays, contribute much to soils’ capacities of cation-exchange and of slow nutrient release (broadly equivalent to the importance of a soil’s pore-size distribution in ‘slow release’ of water to roots).

4. **Biologic**: soil-inhabiting organisms - bacteria, fungi, plants, animals, and their non-living residues. The non-living fractions provide energy and nutrients for the activities of the living fractions.

All four components interact under the influences of climate, gravity, available species, and the stability of care and management. As long as undisturbed, the plant/soil ecosystem tends towards a condition of dynamic equilibrium. But, as expression of an ecological principle, under the overriding influences of weather and gravity, changes to one component of soil...
productivity provoke re-adjustments between all four of them, which may prove beneficial or detrimental in terms of plant production and/or water provision. It is to such disturbance that the detrimental effects of tillage agriculture can be related.
3. Some adverse effects of ‘conventional’ tillage agriculture

From the description of the elements for soil productivity it becomes obvious that the common practice of tilling the soil does not favour particularly the physical and biologic characteristics of a soil. The nature of ‘conventional’ agriculture, based on tillage, fails to provide together the three integrated bases of conservation-effective agriculture: (a) no soil disturbance; (b) permanent cover to the soil; (c) rotations of diverse crops, including legumes.

Tillage destroys soil organic matter through two interrelated processes. Organic matter at depth in the soil is slower to decompose as soil temperature and moisture levels vary more slowly at depth and oxygen partial pressure can be lower also. Ploughing brings this OM to the surface and decomposition is speeded up.

The second process is that, when there is no physical disturbance, soil macro-aggregates “occlude” particulate undecomposed residues. The break up of the macro-aggregates exposes this occluded particulate OM (or light fraction) to decomposition. This process has been well described by Six et al. (2000) and shown to be true for Ferrasols by Denef et al. (2007) and Zotarelli et al. (2007).

• Tillage agriculture generally aims to remove or bury all cover except that provided by the crop itself.
• Under increasing demands and lessening of available land space, conventional tillage agriculture tends towards favouring lesser crop diversity, even to monocropping, as well as to limiting or eliminating regular periods in rotation for soil restoration by the widely-penetrating root systems of appropriate species – such as perennial grasses – which, to an extent, can simulate the effects of former long-rotation ‘bush fallows’ including shrubs and trees.
• Tillage interferes with the habitat of soil life and disrupts the physical structure of this habitat, replacing the structuring effects of soil life with mechanical restructuring of soil aggregates. This leads to a disruption of continuous pore systems, less structural stability and a clear separation of the tilled topsoil from the not tilled subsoil.
Thus, tillage agriculture results in significant disruptions to the functioning of the living soil/plant system and the interactions between the four components of soil productivity.

3.1 PRIMARY EFFECTS
Primary effect can be seen as:

• Physical disruption of, and degradation of, existing soil pores – stirring, compacting, pulverising, losing organic ‘glues’ between particles;
• Net loss of organic matter by its accelerated oxidation of carbon compounds and emission of CO2 to the atmosphere, following tillage operations (Figures 1-4). If soil is basically purely inorganic because its soil organic matter reserves have been severely depleted, then applied P fertilizer is usually immobilized almost immediately. The higher the amount of P that can be retained in organic (C-linked) form in residues on the soil surface to act as slow-release fertilizer, the lower is the necessity for high P inputs, and P-fertilizer efficiency improves.
3.2 SECONDARY EFFECTS
As a source of plant nutrients, organic–matter additions (manures, composts) are commonly substituted by manufactured fertilizers, because the latter are less bulky and easier to transport and spread.

Where tillage agriculture then continues, the remaining soil organic matter is further depleted by oxidation, until so little remains (only that most resistant to transformation) that the soil’s buffering capacity is exhausted and plants then become more or less wholly dependent on applied nutrients alone.
The trend of loss is seen to be rapid initially, followed by slower long-term decline, the shape of the curve being characterized by a Decomposition Constant. This feature was discussed by Nye and Greenland in ‘The Soil under Shifting Cultivation’ (C.A.B., 1960, p.51+). The diagram below shows a comparable trend over about 100 years 1880-1990 at two locations in the US Midwest between about 1880 and 1990.

3.3 THE ‘ELEPHANT IN THE BACK ROOM’

Other investigations suggest that, after s.o.m. has become depleted to very low levels the result has been lower efficiency and eventually minimal effectiveness of mineral fertilizers to contribute to soil fertility and eventually to further enhance yields. This end result has been observed by small farmers: after they could no longer obtain fertilizers (for whatever reason) the subsequent crop yields had become so poor that they have reported: “The crops have become ‘addicted’ to fertilizers”; “(After we stopped using fertilizers), we
suddenly realized that something bad had happened to our soil"6; "[It] slowly kills the soil"7. Comparable comments by farmers have also been noted in parts of China8. A similar problem occurs if blanket applications of only one fertilizer are applied because, if applied in ever-increasing quantities of e.g. N, eventually other nutrients become limiting and the soil can become effectively sterilized.9

"Using data from maize plots [some known to have been cultivated for more than 100 years] operated by small farmers in western Kenya, we find a von Liebig-type relationship between soil organic matter, a broad proxy for soil fertility status, and maize yield response to nitrogen application. On a third

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6 Shaxson, pers comms. (Malawi)
8 Douglas, pers. comm.(1451).
9 Twyford, pers. comm.(1644)
of the plots, degraded soils limit the marginal productivity of fertilizer such that it becomes unprofitable at prevailing prices. Since poorer farmers most commonly cultivate SOM-deficient soils, stand-alone fertilizer interventions might therefore be less pro-poor than is widely assumed".\(^\text{10}\)

If these interpretations reflect the reality, and the situation is widespread across the lands occupied by resource-poor small farmers in the tropics and sub-tropics, it poses a serious challenge to the assumption that inorganic fertilizers plus improved seeds are all that are needed (with adequate rainfall, and/or irrigation) in tillage-agriculture to reverse the observed declines in soil productivity over the years.

Until this problem is resolved, the long-term decline of soil organic matter, illustrated above (Figure 4), is like ‘an elephant in the back room’, capable of causing and repeating serious problems.

### 3.4 CONSEQUENCES

The loss of soil organic matter caused by repeated soil tillage has a number of consequences:

- Raised risks of losses of water as runoff; of soil as ‘sediment’; of applied inputs – energy, seeds, fertilizers, pesticides;
- Diminished capacities for capture and slow release of both plant nutrients and water;
- Diminished quality of the soil as a rooting environment;
- Diminishing yields, at level costs, year by year; conversely, level yields maintained at rising costs;
- Diminished activity and diversity of soil organisms;
- Lowered resilience of the soil/plant system to adverse conditions;
- Reduced output/input ratios, indicating falling efficiencies of use of inputs;
- Diminished sustainability of farming enterprises.

CA systems (based on the combination of no-till + permanent organic soil-cover + crop- rotations, which induce net increase in soil organic matter, and in conjunction with provision of sufficient plant nutrients) offer an entirely-appropriate type of solution, potentially able to slow and reverse these damages, and to minimize/avoid their repetition on newly-opened lands.

FIGURE 5
Reversal of s.o.m. decline by adoption of CA in Paraná, Brazil.

Soils Bulletin 80, p.20.
4. Key features of optimum conservation agriculture

Conservation Agriculture reaches its full potentials for sustainable yields of vegetation and water when three features are functioning together:

1. No physical disturbance of the soil
2. Permanent organic cover to the soil
3. Rotation of crops

4.1 NO PHYSICAL DISTURBANCE OF THE SOIL
No disturbance of the soil - once it has been brought into good condition for rooting and for water-entry and -retention - is achieved by direct seeding through the mulch cover without tillage. This feature:

• Enables the living parts of the varied members of the soil/plant system to optimize the arrangement, over time, of the four components of soil productivity (as above) to mutual benefit. It avoids disruptive disturbance of the ensuing self-layering of activity and characteristics from the surface downwards into the profile.

• Preserves the integrity of large pores into the soil made by meso-organisms such as worms, termites etc. and by roots now decayed, along which both water and gases can move fairly rapidly to depth, including balanced exchange of respiration gases between the atmosphere and the zone of rooting.

• By avoiding break-up of larger soil aggregates, prevents exposure of their internal micro-aggregates within which occluded small fragments organic matter are sheltered.

• Permits time for biological transformations of organic matter to build up more soil aggregates which have degrees of resistance to slaking and/or mechanical breakdown by compaction.

In a sense, the soil architecture that develops over time under no till can be equated to the architecture of a building (Figure 6). The functional usefulness of the building depends on the nature and organization of the space within the building.
FIGURE 6
Controlled demolition of twin apartment-blocks. The interesting things happen in the spaces of soil architecture, as in a building. If the spaces are lost, the usefulness is lost, even though the physical parts remain.

4.2 PERMANENT ORGANIC COVER TO THE SOIL
Permanent organic (= carbon-rich) cover to the soil is derived from retained plant residues from crops and cover-crops which have been retained in situ, sometimes augmented with manures, composts etc. from elsewhere. This feature:

• Protects the soil surface from:
  o high-energy rainfall impact, thereby avoiding the associated crusting and compaction of the surface that occurs on bare soils;
  o extremes of daily temperature fluctuations in uppermost soil layers, which otherwise could be inimical to plant functions in bare soils;
• Provides a regularly replenished organic substrate for the metabolic processes of the soil biota, whose transformative actions on dead organic matter lead to the enhancement of soil aggregation and of a wide range of pore-size distribution within the resulting soil porosity. For root function and water movement the spaces within the pore matrix are as significant as the solids that surround them.

The transformative processes also result in enhancement of the soil’s cation exchange capacity (CEC), providing retention and slow-release of plant nutrients, whether derived from organic matter and/or applied ‘from the bag’.
4.3 ROTATION OF CROPS
This involves rotation in sequence of several species of crops, including
legumes as symbiotic (plant x Rhizobia) sources of plant-fixed atmospheric
N, and other usable green manure cover crops, for maintaining soil cover at
all times, as well as provision of labile organic residues both at and below the
surface. It is important that the nutrient balances in the soil are maintained
from one cycle of a rotation to the next. C-accumulation seems only to occur
when there is a legume in the system which fixes more N than is removed in
the crop products or otherwise lost from the system.11

This feature results in:
- The placement of organic root-residues at a range of different depths in
  the soil profile according to each crop’s characteristics;
- The provision of various qualities of residues in the soil, from the most
  labile and readily-transformed to the more-lignified types resistant to
decomposition, depending on the plant types. The more-labile/less-
lignified forms contribute less to cation-exchange capacity than more-
lignified root materials. A wide range of types provided by the different
crops increases the range of buffering capacities of the soil with regard to
soil pH and nutrient imbalances with respect to plant requirements.

Mixed sequences of crops, plus the presence of permanent soil cover, tend
to inhibit the build-up of specific weed species which would thrive under less-
varied or monocrop conditions.

The greater the range of plants grown, in mixtures or in sequence, the
more varied will be the biodiversity of associations of organisms above-
ground and inhabiting the rooting-depth, and the greater the competition
which can suppress those which may be detrimental to root function and
thus be considered weeds/pests. A crop rotation will further help interrupting
the infection chain for diseases and might have other pest-repellent and
-suppressing characteristics. For the alterations in copping systems to be
worthwhile to farmers, there need to be local uses and/or markets for outputs
generated by improved crop sequences.

4.4 SIMULATION OF FOREST-FLOOR CONDITIONS
In CA systems with the above attributes there are many similarities with
resilient ‘forest-floor’ conditions:
- Organic materials are added both as leaf-and-stem residues from above
  the surface and as root-residues beneath the surface where the soil biota
  are active and carbon is accumulated in the soil.

11 Boddey R., pers. comm.
• Carbon, plant nutrients and water are recycled.
• Rainwater enters the soil complex readily, since rates of infiltration – (maintained by surface protection and varied soil porosity) usually far exceed the rates of rainfall income.

The ongoing relative stability of such conditions depends more on the dynamic biological characteristics of the soil/plant ecosystem than on its static physical attributes.

4.5 SOIL ORGANIC MATTER

Soil organic matter is neither just a provider of plant nutrients in low concentrations nor just an absorber of water, as is sometimes supposed. The combined living and non-living fractions together form a key part of the dynamics of soil formation, resilience and self-sustainability of CA systems.

In the functioning of soil as a rooting environment, the integrated effects of the physical, chemical and hydrological components of soil productivity are effectively ‘activated’ by the fourth, the biological component.

The varied component species of the living fraction of soil organic matter may inhabit the above-ground mulch and/or the soil below.

They variously provide metabolic functions, acting on the non-living organic materials, which include:
• Retaining potential plant-nutrient ions within their own cells, with liberation on their death, acting as one form of slow-release mechanism; mycorrhizae and rhizobia, as well as free-living N-fixing bacteria, make nutrients available to plants in symbiotic arrangements.
• Breaking down and transforming the complex molecules of varied dead organic matter into different substances, both labile and resistant, according to the composition of the substrate;
• Leaving behind transformed materials with differing degrees of resistance to, and thus of speed of, subsequent breakdown by biotic process of other soil organisms. Over the long term, this leaves some residues less changed than others, providing long-lasting and slowly-released remnant reserves of the nutrient and carbonaceous materials of which they were composed.
• Producing organic acids which, by leaching, contribute to soil formation from the surface downwards by acting to break down mineral particles as part of the soil ‘weathering’ process. Organic acids also help with transporting lime into the soil profile and mobilizing nutrients like phosphates.
• Providing organic molecules as transformation products which contribute markedly to soil’s CEC; this also augments the soil’s buffering capacity with respect to pH/acidity changes and to excesses or deficiencies of nutrient ions available to plants.
Providing humic gums which, together with fungal hyphae and clay bonds, make for different sizes of rough-surfaced aggregates of individual soil particles which, within and between them in continuous channels, provides the permeability of the soil in a broad distribution of pore-sizes.

Burrowing activities of meso-organisms such as worms, and of roots (leaving tubes after they have died and been decomposed), also contribute to the macro-porosity of the soil, with similar effects.

The soils which are most vulnerable to tillage-stimulated rapid loss of soil organic matter are those of coarse texture and where the clay fraction is dominated by low-activity clays. Such soils (e.g., ferralsols) are widely distributed in the tropics and sub-topics, and total over 750 million ha. in these regions.

4.6 THE ROOTS OF SUSTAINABILITY
Sustainability of land’s capacities to continue yielding both plant products and water year after year depends primarily on maintaining the soil in fit condition for active life processes of the whole soil/plant system. This relates to the ongoing generation and re-generation of the porous soil architecture – the soil’s ‘self-recuperation capacity’ – with respect to repair of damaged soil and to its physical resilience in the face of adverse shocks of weather and/or of poor management.

It is clear that maintaining the vitality of the soil, notably of the number, diversity and activity of the living components of its organic matter, is a key factor in sustaining the land’s capacity to go on yielding vegetation and water through maintenance of soil porosity.

The advantage of CA over TA in terms of the duration of plant-available soil moisture is clearly illustrated by the graph in Figure 7, which shows the situation with respect to soil moisture conditions throughout growing-season under three experimental treatments: ‘Direct drill’ (= no-till conservation agriculture); ‘Minimum tillage’ (= non-inversion tillage with tines); and ‘Conventional tillage’ with heavy discs.

Between the first (‘Direct drill’) and the third (‘Conventional’) treatments there is a major difference in the duration of plant-available moisture (between Field Capacity and Wilting Point) in the upper 20cm of the soil between May and September of the study-period. The effects of dry weather would have taken effect on the crop much earlier in the plots damaged by conventional tillage than under those maintained under CA management. Stated another way, the crops under the CA system would have continued towards maturity for longer than those in soil with conventional tillage. In addition, the period
in which available nutrients can be taken up by plants is also extended, increasing the efficiency of their use.

The greater the volume and longer duration of soil moisture’s availability to plants (between the soil’s Field Capacity and Wilting Point) under CA treatment has significant positive indications for farming stability and
profitability. The range of pore sizes which achieve this also implies the presence of larger pores which contribute to through-flow of incident rainwater down to the groundwater.

The following two photos (Figures 8a, 8b) indicate the above effects on an experimental field near Foggia, Italy.
Infiltration rates under well-managed CA are much higher over very extended periods than in TA due to better soil porosity. In Brazil, a six-fold difference was measured between infiltration rates under CA (120 mm per hour) and TA (20 mm ph hour). CA thus provides a means to maximize effective rainfall and recharge of groundwater as well as reduce risks of floods, due to improved water infiltration. Due to improved growing-season moisture regime and soil storage of water and nutrients, crops under CA are healthier, requiring less fertilizer and pesticides to feed and protect the crop, thus leading to a lowering of contamination of soil, water, food and feed. In addition, in soils of good porosity anoxic zones hardly have time to form in the root zone, thus avoiding problems of the reduction of nitrate to nitrite ions in the soil solution.

Such types of information from soils in good condition under CA provide a range of ‘yardsticks’ against which to compare the benefits of CA and the health of the soil, as against the damages caused by ‘conventional’ tillage agriculture, as discussed below.
5. Impacts of conservation-effective agriculture

CA’s impacts can benefit both people and the wider landscapes that surround them. These benefits attract the interest of others, thus contributing to CA’s autonomous spread.

5.1 SOME REALISABLE IMPACTS AT FARM LEVEL\textsuperscript{12}

- \textbullet{} Labour, time and farm power are saved through reduced cultivation and weeding requirements.
- \textbullet{} Lower costs because both operations and external inputs are reduced.
- \textbullet{} Mechanical equipment has a longer life-span, lower repair costs, and consumes less fuel.
- \textbullet{} Better movement in the field; less drudgery of repetitive work.
- \textbullet{} More-stable yields, particularly in dry years because more nutrients and moisture are available to the crops.
- \textbullet{} Labour savings provide opportunities for diversification of enterprises and into other activities.
- \textbullet{} Yields are increased even as inputs decrease, to a changed equilibrium state, including lowered demand for fertilizers, pesticides, and energy.
- \textbullet{} Increased profits, in some cases from the beginning; in all cases after a few years, as efficiency of the production system increases.
- \textbullet{} Most or all rainfall is harnessed as effective rainfall, with minimal runoff and soil erosion, leading to longer and reliable moisture regime for crop growth, improved drought proofing, and retention of the upper more-fertile soil layers.
- \textbullet{} Increase in biological nitrogen fixation (BNF), in soil organic matter at all levels of the root-zone, (possibly sufficient to sequester carbon at depth after root senescence), as well as in CEC, soil moisture holding capacity, soil biota and general agro-biodiversity.

\textsuperscript{12} After Pieri, Evers, Landers, O’Connell, Terry: ‘No-Till Farming for Sustainable Rural Development’. WB Agriculture & Rural Devt. Working paper; and authors’ own observations.
When increasing areas of land become covered by effective CA, such benefits as listed above extend onwards to the local community and beyond as ecosystem services, and to the three-dimensional catchments in which the farms are located:

5.2 SOME CONSEQUENT IMPACTS AT COMMUNITY OR CATCHMENT LEVEL

- More constant water-flow in rivers/streams, improved recharge of the water-table/groundwater, with re-emergence of water in dried-up wells and water sources.
- Cleaner water because pollution, erosion and sedimentation of water bodies are reduced.
- Less flooding because infiltration increases; less damage from droughts and storms.
- Improved sustainability of production systems and enhanced food security.
- Increased environmental awareness and better stewardship of natural resources.
- Lower costs of municipal and urban water-treatment.
- Reduced maintenance costs of rural roads.
- Increased social interactions between members of the local community
- Improved livelihoods and rural life.

The rate and nature of such improvements due to CA are in positive contrast with what is generally being achieved with ‘conventional’ tillage agriculture (‘TA’).

5.3 UNDERLYING THE IMPROVEMENTS
Overall, the characteristics of CA enable it to achieve the amelioration, avoidance, or even reversal, of the detrimental effects of tillage systems across a wide range of places and situations which may differ widely in terms of the characters of the land, of farmers’ resources, of social systems and of other factors.

The positive effects at macro-scale derive from the characteristics of the soil when considered as a biological entity at micro-scale (see also 8.2 below).

Two interlinked features distinguish CA from TA:
- Net increase, rather than ongoing decrease, of soil organic matter.
- Improvement in quantities and duration of soil-moisture at plant-available tensions (soil matrix potentials), minimizing effects of atmospheric drought on crops.
Common to both are the need for sufficient nutrients to be available to plants at all times when soil-water supply is not limiting.

Successful and effective CA systems are implemented by individuals’ preferences and decisions. An important motivator in many situations is the farmer’s wish to restore, and make more productive, farmland which has been damaged (often unknowingly) as a result of tillage agriculture over the years, and thus jointly to benefit the land on the one hand and his/her family’s livelihood on the other.

For resource-poor farmers in particular, achieving such soil improvements and benefits may take time to achieve fully, through a series of accumulating small improvements. Measures which enable infiltration of the highest proportion of rainfall and thereby minimize losses of potential soil water, may be a first critical stage, together with P and N additions, in starting the upward spiral of improvement.
6. Hindrances to progress

Main hindrances to faster spread can be listed under the general headings ‘Ecological’, ‘Historical’, and ‘Intellectual’.

6.1 ECOLOGICAL HINDRANCE
Africa has wide range of agro-ecologic situations across which more secure and more-productive agriculture systems are urgently required. They pose a range of agro-ecologic and/or socio-economic challenges. Can CA’s best effects be achieved in every situation?

Agriculture usually aims to provide more of what people prefer than what the undisturbed ecosystems can or could provide, provoking many ecosystem adjustments which are foreseeable but often ignored, and which may have disastrous results if managed inappropriately. Soils already seriously damaged by past mis-management are degraded resources on which to plant present and future crops. Their remediation needs adjustments in management for restoration and sustainability of productive capacity. Improvements in levels of P in the soil assists the establishment of N-fixing leguminous plants – preferably quick-growing and suitably-inoculated leguminous trees in the worst situations. The N fixed in this form is more-efficiently used than that applied ‘from the bag’, and together with the P, begins the provision of those plant nutrients essential for subsequent crop growth and function – and subsequent build-up of soil organic matter - in such degraded soils.

6.2 HISTORICAL HINDRANCE
Land which has been ‘opened’ to agriculture for more than a few decades may have had its productive potential significantly reduced by how it has been managed in the past, resulting in increased costs to maintain level outputs, let alone increase them.

In response to demands of rising human populations, land has been ‘opened’ on a significant scale over more than 150 years from multi-species (vegetation x soil x animal) ecosystems’ natural bush/forest to systems based on many fewer species. ‘Modern’ agriculture has promoted the almost-universal use
of tillage equipment, whose use in many situations has been rapidly followed by significant net losses of soil organic matter due to soil disturbance, at precipitous rates initially followed by more gradual further decline from those low residual levels.

The processes, trends and consequences of organic matter degradation, which are seen in both tropical and temperate regions, may be much more pronounced and accelerated in the warm/hot climates of the tropics than where mean temperatures are lower.

6.3 INTELLECTUAL HINDRANCE
Misapprehensions, hallowed by repetition over time, have hindered attempts at avoidance of, and recovery from, damage to land’s productivity. Examples include:

• ‘Soil erosion’ has commonly been assumed to be the culprit for causing yield decline. The ‘Battle against erosion’, ‘Cancer of erosion’ etc. approach failed adequately to analyze problems and missed highlighting actual rather than apparent causes.

This has occasioned much delay and wasted expenditure. In many cases the farmer-led CA revolution began to ‘take off’ independently over the past thirty years because of dissatisfaction with the relative ineffectiveness of ‘conventional’ recommendations about Soil & Water Conservation (SWC).

• Concerns about ‘soil fertility’ are commonly related chiefly to levels of plant nutrients alone and the use of manufactured fertilizers, whereas the phrase ‘soil productivity’ broadens it to include all features affecting soil as a porous rooting environment, a habitat for soil micro-organisms, and a storage for water and nutrients.

• Many people have a perception that ‘agriculture’ implies a need for tillage of the soil in order to produce annual and perennial crops. The significant change in attitude required to embrace CA based on no tillage poses an element of resistance to CA’s more-rapid spread in some parts of the world.

• Many people seem to accept that soil erosion and surface runoff are apparently unavoidable concomitants of ‘normal’ agriculture, leading to scepticism that there are solutions to these problems. CA demonstrates that, except in extreme situations, this is not necessarily true.

• The earlier ‘high-input / high-output ‘Green Revolution’ of recent decades in Asia and the heavily mechanized, and energy-, capital- and input-intensive industrialized approach to standardized farming in the developed regions has often been assumed to be the appropriate model for raising and sustaining agricultural productivity on the African continent and across the developing world from now onwards. However,
the Green Revolution’s environmental damages – to quality of soils and biodiversity as well as of irrigation waters – appear to have limited its future sustainability. This calls into question its overall validity as a model for sustainable agricultural development both there and elsewhere, even more so when considered against the new 21st century realities of high energy costs, climate change and water scarcity.

- It is an intellectual hindrance that small resource-poor farmers are commonly considered by others as needing teaching different ways of doing things, and that ‘outsiders’ are the ones with the useful answers. Perceptive experience in the field indicates that farm families are keenly aware of problems and potentials, but are unable to access appropriate or sufficient means of resolving the difficulties. Appropriate assistance may often be related to e.g. availability of small amounts of timely ‘seed-finance’ to initiate an improvement, and/or the enactment of laws which facilitate needed improvements. It may also involve removal of those laws etc. which are found to inhibit relevant development which farmers themselves wish to undertake by adapting some action or object the better to suit their situation. Non-farm agriculturists and others may need to re-examine commonly-held (but often hidden) assumptions about the lives and livelihoods of the families they profess to serve before being able to arrive at truly-appropriate modes of assistance. Somewhat as Dr Samuel Johnson wrote in the 1700s: “The use of travelling is to regulate imagination with reality, and instead of thinking how things may be, to see them as they are”.


7. Conservation-effective agriculture in sub-optimal/problem areas

7.1 LIMITING FACTORS
Areas which are less than optimal for introducing CA (with all three key features working in concert) will have a greater number and/or severity of adverse factors capable of hindering plant production and groundwater recharge.

In sub-humid and semi-arid climatic zones it may not be possible to apply the precepts of good Conservation Agriculture to an optimum because insufficiency of rainfall may severely limit how much biomass can be grown per unit area. On the one hand this limits the quantity of harvestable crops; on the other it also limits the amount of residues which are available to serve both as a protective cover to the soil, a substrate for soil improvement, and simultaneously as a source of fodder for animals and as domestic fuel. Fortunately, under these conditions, the decomposition rates also are often lower. If a compromise between different uses of organic matter can be struck, the benefits of CA become visible, although the increase in soil organic matter is slower than under optimal supply levels.

In more humid areas, while water may not be a serious limiting factor, scarcity of particular plant nutrients may prove to be the more significant factors. Relief of e.g. P-deficiency may enable better crop responses to given levels of other inputs, whether human or mechanical energy, fertilizers, improved seeds, etc. Also in the case of phosphate deficiencies the higher biological activity in the soil under CA can improve the P-availability in the long term.

It is always important to identify what might be limiting factors and then, over time at appropriate intervals, regularly to rank their relative levels of importance, thus noting which require the most urgent attention – realising that, as one is mitigated, another may come to the fore.

It is worth noting that improvement of the organic-matter status and activity in the soil can have multiple positive effects which may alleviate/eliminate more than one limiting factor at the same time.
7.2 CONCENTRATING SCARCE AVAILABLE RESOURCES

The objectives of improving the soil’s content and activity of organic matter remain the same, namely:

• to improve the soil as a rooting-zone for crops;
• for more efficient use of rainfall (a free good) for both crop production and groundwater recharge,
• for more-productive use of labour/energy and applied inputs.

If resources are in short supply – e.g., water, phosphate, manure - it makes sense to concentrate them to adequate levels in limited areas, e.g., at the crop’s planting stations, from which the young plants will derive most early benefit, rather than spread widely but sparsely. In drier areas of the African continent, this is illustrated by the plant-production successes of water-collecting ‘tassa’ or ‘zai’, into which the limited quantities of available manure and compost are concentrated, and micro-doses of appropriate fertilizers may be locally applied to greatest effect (Figures 9 and 10).
It is therefore becoming increasingly clear that degraded lands, even in the dry tropics such as Niger (Figure 11), can be rehabilitated and soil productive capacity regenerated by applying the principles of CA as with tassa or zai systems.
7.3 REACHING THE GROUNDWATER
The greater the proportion of a field’s area or, preferably, of a catchment that is treated with these ‘small basins of water concentration’, the greater will be the proportion of rainfall captured and infiltrated from the surface down to depth, per hectare of land surface, (rather than running off). Then the greater will be the likelihood of such water as is in excess of crop requirements reaching the groundwater and maintaining or raising the level of the sub-surface water-table, which is tapped by wells and boreholes and which also is the source of streams’ and rivers’ flows.

7.4 ENHANCING FERTILIZERS’ EFFECTIVENESS
It should be noted that in tillage-agriculture situations, while purchased fertilizers alone may be able to raise crop yields significantly where insufficient plant nutrients have been the major limiting factor, they will not, of themselves, result in sustainable improvements in porosity of the soil and hence of soil moisture conditions. For this, adequate supplies of organic matter need regularly to be provided to ‘feed’ the soil biota, as is the case with ‘classic’ Conservation Agriculture systems. On the scale of a stream’s catchment this is clearly essential in order to maintain the land’s ongoing capacities to yield both vegetation and water every year.

7.5 KEEP THE CARBON-GAINS: AVOID TILLAGE
From studies of effects of tillage on oxidation of soil carbon reserves, it becomes clear that, after a net accumulation of organic matter has been achieved in the previous year, a single severe tillage operation could result in the loss by oxidation of much or all the carbon previously gained.

If, for reasons of e.g. soil compaction by animal trampling, it is necessary to disturb the soil again, such disturbance should be as limited as possible – in both area and severity of disturbance - consistent with achieving the required result, in order to safeguard as much of the soil organic matter as possible from being oxidised. The soil aggregates may have taken many months to build up, but their destruction may take only a few days. Strip-tillage between rows of mulch in the crop-lines may be useful in some situations, such as on moist soils under cold climatic conditions: it is preferable to conventional whole-field tillage, but is has some disadvantages compared with no tillage.

7.6 MINIMIZING AREAS OF COMPACTION
If wheeled machinery is to be used in the farming operation and if irreversible soil compaction cannot safely be avoided by lowering the contact pressure on the soil, it is advisable to limit the compaction thus caused into permanent ‘tramlines’ which are used for every operation, thereby not damaging the surface porosity already achieved on the majority of the area.
8. Thinking unconventionally

It is helpful not to feel completely constrained by the dogma of conventional approaches to problems encountered. A more free-ranging mind may see unconventional possibilities for solving problems. Here are three examples:

8.1 “SOIL EROSION IS NOT CAUSED BY DEFORESTATION, OVERGRAZING, EXCESSIVE CULTIVATION”

Common responses have been to promulgate laws and other pressures on farmers to abandon such practices, but with almost no lasting success. However, by considering three components that all three ‘causes’ have in common (Figure 12), we can discern other possible ways of tackling the erosion problem.

![Figure 12](image)

Re-thinking the supposed causes of erosion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&gt; SUPPOSED 'CAUSE'</th>
<th>Deforestation</th>
<th>Overgrazing</th>
<th>Excessive cultivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RELEVANT COMPONENT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of organic matter on and in soil</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of soil porosity</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of plant cover</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2 “FOR PURPOSES OF NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, SOIL SHOULD BE RE-DEFINED AS A BIOLOGICAL ENTITY – RATHER THAN A GEOLOGICAL ONE”

With respect to management of living natural resources, there is a case to be made for re-defining soil primarily as a biological – rather than a geological – entity. This would focus attention on how best to improve its capacities to yield vegetation and water.
‘...Society might take better care of soil if it were considered less as an inorganic physical unit of mineral particles, air, water and nutrient ions that happens to contain life, but more descriptively as a living system, a complex and dynamic subsurface ecosystem of diverse living organisms (including plant roots), non-living organic matter, and biologically-transformed organic/humic products, which inhabits, modifies and interpenetrates an inorganic mix of mineral particles, air, water and nutrient ions, and which changes dynamically over the fourth dimension of time’.13

As already indicated, considering soil in this light, and treating it accordingly, can be expected to result in greater profitability of farming enterprises and in rising benefits to the wider society.

Related to this is the concept of ‘soil health’, of which two similar definitions are given in Annex 1. The definitions are readily compatible with the characteristics and objectives of Conservation Agriculture as discussed in this paper.

8.3 WORKING IN FARMERS’ OWN CONTEXTS: DISSEMINATION FOR ADAPTATION OF CA PRACTICES THROUGH FARMER FIELD SCHOOLS

CA is knowledge-intensive farming practice requiring farmers to understand and develop capacity to test and integrate CA principles and practices into their own farming systems to fully harness the benefits offered by CA. Through a Farmer Field School approach, it has been possible to introduce and disseminate appropriate CA practices into many countries across Africa, and there have been notable successes. In the context of a Farmer Field School, individual farmers may prove to be the best judges of what could work best for them to put CA principles into practice in their own particular situations. Farmer Field Schools offer an effective mechanism to set up a process of farmer discovery adoption and adaptation learning in order to accelerate CA’s positive impact on livelihoods, food security, economic development and the environment.

9. Key areas for further investigations

9.1 TOPICS COMMON TO ALL CA SYSTEMS.
Topics that are common to all CA systems are:

- **Rebuilding ‘last-resort’ resistant reserves of s.o.m.:** What is the best way to rebuild s.o.m. reserves with special reference to the more resistant materials which provide stores of organic complexes with nutrient ions that provide ‘last resort’ provisions before the soil becomes of very little value for plant production?

- **Characterize the changes in relative ranking of limiting factors over the process/sequence of soil improvement:** At a given site where a soil has become degraded, an understanding is important of what is the relative ranking among the biologic, physical, chemical and hydrological factors which currently limit its productivity, so as to know at, a given stage, which to address with priority in actions to improve the situation. Priorities may change as the soil condition improves over time, indicating the nature of what changes in management should follow to optimize the rate of ongoing improvement in soil condition. Undertaking of such investigations in different agroclimatic zones will help to clarify the dynamics of soil improvement as a basis for better-informed decision-making at all levels, from field to national institutions.

- **Characterizing effects of induced changes soil conditions which result in improved infiltration and percolation:** Greater understanding and enlightenment is required of the dynamics of soil water with regard to reaching deeper roots and movement down to groundwater once infiltration capacity through the surface layer has been achieved and safeguarded. This would help to link the interests of farm-families – as both agriculturists and as users of water – and those of the wider society concerned about water reserves and streamflow maintenance. Repeats of soil-water ‘tracking’ over time, as shown in Fig. 7 (above) would enable effective comparison of relative benefits/dis-benefits of adopting one vs. another strategy for improvement the soil and/or management method.
• **Contributions of different types of organic-matter input to soil health conditions:** It is clear that different types of organic matter result in different products of microbial breakdown and transformation (e.g., differences in effects of e.g., leaves of *Tithonia* sp., wheat straw, cattle manure, charcoal, sawdust, etc.) on soil conditions and plant responses.

• **Identifying readily usable indicators of agro-ecosystem changes and condition:** Farmers and others will want to know whether their CA systems are improving in soil health and having the expected positive effects as time progresses. Such indicators as changes in weed flora, associations of insect species, associations of micro-organisms, condition of soil architecture, frequency and severity of runoff, could facilitate regular monitoring, enabling the plotting of the trajectories of change as CA’s effects intensify.

• **How to integrate cattle and other animals with CA crop-production systems?:** Livestock might be a problem since it creates competition for the use of residues as forage. On the other side livestock-keeping provides economic benefits in growing forage crops and with this gives opportunities to diversify crop rotations, which makes them healthier and increases the overall productive capacity of the production system. In what ways can balances be struck between the (complementary) needs for feeding animals and feeding the soil?

• **Appropriate support and assistance to farmers using CA:** When, in a particular country, there is sufficient convincing evidence of the benefits to be derived from its wider spread, what administrative and legal arrangements would best serve to support the initial practitioners as they make the transition from TA to CA but also encourage others to join the CA revolution?

• **Quantify and document rates of CO₂ flux to atmosphere after differing severities and types of tillage, in different tropical situations, in comparison with rates from no-till CA systems in the same regions.**

### 9.2 TOPICS MORE SPECIFIC TO PARTICULAR ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS AND CROP PREFERENCES

Topics that are more specific to particular environmental conditions and crop preferences are:

• **Characteristics of sequences of crops, including green manure/cover crops, to make up manageable rotations in CA systems for particular localities, e.g., humid/subhumid/semi-arid regions; sandy/clayey/silty soil areas; subsistence farming/market-oriented farming etc.**

• **Weed management:** Weed-control poses difficulties in many situations, especially where farmers do not have the resources to buy herbicides and equipment appropriate to their particular situations. Ranges of
strategies need to be available to farmers which are appropriate to the weed flora, the rotational sequence and system, and the farmer’s resource endowments. Crop rotations, permanent soil cover and the avoidance of bringing weed seeds to germination are important parts of the weed management strategies under CA.

• **Pest management:** Comparable comments apply in the case of pest management. For both weeds and pests, the concepts and practices of Integrated Weed / Pest Management appear likely to fit well into CA systems.

• *Determine optimum combinations* of soil organic matter x manufactured fertilizers for soil/plant system nutrition in different agro-ecologic situations.

• *Put an economic value on saved rainwater:* Rainwater is assumed to be a ‘free good’ when programmes and projects are put together and their likely costs and benefits calculated. The change from tillage agriculture (TA) to CA systems can result in prolongation of plant-available soil moisture which can translate into more-secure and potentially higher yields (as shown above). Rainfall may be free at point of entry, but it gains a potential measurable positive value once it is in the reach of crops’ roots. By contrast, avoidable runoff - as lost potential soil moisture – can similarly be given a negative value.

• *Ensure appropriate climatic and soil variables are recorded* regularly and in sufficient frequency and detail throughout long-term experiments, as an aid to more-detailed interpretation of results than is possible when such data are not available.
10. Conclusions

10.1 CHANGES
Both Conservation Agriculture and Tillage Agriculture cause soil changes – but in opposite directions.

Benefits of CA reach far beyond minimizing water runoff and soil erosion (though this is often stated as a first reason why farmers adopt it). It has profound ongoing beneficial effects on the soil as a rooting environment and as a receiver, store and downward transmitter of rainwater translating into improved ecosystem services.

The living and non-living components of organic matter together have catalytic effects on the capacity of the soil to provide both vegetation and water. Conversely, insufficiency of organic matter in soils limits soils’ productivity and sustainability and diminishes the efficiency of use of applied inputs to agricultural plant/soil systems.

The consequences have positive repercussions on the stability, sustainability and profitability of farming.

10.2 RESPONSE
A response to the challenge of reversing the trend of land degradation is to spread the application of better systems of land husbandry – of which well-managed CA is a prime example - which are capable of reversing these adverse trends and of repairing past damages to ecosystem functions caused by tillage agriculture (TA).

CA, in optimum agro-ecologic conditions, has been demonstrated to be capable of causing this reversal of trends, repairing past damage due to tillage agriculture (whether practised without or with heavy use of agrochemicals and energy), and restoring sustainability to soils’ productivity.

The fact that autonomous spread of CA occurs outward from farmers who have already made the transition demonstrates that its benefits are both welcomed and repeatable and that the appropriate CA systems are workable by farmers.

The further spread of CA into a wide range of other agro-ecological situations then depends on understanding the principles which underlie CA’s successes, and devising appropriate systems for each new situation, in which the practices enable the principles to have fullest positive effect.
10.3 ILLUMINATIONS

Now it is possible to work with a positive approach:

‘How can we make things even better, and in so doing avoid the old problems?’ rather than with the old negative approach:

‘How can we stop soil erosion?’

It is now possible to see:

• How and why well-applied CA works.
• How damaged land can become restored to usefulness and productivity.
• Why and how mismanaged soils degrade.
• How long bush fallows used to have their positive effects in extensive low-intensity agricultural systems, and why short breaks of recuperative grass were important (though not necessarily sufficient) in conventional tillage-agriculture systems.
• Why ‘soil erosion’ is a consequence, not a primary cause, of soil degradation.
• Why soil ‘in good condition’ limits the duration of climatic drought’s effects.

What is the real basis of sustainability in agriculture?

10.4 GREEN REVOLUTION, BLUE REVOLUTION

Following its many and widespread successes, the Green Revolution of the 1960s and 1970s based on HYVs and high inputs of fertilizer, pesticides and irrigation water appears to have reached plateaux of crop production, partly, at least on account of degradation of soil and water resources.

Conservation Agriculture appears to have the capacity also to raise but also stabilise yields, to restore productivity of damaged soils, and to improve supplies of usable water. Because water is likely to become increasingly scarce with respect to rising demands, perhaps CA deserves to be called the coming ‘Blue Revolution’.

10.5 THINK LIKE A ROOT, LIKE A RIVER

Perceiving the soil as a biotic entity encourages thinking about not only soil organic matter but also soil biotic processes. Broadening this to considering how these are linked with catchments’ yields of plants and of water also suggests ‘Think like a root; think like a river’ as a way of working out what features of the soil in a particular situation would be most appropriate for both those yields to be achieved on a recurring basis. If, when both need improvement, they are treated only as separate subjects there is danger that the solutions proposed for one problem – poor crop yields – may become
problematic for the achieving; other – water yields, and vice versa. This takes you back into the body of this paper with its pointer that, in particular, the porosity of soil and how that is improved and maintained is a key to ameliorating both problems together. For example, construction of big dams as a solution to water-shortage problems almost always has been without giving timely prior attention to improving the conditions of the soil in the catchment, with consequent resulting loss of capacity by sedimentation much faster than assumed. Conversely, application of unnecessarily high quantities of mineral fertilizers to croplands which have poor and unimproved porosity can result in pollution of the streams that flow from the catchment to which they were applied.

10.6 REPLACING THE ‘TILLAGE PRESUMPTION’
The successes of well-managed Conservation Agriculture systems point to the occurrence of a positive revolution in practice, behind which is the revolution in thinking on the part of the farmers involved, and on the part of those who assist and advise them. While much of ‘the message’ spreads farmer-to-farmer within and between generations, this is not yet necessarily, nor automatically, so in the case of those institutions responsible for pre-and in-service training of future advisers and others serving the farmers. The concepts, key components and effects of Conservation Agriculture need now to form the core of such training, such that the ‘tillage presumption’ no longer occupies that upper position.

10.7 REDUCING THE REASONS FOR FIGHTING OVER ACCESS TO WATER AND LAND
The widespread adoption of CA principles and practices will make positive contribution to food supplies and food security and to the greater availability of clean water in groundwater and streams. This will delay and minimize the pressures to fight over access to farmland and water supplies as adverse effects of both population increase and climate change together put increasing pressures on these vital resources.

10.8 GOOD LAND HUSBANDRY
Well-managed and effective systems of conservation agriculture provide excellent examples of good land husbandry, of which a prime effect is revivification and maintenance of soil health for crop intensification and ecosystem services. The excellent soil conditions which can develop and be maintained with well-managed conservation-effective agricultural systems provide the criteria against which all other forms of soil management should be compared.
11. Envoi

'Such people [are] driven by a desire to make no-tillage as sustainable and risk-free as possible, and in the process make food production itself sustainable for the first time in history. … The results have been significant and will have far-reaching consequences'.

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ANNEX 1

Soil health

While there is much talk of ‘soil quality’ as if it were a static and sufficient characteristic, there is less-frequent mention of ‘soil health’, referring particularly to the biological dynamics of soil quality.

“Below are 1) the ideas of David Wolfe at Cornell University and 2) Peter Trutmann’s comments on Doran and Zeiss’ definition of soil health that appeared in Applied Soil Ecology (15:3-11) during 2000:

‘1) Soil health refers to the integration of biological with chemical and physical approaches to soil management for long term sustainability of crop productivity with minimal impact on the environment. “Healthy” soils maintain a diverse community of soil organisms that: help to control plant disease, insect and weed pests; form beneficial symbiotic associations with plant roots (e.g., nitrogen fixing bacteria and mycorrhizal fungi); recycle essential plant nutrients; improve soil structure (e.g., aggregate stability) with positive repercussions for soil water and nutrient holding capacity; and ultimately improve crop production. Examples of management practices for maximizing soil health would include: maintaining vegetative cover on the land year-round to increase organic matter input and minimize soil erosion; more reliance on biological as opposed to chemical approaches to maintain crop productivity (e.g., rotation with legume and disease-suppressive cover crops); and avoiding use of heavy equipment on wet soils to avoid soil compaction.

David W. Wolfe, Ph.D.
Professor, Dept. of Horticulture
Cornell University
Ithaca, NY

‘2) Soil health is the capacity of soil to function as a vital living system, with ecosystem and land use boundaries, to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and promote plant and animal health (Doran and Zeiss, 2000, Applied Soil Ecology 15:3-11). This definition indicates need of the soil to function as a vital living system to sustain biological productivity, promote environmental quality and maintain plant and animal health. To us ‘soil health’ emphasizes a unique property of biological systems, since inert components cannot be sick or healthy. Management of soil health thus becomes synonymous with ‘management of the living portion of the
soil to maintain the essential functions of the soil to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and promote plant and animal health’.

Dr. Peter Trutmann
Director
International Integrated Pest Management
Cornell University
Ithaca, NY 14853-4203

Both statements dated 2000 or later.

ANNEX 2

A few, out of many, titles of additional relevant references


Appendix 2

Philippines Room C277

Investing in sustainable crop intensification: The case for improving soil health technical background & agenda

“Despite the artistic pretensions, sophistication and many accomplishments of mankind, we owe our existence to a six-inch layer of topsoil and the fact that it rains”.

Pinned on Don Meyer’s office wall /? Confucius

1. PRESSURES AND PROBLEMS
With growing human populations and ever-more limited areas of land suitable for lateral expansion of agriculture, higher production of vegetation per unit area is essential for future security of food and other agricultural products.

At the same time, water supplies are becoming less reliable. Plant growth, streamflow and groundwater availability are being adversely affected, situations which climate changes are likely to worsen.

In the majority of rainfed areas of the tropics and subtropics, the agricultural productivities of soils, of water, of nutrients, and hence of the rural livelihoods that depend on them, are not being sustained. For those already poor, their livelihoods are becoming increasingly insecure.

There is evidence – from both temperate and tropical regions – that, after clearing of undisturbed vegetation, whether in the recent or distant past, organic matter in the soil declines at first rapidly and then, over many decades, more slowly to very low levels if insufficient regular additions of organic

15 Complementing ‘Background’ in the TAA et al. Workshop Record, Newcastle University, 30-31 March 2007.
(carbon-based) materials are not regularly returned. Associated with this are depletions of nutrient reserves and of soils’ capacities to store soil moisture, resulting in decline in underlying production potentials.

This has been known for long by soil specialists but was never mainstreamed into development initiatives. Thus, techniques adopted for reducing rates of productivity loss or countering rising costs of maintaining average yields, avoiding soil erosion and minimizing flooding, have in many cases proved to be insufficiently effective. Production can thus prove unsustainable under ‘conventional’ practices plus commonly-recommended ‘add-ons’ such as some of the techniques aimed at soil and water conservation.

Merely proposing ‘strengthening’ conventional approaches, with or without improved plant genetic resources, is unlikely to remedy such a situation on lasting basis.

2. PRINCIPLES OF SOIL HEALTH FOR PRODUCTIVITY

From many physical landscapes, we expect the three-dimensional catchments which are clothed in soil to yield sufficient crops and other vegetation of various types and, simultaneously, volumes of clean water from streams and boreholes regularly on a repeated annual basis.

Plants, rivers and groundwater depend on water penetrating into soil which is porous from the surface downwards. Insufficiency of water for plants hinders the interacting functioning of the other components of soil productivity: biological, physical, and chemical.

The rate of entry of water into and through soil is governed by soil’s porosity, which in turn is governed by the volume and inter-connectedness of pores able to transmit water. The volume and availability of water which plants can use is determined by the proportion of soil pores which can retain water against the force of gravity and yet can release that water in response to ‘suction’ exerted through roots as dictated by the plants’ physiology and atmospheric demand.

Insufficiency of water and/or of various nutrients required by plants for growth processes diminish the derived productivity of the soil in which they are growing, inhibiting full interactions in the plant-soil system. Inadequacy of plant nutrients hinders plant growth and development; severe water-stress stops the whole system.

Soil porosity is damaged or destroyed by compaction, pulverisation, and/or collapse due to degradation and loss of organic matter. Net loss of organic matter is caused by tillage of the soil, which results in accelerated oxidation of the carbon in the materials to carbon dioxide gas and its loss to the atmosphere.

Following such damages, appropriate soil porosity is regained and maintained chiefly through biotic transformation of the non-living fraction
of organic matter by its living fraction - soil-inhabiting fauna and flora - from micro-organisms such as bacteria to macro-organisms such as worms, termites and plants themselves. Their metabolic activity contributes glue-like substances, fungal hyphae etc. to the formation of irregular aggregates of soil particles, within and between which are the all-important pore-spaces in which water, oxygen and carbon dioxide flow and roots grow. These substances also contribute markedly to the soil’s capacity to capture and retain nutrient ions on organic complexes, and provide a slow-release mechanism for their liberation back into the moisture in the soil. For this activity and its effects to be maintained, a sufficient supply of new organic matter needs always to be available as a source of energy and nutrients to the soil organisms – not just to the plants alone.

If the conditions are kept favourable for biotic activity in the soil, this dynamic process of formation and re-formation of the porous soil architecture will continue from year to year, maintaining the capacities of landscapes thus treated to continue yielding vegetation and water on a recurrent basis, contributing to sustainability of such production processes.

Here lies the significance of maintaining ‘soil health’. For the purposes of deciding how best to manage the land to maintain its productivity, it is more appropriate to think of the soil primarily as a living biological entity interpenetrating the non-living components, and forming from the top downwards, rather than as a geological entity forming from the bottom upwards with living things in it at the top.

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Definition of ‘Soil Health’

Soil health is the capacity of soil to function as a living system, with ecosystem and land use boundaries, to sustain plant and animal productivity, maintain or enhance water and air quality, and promote plant and animal health. It emphasises a unique property of biological systems, since inert components cannot be sick or healthy. Healthy soils maintain a diverse community of soil organisms that help to control plant disease, insect and weed pests, form beneficial symbiotic associations with plant roots (e.g., nitrogen-fixing bacteria and mycorrhizal fungi); recycle essential plant nutrients; improve soil structure (e.g., aggregate stability) with positive repercussions for soil water and nutrient holding capacity, and ultimately improve crop production.

16 Derived by combining Doran and Zeiss; Wolfe; Trutmann, quoted together on http://ppathw3.cals.cornell.edu/mba_project/moist/TropSCORE.html
Examples of management practices for maximising soil health would include maintaining vegetative cover on the land year-round to increase organic matter input and minimize soil erosion, more reliance on biological as opposed to chemical approaches to maintain crop productivity (e.g., rotations with legume and disease-suppressive cover crops), and avoiding physical (mechanical) interventions which might compact, alter or destroy the biologically-created porous structural arrangements of soil components.

3. PUTTING PRINCIPLES INTO PRACTICE WITH CONSERVATION AGRICULTURE (‘CA’)
A growing number of farmers – on large and small farms in a rising number of countries – have successfully been developing crop-production systems which satisfy three important conditions favourable to biotic activity in the soil: (a) permanent cover of the soil with organic matter provided by a mulch of retained residues from the previous crop or fallow and by living cover-crops; (b) minimal soil disturbance by tillage, and preferably no tillage once the soil has been brought to good condition; (c) rotation of crops, (to include N-fixing legumes) which contribute to maintaining biodiversity above and in the soil and avoid build-up of pest-populations within the spectrum of soil inhabitants.

The generic name commonly used for such systems is ‘Conservation Agriculture’, in which the rate of accumulation of organic matter consistently exceeds the rate of its loss, and as such clearly distinguishes it from ‘conventional’ tillage agriculture (‘TA’).

Benefits which attract people at farm level include17:
- Labour, time and farm power are saved through reduced cultivation and weeding requirements.
- Lower variable costs because both operations and external inputs are reduced.
- Mechanical equipment has a longer life-span, lower repair costs, and consumes less fuel than with tillage agriculture.
- Less movement of machinery and equipment necessary in the field; less drudgery of repetitive work.

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17 After Pieri, Evers, Landers, O’Connell, Terry: ‘No-Till Farming for Sustainable Rural Development’. WB Agriculture & Rural Development. Working paper; and authors’ own observations.
18 In situations where farmers are at ‘starting points’ with regards to fertilizer use, the productivity of applied nutrients with CA increases dramatically, thus creating more incentives for smallholder farmers to increase their very low use of fertiliser, especially P which is limiting in many soils.
• More stable yields, particularly in dry years because more nutrients and moisture are available to the crops.
• Labour savings provide opportunities for diversification of enterprises and into other activities.
• Yields are increased even as inputs decrease, including lesser inputs of energy, lower demand for pesticides and lower demand for fertilizer although accompanied by greater unit efficiency of those which are applied18.
• Increased profits, in most cases from the beginning, in all cases after a few years, as efficiency of the production system increases.
• Most or all rainfall is harnessed as effective rainfall, with no runoff and no soil erosion, leading to longer and reliable moisture regime for crop growth, and improved drought proofing.
• Increase in biological nitrogen fixation, soil organic matter and carbon sequestration, cation exchange capacity, soil moisture-holding capacity, soil biota and general agro-biodiversity.

When increasing areas of land become covered by effective CA, these benefits extend onwards to the local community and beyond as ecosystem services, and to the three-dimensional catchments in which the farms are located:
• More constant water-flow in rivers/streams, improved recharge of the water-table/groundwater, with re-emergence of water in formerly dried-up wells and water sources / courses.
• Cleaner water because pollution, erosion and sedimentation of water bodies are reduced.
• Less flooding because infiltration increases; less damage from droughts and storms.
• Improved sustainability of production systems and enhanced food security.
• Increased environmental awareness and better stewardship of natural resources.
• Lower costs of municipal and urban water-treatment.
• Reduced maintenance costs of rural roads.
• Increased social interactions between members of the local community
• Improved livelihoods and rural life.

The rate and nature of such improvements due to CA are in positive contrast with what appears to be being achieved with conventional tillage agriculture (‘TA’).
4. SOIL HEALTH AND CONSERVATION AGRICULTURE

Present-day scarcities of food, other agricultural products and water, relative to ongoing and rising demands, are exacerbated by the poor condition of landscapes which yield them. In many parts of the world soils are acknowledged to be sick, in poor health, and falling in potential for self-sustaining productivity.

The similarity of this observation regarding soils with that of public health within humanity is strong. In terms of productive capacity: those in poor health function below potential and in various ways impose costs on those who rely on them. The capacity of both soils and people to continue functioning over time depends on the repetitive life-processes which give the capacity of cells to replicate, and thus continually to regenerate the body and to maintain its functions. They require regularly-repeated supplies of energy and nutrients which derive from photosynthesis by plants, from the capture and recycling of nutrients derived from geological processes, and on non-limiting supplies of water. Seen in this light, potentially-productive soils should properly be considered as biological entities rather than as geological residues.

While there is much talk of ‘soil quality’ as if it were a static and sufficient characteristic, there is less-frequent mention of ‘soil health’, referring particularly to the biological dynamics of soil quality. (A relevant definition of Soil Health has been given above).

If plants we see above-ground don’t thrive because soil is in poor condition, then probably the life below ground doesn’t thrive either (= is ‘sick’), for the same reasons, jeopardising the effectiveness of the mutual interdependence of the above-and below-ground parts of the soil/plant system. It is easy to see the symptoms above-ground, but more difficult (as yet) to discern and characterize them below the surface.

Soil in ‘good condition’ (static) or ‘good health’ (dynamic) benefits from the following:

(a) **Buffering against direct impacts** of solar radiation (esp. UV) and rainfall impact. It also needs: a substrate for (i) organic (= chemistry of carbon compounds) activity, especially re organic glues in soil architecture (the integral matrix of solids + spaces); (ii) the de-composition of raw carbon-rich materials by soil organisms, to provide plant-available nutrient reserves and to enhance soil’s cation exchange capacity (CEC) for their retention and slow-release. In addition, crops need least competition from weeds.

  *Provided by cover of organic matter* (esp. crop residues) over the soil surface.

(b) **Minimum disturbance of optimum soil architecture** once it has been achieved. This maintains optimum gaseous balance (esp. O₂:CO₂) in the porous matrix of the rooting-zone, limiting any accelerated oxidation and
thus unduly-high rate of loss of soil organic matter, as well as maintaining soil porosity for water-movement, retention and release at all scales. It also minimizes digging-up buried, dormant weed seeds, again minimizing competition from them.

Provided by using zero-tillage systems.

(c) **Significant supply of N for plant-processes**, to the extent possible/feasible by biological N-fixation, because of (i) minimal cost of provision (the N-fixing bacteria do it for free), (ii) prolonged availability in slow-breakdown/release organic molecules/compounds.

Provided by crop systems which include **legumes**.

(d) **Varied mixtures in crop-sequences** for several purposes: (i) cover; fodder; range of marketable species; (ii) varied rooting depths re greater access to water, nutrients; (iii) soil-improvement by organic-matter additions at all depths reached; (iv) avoiding build-up of pests, diseases (both above and below the surface) to damaging levels, by interrupting their life-cycles; and, by smothering them, also minimizing competition from weeds.

Provided by **crop rotations**.

The combination of these four requirements can be provided by the four features which characterize mature well-managed **Conservation Agriculture** systems, the focus of this Workshop.

**5. THE CHALLENGE: MAINSTREAMING CONSERVATION AGRICULTURE**

In some countries such systems which improve soil health and increase efficiency of factor-use in agriculture are now widespread across both varied types of country and varied types and sizes of farms. They have become established despite initial resistances -- intellectual, administrative, and financial -- which have gradually been overcome by persistence which built up sufficiently striking examples of success to reach the point of ultimate convincement of the doubters. Ultimately ‘a fair wind’- of increasing facilitation and assistance to those who then wanted to start - also developed.

However, to move from conventional tillage agriculture to effective CA requires much alteration in conventional thinking and attitudes about how agriculture should be undertaken not only on the part of the farmers but also of policy-makers, scientific experts and advisory staff. Retaining crop residues as mulch, using unfamiliar crops in rotation, changes in needed equipment etc., all may pose great operational and financial uncertainties to farmers, some of whom may nevertheless decide to start out without important e.g. advisory support or appropriate legislation to facilitate the transition. Others may
be less bold and watch how their innovative neighbours fare before ‘making the jump’. Nevertheless systems of CA have been ‘catching-on’ surprisingly rapidly, much of it through farmer-to-farmer contact.

However, in light of the problems increasingly posed by the combination of climate change, population increase, soaring food prices, and energy and production input costs to restoring, increasing and sustaining the productivity of land for vegetation and water, such systems deserve more than just tacit acknowledgement and approval.

The potential of CA to reverse decline in soil conditions and make production more secure is so significant a factor that farmers in any situation deserve to be encouraged and supported in practical ways to start and complete the transition to CA, to the benefit of themselves, their local and national communities, and to the on-coming generations.19

For this to be achieved, long-hallowed assumptions about agriculture and soils themselves may need to be re-examined as a basis for making appropriate improvements to their management. Then, appropriate support capacity needs to be brought together, and integrated into multi-faceted and co-ordinated initiatives among policy-makers, financial institutions, the private sector, administrators, research institutions, advisory and knowledge exchange bodies, and others, in response to the key requirements of, and in closest collaboration with, the members of ‘the front line’ – the farmers.

6. WORKSHOP OBJECTIVES
Following recommendations made at the conclusion of initial Workshop at Newcastle University, UK, on 30 and 31 March 2007, the organizers of this Workshop have invited stakeholders concerned with agricultural development in the tropics, subtropics and elsewhere to consider the demonstrated potentials of Conservation Agriculture (CA) to improve soil health, and hence productivity and sustainability, as a basis for crop and agriculture intensification and managing ecosystem services. The Workshop objectives are:

1. To describe the principles of Conservation Agriculture and demonstrate its benefits for farmers and societies to widen attention of potentially-supportive decision-makers in the broad fields of Field Practice & Development; Science & Technology, and Policy & Financing.

2. To discuss, suggest and agree the chief forms of interlinking decisions and action which would provide positive encouragement of, and support to, farmers to make and sustain their transition to beneficial CA systems as most appropriate to their different agro-ecological and socio-economic situations;

3. To pave the way for comparable forums to develop and function at continental, national and local levels;

4. To favour the development of an inter-connected ‘Community of Practice’ around the subjects pertaining to and the benefits deriving from Conservation Agriculture.
WORKSHOP AGENDA

22-24 JULY 2008, FAO, ROME

Day 1: 22 July 2008 (Tuesday)

BLOCK I

Presentation of Evidence of Successful Adaptation, Adoption and Spread of Conservation Agriculture in Different Developing Regions

08:30-09:00 Registration

09:00-09:45 Session I: Chair: Andrew Bennett
Opening Session:
- Welcome: James Butler (Deputy Director General, FAO)
- Background to the Workshop; Objectives of the Workshop, Process & Agenda, Expected Outcome: Francis Shaxson

09:45-10:30 Session II: Chair: Andrew Bennett
Global overview presentation on Soil Health and Conservation Agriculture: setting the scene: Theodor Friedrich
Rapporteurs: Andrew MacMillan & Norman Uphoff

10:30-11:00 Coffee Break

11:00-12:30 A range of cases from each region (20 min presentation, 10 min discussion each case) of evidence of successful adaptation, adoption and spread of Conservation Agriculture in different regions
Session III: Chair: Ivo Mello
Conservation Agriculture cases from Latin America
Brazil: Ademir Calegari
Paraguay: Rolf Derpsch
Argentina: Andres Silvestre Begnis
Rapporteurs: Roberto Díaz-Rossello, Paolo Galerani
Drafting Team Liaison: Bob Boddey

12:30-14:00 Lunch break

14:00-15:30 Session IV: Chair: Mark Holderness
Conservation Agriculture cases from Asia
China: Gao Huanwen  
Kazakhstan: Murat Karabayev  
North Korea: Kim Kyong Il & Kim Chol Hun

Rapporteurs: Long Nguyen, Fares Asfary  
Drafting Team Liaison: Pal Singh

15:30-16:00  *Tea break*

16:00-18:30  
**Session V: Chair: Andre Bationo**  
Conservation Agriculture cases from Africa  
Cases from Africa: Bernard Triomphe, Saidi Mkomwa & Josef Kienzle  
Kenya & Tanzania: Barrack Okoba & Wilfred Mariki  
Tunisia: Moncef Ben-Hammouda  
Swaziland: James Breen  
Madagascar: Jean-Louis Reboul

Rapporteurs: Reynolds Shula, Rachid Mrabet  
Drafting Team Liaison: Patrick Gicheru

Notes:

a. Chairs plus Rapporteurs from Sessions II to V: sum up, make first proposals for issues.

b. Working Groups the next day: to note specific issues for their Working Groups; plenary (Session IX & X) may identify more issues for each session.

c. Posters, slides, PowerPoints, video and audio recordings of farmers’ testimonies and/or time-sequences of changes of farms, fields, landscapes could be brought along and shown in the evenings of Days 1 and 2, and during session XIV on Day 3.

d. Guidance to Case Presenters on Day 1, Conveners and Rapporteurs, and Drafting Team Liaison is given in the Overview section above.

**Day 2: 23 July 2008 (Wednesday)**

**BLOCK II**

Three Investment Working Groups: (i) Field Practice & Development; (ii) Science & Technology, (iii); Policy & Financing, to discuss: (a) Principles, issues (including cross-cutting) & gaps; (b) Opportunities for investment; (c) Cross-sector ‘knowledge brokering’; (d) Contribution to an Action Plan (including next steps)

09:00-09:30  
**Session VI: Chair: Amir Kassam**
Explanation of the objectives and arrangements of the three parallel prime-topic Working Group sessions: Francis Shaxson & Theodor Friedrich

09:30-10:30 Session VII: Three Parallel Working Groups -- Three primary topics: Field Practice & Development; Science & Technology; Policy & Financing.

Field Practice & Development Working Group:
Co-Conveners: Martin Bwalya & Mark Laing
Rapporteurs: Rabah Lamar, Finton Scanlan, Keith Virgo
Drafting Team Liaison: John Ashburner

Science & Technology Working Group:
Co-Conveners: John Dixon & Nuhu Hatibu
Rapporteurs: Sayed Azam-Ali, Patrice Guillaume, Robert Abaidoo
Drafting Team Liaison: Pat Wall

Policy & Financing Working Group:
Co-Conveners: Norman Uphoff & Richard Mkandawire
Rapporteurs: Jennie Barron, Martin Rokitzki, Lamourdia Thiombiano
Drafting Team Liaison: Deborah Bossio

Notes: a. Participants: public, private and civil society stakeholders generalised/mixed across three prime interests/topics (Field Practice & Development; Science & Technology; Policy & Financing)

b. For each prime topic, the Working Group to discuss and identify:
   i. Principles, issues (including cross-cutting) & gaps
   ii. Opportunities for investment
      - providers of opportunities
      - investors in the opportunities
   iii. Cross-sector ‘knowledge brokering’
   iv. Contribution to an Action Plan

10:30-11:00 Coffee break

11:00-13:00 Session VIII: Parallel Working Group sessions continue as above (including preparing draft reports)

13:00-14:00 Lunch break
14:00-15:30  **Session IX: Chair: Will Critchley**  
Presentation and plenary discussion of reports of Working Groups on Field Practice & Development, and Science & Technology (45 min each)  
  i. Principles, issues (including cross-cutting) & gaps  
  ii. Catalogue of opportunities  
  iii. Cross-sector ‘knowledge brokering’  
  iv. Expressions of interest/commitments to an Action Plan  

15:30-16:00  *Tea break*  

16:00-16:45  **Session X: Chair: Rolf Derpsch**  
Presentation and plenary discussion of report of Working Group on Policy & Financing (i. – iv. as in Session IX) (45 min)  
**Notes:**  Action Plan Drafting Team to draft Action Plan in light of the regional presentations on Day 1 and Working Groups’ presentations on Day 2 (to work after hours in Nigeria Room C215) *(Drafting Team Coordinator: Andrew MacMillan)*  

Day 3: 24 July 2008 (Thursday)  
**BLOCK III**  
Three Working Groups to Discuss the draft Action Plan, and Adoption of the Action Plan  

09:00-09:30  **Session XI: Chair: Francis Shaxson**  
a. Presentation of first draft of Action Plan:  
   **Andrew MacMillan**  
b. Explanation of the objectives and arrangements of the three  
   Working Group: **Amir Kassam & Theodor Friedrich**  

09:30-11:00  **Session XII: Three parallel Working Groups to discuss draft Action Plan; each Group specifically focussed on a prime topic (Field Practice & Development; Science & Technology, Policy & Financing):**  

*Field Practice & Development Working Group:*  
Convener: Bernard Triomphe  
Drafting Team Liaison: John Ashburner
Science & Technology Working Group:
Convener: Des McGarry
Drafting Team Liaison: Pat Wall

Policy & Financing Working Group:
Convener: Simon Hocombe
Drafting Team Liaison: Deborah Bossio

Notes:

a. Participants in each group: by common interest/specialization in the specific topic (Field Practice & Development, Science & Technology, Policy & Financing)
b. Each Working Group to review: how can each of the primary topics, as represented by that particular topic-group, contribute to the Action Plan?

11:00-11:30 Coffee break

11:30-13:00 Session XIII: Convener: Norman Uphoff
Working Group presentations and plenary discussion (30 min each Group) on the revisions to the draft Action Plan

13:00-14:00 Lunch

14:00-15:30 Session XIV: Convener: Long Nguyen
Poster presentations from participants. (Action Plan Drafting Team to consolidate and finalize the Action Plan)

15:30-16:00 Tea break

16:00-17:00 Session XV: Convener: Andrew MacMillan
Adoption of the Action Plan

17:00-17:30 Closing session: Eric Kueneman
### APPENDIX 3

**List of participants**

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<tr>
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This publication is a report of a Workshop that brought together people from a wide range of institutions - farmers, researchers, extensionists, policy makers, donors - from 40 countries who share a common concern about the non-sustainability of ways in which farm land is now being used and who are convinced that this must change. The Workshop focused on the growing evidence of success in the adoption and spread of Conservation Agriculture (CA) systems in developing countries. CA-based approaches to sustainable production intensification are highly relevant to the global response to rising food and energy prices, increasing soil and environmental degradation, pervasive rural poverty, climate change and increasing water scarcity. The main outcome of the Workshop is 'A Framework for Action', reflecting on actions that would help to upscale the take up of CA, thereby enabling land to be farmed more productively, profitably and sustainably.