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Africainteract

Enabling research-to-policy dialogue for adaptation to climate change in Africa

# Research and Policies for Climate Change Adaptation in West Africa Agriculture SUMMARY



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## Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACMAD	African Centre of Meteorological Application for Development
AGRHYMET	Agro-Hydro-Meteorology
APSIM	Agricultural Production System Simulator
CA	Conservation Agriculture
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CILSS	Comité permanent Inter-État de Lutte contre la Sécheresse au Sahel
CIMMYT	International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center
CORAF/WECARD	Council for Agricultural Research and Development in West and Central Africa
CSRP	Subregional Commission for West Africa
DFID	Department for International Development
ECOWAP	Regional Agricultural Policy for West Africa
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ENDA-TM	Environnement et Développement du Tiers-Monde
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FARA	Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIZ	Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
GEF	Global Environment Facility
ICRISAT	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agriculture

ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
ISFM	Integrated Soil Fertility Management
IWMI	International Water Management Institute
LGP	Length of Growing Period
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NARES	National Agricultural Research and Extension System
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
ROPPA	Network of Farmers and Agricultural Producers Organizations of West Africa
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
WAEMU	West African Economic and Monetary Union

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## 1. Introduction

Climate change has continued to threaten agricultural production and productivity in Africa. Vulnerability of African countries to the impact of climate change continues to increase, making Africa one of the most exposed regions in the world to climate change (Boko et al. 2007). Although evidence confirms the occurrence of climate change, there is uncertainty regarding the impacts of climate change on , nations, communities and sectors. This uncertainty renders policy formulation difficult and underscores the need for Africa to build its knowledge base to strengthen the capacity of regional and national institutions to develop the evidence base for addressing climate change adaptation issues.

With support from the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), AfricaInteract and CORAF/ WECARD commissioned a desk review of research and policies related to climate change adaptation in the West Africa agricultural sector. . This review was designed to provide

the knowledge base and to support research-based policy formulation for climate change adaptation in the agricultural sector in West Africa.

In conducting this review; answers were sought to the following questions:

1. What is the role of climate change challenges in the context of the multiple challenges and opportunities facing the agriculture sector in the region?
2. What is the current state of knowledge on adaptation to climate change in the agricultural sector in the region?
3. What is the current state of knowledge on whether and how research findings are integrated in agriculture sector policies in the region?
4. What are the major gaps in research on adaptation to climate change in the agricultural sector?
5. What is needed to ensure that research findings are better integrated into agriculture sector policies?
6. What is the current state of knowledge on the stakeholders involved with research and policy on adaptation to climate change in the agricultural sector in the region, and how could stakeholder involvement be improved?

This publication is a summary of the main report published by CORAF/WECARD and Future Agricultures.

### **Definition of Key Concepts**

***Vulnerability:*** Vulnerability is the degree to which a system is susceptible to, and unable to cope with adverse effects of climate change, including climate variability and extremes. Vulnerability is a function of the character, magnitude and rate of climate change and variation to which a system is exposed, its sensitivity and its adaptive capacity (IPCC 2007a).

***Adaptation to Climate Change:*** According to IPCC (2007a), adaptation comprises initiatives and measures to reduce the vulnerability of natural and human systems against actual or expected climate change effects.

***Coping Strategies:*** Coping strategies are ex-post reactions to the occurrence of a risk event adopted to survive the impacts of a disaster (CGIAR 2009). They are typically immediate short term responses which may break down under extreme stresses.

**Resilience:** Resilience is defined as the ability of a social or ecological system to absorb disturbance, caused by climate change while retaining the same basic structure and ways of functioning, the capacity for self-organisation and the capacity to adapt to stress and change (IPCC 2007a).

**Climate Smart Agriculture:** Climate Smart Agriculture is defined as agriculture that sustainably increases productivity, resilience (adaptation), reduces /removes greenhouse gases (mitigation), and enhances achievement of national food security and development goals (FAO 2010). The concept encompasses improved practices along agricultural value chains, appropriate institutions and policy, adequate financing and investment.

## 2. Overview of the West Africa Agriculture Sector

West African countries are geographically grouped into Sahelian and Gulf of Guinea or Coastal agro ecological zones. Climate change may lead to changes in agro ecological zonation, and options for adaptation to climate change vary by zone (Adebayo et al. 2011). The dominant farming systems are smallholder rain fed annual and perennial crop farming, livestock rearing and fisheries. Livestock systems are agro-pastoral, pastoral and crop-livestock (Thornton et al. 2007). Nomadic pastoralists and semi-nomadic pastoralists are referred to as transhumance pastoralists (Bare 2011). The fisheries sector consists of marine fisheries, inland freshwater fisheries and inland aquaculture.

### 2.1 Key Development Indicators and Trends

According to the World Bank (2011a), the population of West Africa in 2009 was 306 million and is growing at an average rate of 2.65 percent (range of 1.4 percent (Cape Verde) to 4.2 percent (Liberia). Population density is variable from a low 9 persons/km<sup>2</sup> in Chad to a high 171 persons/km<sup>2</sup> in Gambia. Life expectancy is low, averaging 55 years, while infant mortality is high at 133 per 1,000 births. Male literacy ranges from 51 percent in Guinea to 90 percent in Cape Verde, averaging 63 percent.

Average GDP growth for West Africa was negative in 1980 and 1990, but since 2003 it has been positive, ranging from 3.0 percent to 5.9 percent but dropping back to 3.0 percent in 2009. Between 2000 and 2009, GDP growth averaged 4.6 percent. Total real GDP rose from US\$54bn in 1980 to US\$131bn in 2009; average real GDP rose from US\$3.9bn in 1980 to \$8.2bn in 2009.

In West Africa, the contribution of agriculture to GDP averaged 37 percent in 1980 and 25 percent in 2009.

## **2.2 Key Characteristics of the Climate**

In the West Africa region, average annual rainfall range from 250-550mm with a length of growing period (LGP) of 60-90 days in the semi arid zone (Sahel); to 1,500–4,000mm, LGP of 270-365 days in the coastal humid zone (Jalloh et al.; 2013; 2011a; 2011b). Seasonal characteristics of monsoon rainfall, seasonal rainfall amount and the intra-seasonal distribution show high inter-annual variability. Sunshine is uniformly high, especially in the semi arid and arid zones (2,500-3,000 hours per annum). Temperatures are high with mean annual temperature above 18°C; within 10 degrees north and south of the equator mean annual temperature is about 26°C with a range of 1.7-2.8°C, the diurnal range being 5.5-8.5°C. Between latitude 10°N and the southern parts of the Sahara, mean monthly temperature can rise up to 30°C. Maximum temperatures range from 30-33°C in countries along the coast to 36-39°C in the Sahel.

## **3. Scientific Evidence for Implications of Climate Change for Agriculture**

### **3.1 Crop farming**

Results of modelling have been reported for millet, sorghum, maize, rice, groundnut, beans, cassava, cocoyam and cotton in West Africa (see Jalloh et al. 2013; Nelson et al. 2010; Sarr et al. 2007; Sagoe 2006; Huq and Reid 2005). Roudier et al. (2011), showed a wide spread of yield changes ranging from -50 percent to +90 percent, for West Africa. The predicted climate change impact is larger in the northern Sudano-Sahelian countries (-18 percent) than in the southern Guinea countries (-13 percent) and the negative impacts on crop productivity increase in severity as warming intensifies. Besides temperature and rainfall, increases in the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere as a result of climate change may directly impact upon yield levels of certain crops.

Apart from crop yields, impacts of climate change have been assessed in terms of crop revenues and length of growing periods. Kurukulasuriya and Mendelsohn (2008) estimated a multinomial logit to predict the probability of agro ecological zones. Reductions in crop revenue reported in West Africa were between US\$9.2bn (-17 percent) and US\$17.4bn (-32 percent) for

the Parallel Climate model (PCM) and the Canadian Climate Centre model (CCC) respectively by 2100. Jones and Thornton (2009) studied arid and semi arid zones of sub-Saharan Africa including West Africa and found that under scenarios in which the emission of carbon is high, the number of reliable growing days (RGD) would drop below 90 days for several hectares of marginalised land. For a low emission scenario, the acreage would reduce by 50 percent. The significance of the finding is that if RGD drops below 90, rainfall may be so inadequate that maize cultivation will not be possible and cultivation of millet will be difficult.

### **Options for Strengthening Adaptive Capacity and Supporting Crop Farming**

Research and development practitioners have advocated the use of available adaptation options which are consistent with the aspirations of National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs) to improve the response of farmers to climate change and variability to support crop farming (Farauta et al. 2012; Adesina and Odekunle 2011; World Bank 2011b; Below et al 2010; Ngigi 2009; Woodfine 2009; Harrington et al. 2008; Howden et al. 2007; Sagoe 2006). Strengthening capacity of farmers involves making adaptation options available and accessible to them as well as providing training and extension services and access to credit (Zorom et al. 2013) and markets.

### ***Improved Varieties Tolerant to Climate Change Stresses***

Plant breeders at AfricaRice, the Africa Rice Centre, have identified, in rice breeding materials, including the indigenous African rice *Oryzae glaberrima*, several traits that contribute to drought tolerance. Molecular markers are used to tag genes that contribute to drought tolerance to speed up development of drought tolerant lines. Gene pools of wild or weedy rice species *O. barthii* and *O. longistamata* are also being exploited (Manneh et al. 2007). In West Africa, the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) and the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) have released new maize hybrids and open pollinated maize varieties which are drought tolerant and produce 20-50 percent higher yields than other maize varieties under drought conditions (CGIAR 2010; CIMMYT 2008).

### ***Adjustment of Planting Date and Cropping Systems***

Mathematical modelling of daily maximum and minimum temperatures for selecting the best planting dates resulted in minimising the total irrigation water requirements for maize in a conditions of water shortage and competing uses (Kra and Oforu-Anim, 2010). Researchers showed that up to 96 percent more irrigated area could be brought under irrigation without additional irrigation water through optimum planting date selection in the coastal savannah zone of Ghana. In another modelling study involving Ghana, Burkina Faso, Niger and Senegal,

date of planting together with crop sequence was found to be a climate change adaptation strategy.

### ***Crop Residue Management***

Smallholder farmers in West Africa usually dispose of crop residues by burning, thereby releasing CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere. Numerous reviews (for example Schlecht et al. 2006; Bationo and Buerkert 2001; Bationo et al. 1996) point out the benefits of crop residue restitution to soil organic matter content, water holding capacity and agricultural productivity in West Africa. The practice is therefore considered climate smart.

### ***Integrated Soil Fertility Management***

Integrated Soil Fertility Management (ISFM) stipulates the judicious combination of organic materials (animal manures, crop residues, green manures or composts) with mineral fertilisers and use of N-fixing legumes to improve fertiliser use efficiency and soil and crop productivity (Vanlauwe 2004). For swamp rice cultivation, improving fertiliser efficiency by reducing losses of N<sub>2</sub>O gas to the atmosphere is climate smart. The International Center for Soil Fertility and Agricultural Development (IFDC) demonstrated improved N fertiliser efficiency and increased rice yields from deep placement of urea in West Africa. .

### ***Soil and Water Management***

Good soil and water management are prerequisites for efficient use of water, especially in situations of declining rainfall in the Sahel and semi-arid zones (Ngigi 2009), and thus these are invaluable in combating the effects of climate change. Technologies for efficient soil and water management including provision of soil cover, minimum or no tillage, rainwater harvesting and irrigation have been developed.

### ***Agroforestry***

The use of trees and shrubs in agroforestry systems helps to tackle the triple challenge of achieving food security, mitigating climate change and increasing the adaptability of agricultural systems (Torquebiau 2013; FAO 2010). Research on climate change in agro forestry systems in West Africa has focused attention on carbon sequestration potential and effect on soil fertility (Asare et al. 2008; Takimoto et al. 2008; Woomer et al. 2004). Thus carbon sequestration by traditional agricultural parklands in Senegal was estimated at only 0.4t/ha/yr with a potential of 20t/ha in 50 years (Tschakert 2004); this finding led to the conclusion that in the West African Sahel, agroforestry seems more valuable for climate change adaptation than for mitigation (Torquebiau 2013). In Mali, Takimoto et al. (2008) reported that the potential to sequester carbon in traditional agricultural parklands was greater than in live fences and fodder banks. In coastal zone countries, it was shown in Ghana that traditional shaded cocoa stored 155t/ha compared to 72t/ha for unshaded intensive cocoa (Asare et al. 2008). The productivity of the

cocoa was higher in unshaded farms than shaded farms, indicating a trade-off between cocoa productivity and carbon stocks.

### ***Biotechnology***

Genetically modified organisms (GMOs) constitute a technological option for adaptation to climate change through improved effectiveness of insect pest management (Howden et al. 2007). ECOWAS, WAEMU and CILSS are harmonising regional biosafety regulations (Knight and Sylla 2011) while Burkina Faso, Mali, Ghana and Nigeria have enacted legislation allowing field trials of GM products.

### ***Reducing Post Harvest Losses, Improving Marketing and Value Addition***

In Sierra Leone in the hot humid coastal zone, research (Government of Sierra Leone 2004) has shown a range of crop losses depending upon the climate adaptation actions : 20 percent for rice and 40-50 percent for fruits and vegetables. Recovery rate is 40-50 percent of oil from palm bunches and 40 percent for green coffee beans by traditional methods. Technology is available to substantially reduce these losses, for example rapid drying after harvest to moisture content of 14 percent or less, use of mechanical rice and coffee hullers and oil palm mills. The predicted temperature rise from climate change will increase post harvest losses of annual crops, and thereby vulnerability of farmers to climate change, if corrective measures are not taken.

### ***Weather Forecasting and Early Warning Systems***

Modelling studies have provided better understanding of the utility of weather forecasts to smallholders. Seasonal forecasts improved farmers' situation in bad years and farmers benefited from improved incomes. . The IDRC/DFID programme showed through PAR how weather forecasting, taking into account indigenous knowledge can be successfully used to strengthen farmers' adaptive capacity to climate change (CCAA 2012).

### ***Insurance***

Index based insurance (which correlates strongly with farmers' production outcomes) can serve as a buffer against climate extremes (Ngigi 2009). Muamba and Ulimwengu (2010) studied the viability of rainfall insurance for maize producers through a mathematical programming approach in 12 districts in the northern region of Ghana. They concluded that rainfall insurance may not be applicable in all districts but may be satisfactory in districts that exhibit a positive correlation coefficient between maize yield loss and indemnity payments; and that rainfall may not be an ideal index for losses. Some smallholder farmers in Ghana have been able to insure their crops against climatic risk through the Ghana Agricultural Insurance Programme (GAIP).

### 3.2 Livestock Raising in a Multi-Stressor Context

Climate change is likely to have major impacts on poor livestock keepers in SSA and on the natural resources on which they depend. Impacts on the arid-semi arid livestock system (LGA) for all but two West African countries are predicted to be strong. In general, impacts of climate change for livestock raising include changes in the productivity of forage, reduced water availability, land use, species composition, quality of plant feed material, changing severity and distribution of livestock diseases and changes in the marketing and prices of livestock products (IUCN 2010; Thornton et al. 2007).

#### ***Water and Feeds, Changes in Primary Productivity and Species Composition***

Livestock demand for water increases as temperature increases. For *Bos indicus* water intake increases from about 3kg per kg dry matter intake at 10°C ambient temperature to 5kg at 30°C and to about 10kg at 35°C (NRC 1981, Thornton et al. 2007). The effect of climate change on livestock production is generally expressed through changes in feed resources, which could influence feeding options, grazing management, prices of stover and grain, cost of feeds and overall livestock productivity.

#### ***Livestock Health***

Climate change impacts on vector borne diseases, for example predictions of climate and population change on tsetse fly density indicates that tsetse populations and animal trypanosomiasis will decrease in the semi arid and sub humid zones of West Africa. In addition to vector borne diseases, helminth infections of small ruminants will be influenced by changes in temperatures and humidity.

#### ***Genetic Improvement and Tolerance to Stress***

Genetic improvement of livestock is an important technological option for adaptation to climate change and other stresses. The West African Dwarf sheep is robust and has strong sexual vigour that enables it to withstand the stress of climate, disease and irregular feeding and has different coat colours. In Nigeria, Fadare et al. (2012) studied the effect of coat colour on heat stress, using physiologic indicators and blood parameters and showed that selection of white coloured sheep to control heat stress is desirable.

### 3.3 Vulnerability and Adaptation of Pastoral Systems

Restriction of transhumance, loss of access to key resources and sedentarisation policies leading to land degradation are the stresses pastoralists have to contend with apart from climate change. Impacts of climate change and variability on agro-pastoral and pastoral systems in Niger, assessed through farm surveys, reveal that increased labour emigration, increased

dependence of households on remittance from labour migrants, increased ownership of livestock by non-livestock specialists. It also increased need to supplement livestock feed and reduced livestock mobility were the major effects over the past two decades (CGIAR 2009).

### **3.4 Vulnerability and Adaptation of Fisheries and Aquaculture Systems**

Projected climate change, population and market changes acting together cause major declines in fish stocks in West Africa, if adaptation measures are not undertaken (Warren et al. 2006, cited in IPCC 2007; Allison et al. 2005; ECF/PIK 2004). Lam et al. (2012) used models to estimate that total landings of 14 West African countries will drop by about 8 eight percent and 26 percent from 2000-2050 for a low and high greenhouse gas emission scenario respectively. In addition, the study indicated that the Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) of Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Togo, Nigeria and Sierra Leone will experience over 50 percent reductions in landings under a high emission scenario. The total landed value was estimated to drop from US\$732m to US\$577m between 2000 and 2050 for the high emission scenario.

#### ***Aquaculture***

Omitoyin and Tosan (2012) found that the proportion of artisanal fisherfolk involved in aquaculture in Lagos State is increasing as a form of climate change adaptation (diversification), because of the dwindling size and diversity of fish catch from open waters resulting from climate change. ,

Studies on the breeding of Tilapia (Eknath et. 2007) and the stocking density of Tilapia and the African catfish in Côte d'Ivoire (Coulibaly et al. 2007; Ouattara et al. 2003) suggested that aquaculture fish improvement and management can serve as adaptation strategies to climate change and variability. WorldFish has developed an improved variety (Akosombo) of the Nile Tilapia that grows 30 percent faster than non-improved varieties and is now boosting productivity in West Africa (Spore 2013a). WorldFish is also working with partners in SSA to refine integrated aquaculture-agriculture technologies and cycling of nutrients on farms; this work has relevance to West Africa and is climate smart.

#### ***Insurance***

Insurance in the aquaculture sector in West Africa is poorly developed and insurance is being advocated as a risk management strategy to combat climate change. A case study conducted in the Ondo and Ekitii states of southern Nigeria found that only 8.3 percent of fish farmers were insured by private companies. Only 33.5 percent of those insured were compensated by

insurance companies after the incidence of floods, and the compensations were delayed. Only 12.8 percent received financial aid from the government after a flood (Adebo and Ayelari 2011).

## **4. Sector Policies for Climate Change Adaptation in West Africa Agriculture**

### **4.1 Climate Change Considerations in Continental and Regional Agriculture Sector Policies**

NEPAD's Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), lists the '*vagaries of climate and consequent risks*' as one of six challenges to achieving a productive agriculture. 'Land and water management', which is very important for adapting to climate change, is a Pillar of CAADP. In addition, the environmental initiative of NEPAD prioritises climate change as one of 10 programmatic areas. Africa Union's concern for climate change is also elaborated in its policy framework for pastoralism in Africa (AU 2010).

The ECOWAS Regional Agricultural Policy for West Africa (ECOWAP) and the Offensive for Food Production and Against Hunger (ECOWAS 2005) are the framework of reference that provide the principles and objectives assigned to the agricultural sector and to guide interventions in agricultural development in West Africa. ECOWAP recognises that deterioration of climate characterised by reduced rainfall and high temperatures and flooding, are important challenges for West Africa's agriculture to increase productivity while protecting the natural resources base and boosting production systems resilient to climate change.

### **4.2 Agriculture Considerations in Regional and National Climate Change Policies**

In 2010, ECOWAS adopted a Regional Action Program to Reduce Vulnerability to Climate Change in West Africa (ECOWAS 2009a; 2009b). It was agreed at the International Conference for Reduction of Vulnerability to Climate Change of Natural, Economic and Social Systems in West Africa of 2007 held in Burkina Faso and the 2008 Ministerial Meeting on Climate Change in Benin to develop and implement a programme of action to reduce vulnerability of West Africa and Chad to climate change. CILSS, the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and ACMAD were mandated to develop the programme. The goal of the ECOWAS programme is to develop regional mechanism, actors and capacity to provide support to governments and communities to adapt to climate change. The low income developing countries in West Africa developed NAPAs under the guidance of UNFCCC while Nigeria, Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire developed national adaptation documents separately. Gender was strongly emphasized in the development of some NAPA of Burkina Faso.

## **5. Research Gaps in Climate Change Adaptation and Sector Policies in West Africa Agriculture**

Studies in West Africa on adaptation research and policy reveal incomplete technical knowledge of how to adapt sustainably to climate change in agriculture and weakness in policy formulation and implementation (CGIAR 2011; Sultan et al. 2010; FAO 2010; 2008; Ngigi 2009; Thornton et al. 2007; Huq and Reid 2005). This section summarizes gaps in knowledge and deficiencies in research and policy for adaptation to climate change.

### **5.1 Key Research Gaps and Challenges**

#### ***Crops***

In West Africa, knowledge is lacking in several thematic areas such as (i) how, in response to climate change, farmers shift to different crops, affecting feeding habits, nutrition and cultural norms; (ii) conservation agriculture; (iii) adaptation at the watershed level; and (iv) on the productivity of biofuel crops in water stressed environments. Improved varieties of *Jatropha* are not available to be promoted as a biofuel crop in Mali and Ghana. Limited research has been conducted on climate change and tree crops/agroforestry.

#### ***Livestock/Pastoral Systems***

Research gaps in adaptation research in the livestock/pastoral sectors include limited knowledge of the following: vegetative composition and biodiversity of rangeland ecosystem under changes in grazing pressure; rangeland restoration, seeding and water retention techniques; appropriate livestock species mix under changing climate based on different physiological and nutritional characteristics; changing phenotypic variation in herds and their resilience to climate change; genetic characterisation of indigenous animals; animal breeding systems for meeting the challenges of improving productive traits while maintaining adaptive traits; preservation of animal genetic diversity as a global insurance against unanticipated change; and limited tools (models) and methods to determine adaptation options which may be appropriate for various situations.

#### ***Fisheries***

The key gaps in marine fisheries research include limited knowledge on fishing stocks in the EEZs, value of the stocks, decline and change in habitats. Others include quantification of scenarios combining climate to fish models and lack of knowledge on species that could adapt

to new environments (Badjeck and Diop 2010). Knowledge in aquaculture is inadequate in relation to new strains of aquaculture species tolerant to lower quality water and higher levels of salinity induced by climate change and management for high productivity.

### ***Cross Cutting Gaps***

Weaknesses in understanding the wide-ranging processes underlying the performance of markets, ecosystems and human behaviour contributes to the uncertainties associated with modelling the impacts of climate change in the agricultural sector (Nelson et al. 2013). Available methods are unreliable for the predictability of the onset of the rainy season and intra-seasonal variability and how to design weather forecast applicable for smallholder situations. There is also limited knowledge on the applicability of index based insurance for smallholders. Other areas of limited knowledge are: (i) climate change adaptation through control of plant and livestock diseases; (ii) thresholds in natural systems beyond which adaptation may be very difficult

(iii) assessment of the effectiveness of adaptation options and understanding likely adoption rates, (iv) trade-offs, costs and returns of adaptation strategies; (v) effective ways of communicating climate change information and its consequences on livelihoods and the environment; (vi) women's strategic interests (access to land and credit, decision making power, etc.) in responding to climate change and variability; and (vii) relative benefits of promoting regional and global trade for crops, livestock and fisheries products.

## **5.2 Key Policy Gaps and Challenges**

National policies in West Africa (for example - Nigeria, Ghana and Senegal) are more robust for technological practices than policies for non-technical risk management, for example trade. International trade is expected to play a critical role in climate change adaptation but there is poor understanding of how all of these will play out and the nature of appropriate policies.

One major weakness in West African countries is that climate change and adaptation do not feature in National Agricultural Development Policies and Strategies.

There are major policy gaps in several areas including (i) strengthening climate communication and information networks to improve timely delivery of weather information, (ii) protection of dry season reserves and livestock corridors from encroachment by crop farmers, (iii) integration of Sahelian and coastal zone livestock markets; (iv) transboundary control of water resources; and (v) management of marine fisheries resources in the Atlantic Ocean. Other areas include; strengthening capacity for flexible policies that continuously respond to changes; collaborative learning processes and understanding of the context in which decisions are made and the capacity of decision-makers to change; gender imbalance in access to factors

of production; mainstreaming gender into all climate adaptation policies and strategies; and weak institutional capacity to generate and utilise adaptation technologies.

## **6. Stakeholders and Opportunities for Research Collaboration on Climate Change in West Africa Agriculture**

### **6.1 Stakeholders**

A diverse range of stakeholder organisations in West Africa collaborate in research on climate change adaptation. Stakeholders include political and economic institutions, scientific/technical/development organisations, and farmers' associations.

#### ***Political and Economic Organisations:***

ECOWAS is responsible for regional integration of agricultural development initiatives and agricultural policies which are aligned to the Africa Union's NEPAD and CAADP. CILSS, with a membership of 13 West African states, is mandated to promote research on food security and desertification. CILSS has set up a website on technologies for food security and climate change adaptation and provides a portal on climate change.

#### ***River Basin Authorities***

River Basin Authorities in West Africa include the Niger Basin Authority, the Lake Chad Basin Authority, the Gambia Basin Authority, the Organization of Senegal River and the Mano River Union. Their mandates include promotion of inter-state cooperation for development of the national resources of the river basins; harmonisation of national development policies relating to water resources; development of projects and programmes; reducing the vulnerability of member states to climate risk; and promotion of sub-regional security.

#### ***Scientific, Technical and Development Organisations, Civil Society and Farmers' Organisations***

The National Agricultural Research and Extension Systems (NARES) in West Africa are major stakeholders for developing options to respond to climate change and other stresses. They work in partnership with CGIAR centres such as AfricaRice, IITA, and ICRISAT which have headquarters in Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria and Niger respectively. ILRI, the World Agroforestry Centre, IWMI and the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) have a strong presence in West Africa through projects. Major research efforts of national and international

research include developing improved plant materials or livestock and associated crop/livestock and soil management practices for increasing agricultural productivity and protecting natural resources. These technologies are particularly relevant in strategies for climate change adaptation.

Regional climate monitoring initiatives and early warning systems are operational in West Africa; initiatives include those of ACMAD and AGRHYMET Regional Centre. According to Niang (2007) ACMAD and AGRHYMET Regional Centre are regarded as centres of excellence in climate change related research in the West Africa.

Development partners include FAO, UNEP, UNDP, USAID, DFID, IDRC, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and NGOs. Some development partners have produced useful guides on mainstreaming gender into policies and tools for guiding policy development on climate change adaptation (FAO 2012) and adaptation tool kits (Enda 2013). IDRC, in partnership with DFID, has funded an important programme on Climate Change Adaptation in Africa (CCAA). GEF has provided funds for the development of NAPAs and implementation of some adaptation projects. GIZ has established a West African Science Service Center on Climate Change and Adapted Land Use (WASCAL), in Burkina Faso focusing on the Guinea savannah zone.

Several NGOs in West Africa work with smallholders on improving agricultural water management which is relevant to climate change adaptation. The Network of Farmers' and Agricultural Producers' Organizations in West Africa (ROPPA), is an important stakeholder in climate change adaptation issues

## **6.2 Opportunities**

According to Niang's (2007) opportunities for influencing policies on climate change in West Africa depend on the type of organisations. Thus, although many sub-regional organisations have links with political decision-makers, the nature of the link depends on whether they are (1) political organisations such as CILSS and WAEMU where Heads of State are the ultimate decision-makers; (2) organisations in which political decision-makers are represented at the highest levels, for example the river basin authorities; (3) organisations under government supervision such as AGRHYMET Regional Centre; and (4) independent organisations such as the NGOs.

Cost sharing opportunities in climate change adaptation matters involve national, river basin and regional organisations (Niasse 2007). These opportunities are: (1) collaboration in the establishment and use of decision support knowledge bases; (2) collaboration in the development and sustainable exploitation of trans-boundary natural resources and ecosystems; (3) identifying, promoting and disseminating appropriate climate change adaptation technologies; and (4) establishing a regional framework for consultation on climate change and impacts. The formal private sector (creditors, input suppliers, marketers) is grossly under-represented on climate change issues.

The space between researchers and technocrats (civil servants), through membership on boards of national research institutes, has not been fully exploited. CORAF/WECARD's current policy of promoting competitive grants demonstrates evidence of partnership between a range of stakeholders within countries is an opportunity for strong collaboration between climate change adaptation stakeholder organisations.

## **7. Conclusion and Recommendations**

### **7.1 Conclusions**

Smallholders in West Africa are highly vulnerable to climate change because of several social, economic and environmental factors. Climate change adaptation challenges for the agricultural sector are considerable, since smallholders operate in multi-stressor environments where productivity is determined by many interacting factors. Climate change has implications for population growth, water resources and demand, land resources and gender issues.

In West Africa, environmental temperatures will increase due to climate change with negative consequences for crops, livestock, pastoral and fisheries. Technological options originally designed to address issues of food security and conserve natural resources are relevant for climate change adaptation.

Critical gaps in research on climate change adaptation in the agricultural sector include: modelling scenarios, risk management on weather forecasting and communication, index based insurance, marketing and trade. Adaptation strategies are mainly short to medium term to respond to the immediate needs of resource poor farmers.

West African countries have made deliberate attempts for agricultural development policies to incorporate predicted climate change scenarios. Activities of the wide range of key stakeholders continue to promote strengthening capacity for climate change adaptation in West Africa.

## **7.2 Recommendations**

### **1. *Tackling climate change in the context of multi-sector challenges***

A comprehensive approach involving coordination of interdisciplinary research in the crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry sectors is recommended, recognising the cross-cutting issues of water, energy and gender.

### **2. *Improving adaptation to climate change by smallholders***

Improved access by smallholders to best agricultural practices, improved credit systems, through rural banks and microcredit schemes and improved access to markets are required to promote climate change adaptation. Farmer training activities should be conducted on the options for adaptation to climate change, for example reduction of post harvest losses and value addition to agricultural produce, as well as strengthening agricultural extension services to promote climate change adaptation.

### **3. *Filling gaps in research on adaptation to climate change***

Conventional scientific research and participatory action research should be adopted in climate change adaptation research. The right balance should be maintained between research for developing short term and long term strategies. New strategic research should be conducted in the context of existing initiatives at the national, regional and in collaboration with international research organizations of the CGIAR Centers.

#### ***i. Technical research on crops, livestock and fisheries***

Research themes and topics on climate change adaptation should include: a).crop and animal improvement for yield and tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses; b). effects of climate change on incidence of crop and animal pests and diseases; c). fine tuning conservation agriculture to biophysical and socioeconomic conditions for high smallholder uptake; livestock conservation of genetic diversity through gene banks; d) pasture improvement based on controlled grazing, mobility, e). fluctuating herd size and different livestock species; f). animal manure management; g). increasing quality and adding value to crops, livestock and fisheries products; h). nutritional value of processed products; i). improving efficiency of agricultural water use in the crops and livestock sectors;` j). reclamation of land degraded by salty water; k) prolonging the growing season; l). climate change and tree crops; screening and matching agroforestry species and plant populations with ecological zones and agricultural practices; and m). agroforestry and use of biochar as technologies for soil improvement and climate smart

agriculture. Work on climate resilient sustainable intensification of aquaculture, including identification of suitable stocks and increasing feed efficiency should be initiated.

**ii. Socioeconomics and policy research**

Research is recommended on the policy process and political factors influencing (i) priorities and climate change adaptation; land use patterns ; (ii) land use regulations and mobility of pastoralists; (iii) costs and returns of adaptation options, quantity and value of fish stocks;(iv) ex ante evaluation and effectiveness of adaptation options, , (v) adoption rates and determinants of adoption; (vi) analysis of existing marketing structures to improve efficiency and to determine how regional integration of markets and global markets will be important in responding to climate change;(vii) gender considerations in adaptation to climate change and variability; and(viii) effect of knowledge of climate change and variability on achievement of national development goals in poverty reduction, food security at national and regional levels.

**4. Risk management dealing with stocks, weather forecasting and insurance**

Risk management should involve feasibility studies of buffer stocks, improvement in the quality of meteorological data collection and weather forecasting tools and techniques as well as early warning systems to reflect the needs of farmers; innovative insurance schemes for smallholder crop farmers, livestock keepers and fisher folk.

**5. Improving policy formulation and how research findings can be better integrated into**

**Agricultural policies** Opportunities for regional policy planning and cooperation through ECOWAS, CILSS, the River Basin Authorities and ROPPA should be exploited. ECOWAS should intensify efforts in harmonising trade policies and fostering regional and sub-regional cooperation in the fisheries sector. Coherent marine fishing policies in the region and flexible arrangements should be set up to prevent overfishing, cope with the changing and dwindling marine stocks and arrest poaching by foreign trawlers. Multi-sectoral policy formulation must be flexible, gender sensitive and address gender imbalance in access to land and credit. For successful adaptation it is necessary to progress from policy formulation to enacting legislation and enforcing laws.

**6. Improving stakeholder involvement in research and policy on adaptation**

Collaboration between stakeholders within countries should be strengthened through Innovation Platforms and Participatory Action Research. Scientists should work together in

regional projects on climate change adaptation. The private business sector should be encouraged to participate in dialogues on climate change adaptation. Civil society, farmers' associations and journalists should be supported to link researchers with policymakers and be encouraged to participate with stakeholders in training and scenario building workshops. Donors should give higher priority to support negotiations in agriculture and climate change financing.

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