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Determinants of crop residue use along an intensification gradient in West Africa's savannah zones

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Abstract

The study compares and contrasts crop residue uses in 3 case study sites along an agricultural intensification gradient in the Sudano-Sahelian zone of Niger and Nigeria. It draws on data collected from 24 villages involving 480 households and employs a Tobit model to analyse the determinants of crop residue uses. . Internal service as livestock feed constituted the largest share across sites and crops—averaging 34-59% for cereal stover biomass and 70-80% for legume haulms. Internal service as soil amendment/mulching was largely limited to the most extensive systems. Sales of crop residues were the main external service/output. Internal service use was positively influenced by livestock ownership and contact with extension services. The overall pressure on crop residue use was especially high in the more intensive systems of the Kano region raising questions about system sustainability and livelihood security thereby calling for appropriate innovations to facilitate sustainable intensification.



1. Introduction

Crop–livestock systems and associated crop residue use in sub-Saharan Africa are socially, economically, and technologically diverse (McIntire and Gryseels, 1987; Mortimore, 1991; Leeuw, 1997; Valbuena et al., 2012). The retention of crop residues as soil amendment and particularly as mulch to reduce surface run-off, improve rain water infiltration, suppress weed growth and enhance soil health is being advocated in the context of conservation agriculture (Hobbs, 2007; FAO, 2008; Giller *et al.*, 2009). However, in mixed crop-livestock systems, crop residues have several other purposes among which its use as livestock feed exerts a particular challenge for eventual alternative uses. Households also use crop residues as fuel, roofing and house construction, and as a source of income through sales (Erenstein, 2003). Farmers may also prefer to burn residual crop residue in plots to ease land preparation/tillage and control pests and insects.

Crop residue management can be linked to population density and associated effects on crop-livestock integration and agricultural intensification (ILRI, 2003; Valbuena et al., 2012). For instance, along a population density gradient, crop-livestock interactions are first set to increase and may reach a maximum at an intermediate level of population density, after which crop and livestock specialization sets in resulting in lower crop-livestock interaction levels (McIntire et al., 1992; Erenstein and Thorpe, 2010). It has also been suggested that intensification is an endogenous process in response to increased population pressure (Boserup, 1965; Lele and Stone, 1989). Population growth has historically led societies to invest in land improvements and to adopt technologies that resulted in higher agricultural production per unit of land. As population density increases, changes occur in cropping techniques that at first involve expanding the area under cultivation or, when that is no longer feasible, shortening fallow periods and increasing the labor input to satisfy the higher demand for food (Boserup 1965, 1981). In direct contrast to the Malthusian perspective, Boserup's hypothesis was that the problem of population pressure gives rise to its own solution. The scarcity of land, by altering factor prices, results in its more intensive use (Lele and Stone 1989). This view of intensification, with its central tenets of factor substitution and technological change, is also consistent with the “induced innovation” model of Hayami and Ruttan (1985), who contend that changes in factor proportions will lead to the conservation of the more scarce resource (in this case, land) and to



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increased use of the abundant resource in production (in this case, labor). As the ratio of land to population decreases, farmers are thus induced to adopt technologies that raise return to land – which potentially could include using crop residues as soil amendment and mulching.

Crop-livestock systems are diverse and not only associated with population density, but also with differences in agro-ecology and economic opportunities, including the varied nature of the institutions that govern production relations in different agricultural systems. Agro-ecology for instance influences crop diversity and productivity and availability of alternative feed sources. Crop residues thereby provide an interface among crop, livestock and the environment, and its allocation and use likely involves trade-offs in terms of immediate livelihood interests and long term environmental sustainability (IITA 2010; Bationo and Buerkert 2001). One would thus expect crop residue management to have evolved in response to the system context – including crop residue types, farming systems, agro-ecology and market opportunity. Crop residues can provide internal services to the agricultural system when they are used as mulch, or for feed own livestock. They can also be providers of external services to agricultural systems when devoted to off-farm uses such as selling, ex-situ stall feeding etc.

Existence of trade-offs in agricultural systems, between agricultural and broad environmental or socio-cultural objectives had long been established (Vermeulen et al., 2011). The limited availability of fodder in crop-livestock systems had been associated with internal competition for the use of crop residues (Erenstein, 2002). How farmers use crop residues depends on individual preferences and the biophysical and socio-economic conditions (Ereinstein et al., 2010). In the face of competing demands of crop residues and to address the critical need to improve current on-farm productivity and efficiency without jeopardizing long-term environmental sustainability; better understanding of farmers' decision-making with respect to the use of biomass becomes imperative. The decision made by farmers at any time will favour short time on-farm productivity and efficiency or long-term economic benefits or both. However, immediate need for cash and the current discount rate could necessitate farmers' decisions to be detrimental to long-term environmental sustainability and benefits when full knowledge of long time benefits is lacking. It therefore becomes imperative to investigate drivers of farmers' decisions to use crop residues for internal services in order to guarantee both short term and long term benefits of productivity, efficiency and environmental sustainability.



This study analyses crop residue use in the Sahelian and Sudan savannah zones of West Africa. In this zone crop-livestock systems predominate and crop residues are an important feed source, used both in situ and ex situ (IITA 2010, Harries, 1999). Specifically, the paper quantifies crop residue uses in three case study sites along an intensification gradient, and assesses the determinants of their use as internal service/input to the agricultural production system or as an external service/output. The remainder of this paper will first discuss methods and then present the results. Study findings are then discussed before some conclusions are drawn.

2. Methodology

2.1 Data collection

This study purposely selected three case study areas in the semiarid Sahel and Sudan savannas along a gradient of population density and associated crop-livestock integration and agricultural intensification (*Kano–Nigeria; Maradi–Niger; Fakara–Niger*). The study sites can be ordered in terms of their crop production intensity as high for Kano, average for Maradi and low for Fakara (Table 1). The gradient reflects decreasing rainfall – from a high in Kano (the most Southern site) to a low in Fakara (in western Niger) – as well decreasing market access. In Kano sorghum, millet, cowpea and groundnut are the predominant crops, with millet increasingly replacing sorghum proceeding along the gradient. In Fakara, sorrel (*Rumex acetosa*, a perennial herb and leaf vegetable) is also an important crop. The cereals and cowpea are primarily grown for home consumption, whereas groundnut and sorrel are primarily grown for the market. Cattle, sheep and goats are the predominant livestock across the sites.

The study applied a multi-stage sampling technique to draw a sample from 24 villages and 480 households surveyed at the end of 2010 and early 2011. Each study site was first stratified based on market access reflecting distance to market centres and major roads from which a total of 8 villages were selected randomly. In each village a census was first conducted to list all household before 20 households were randomly selected (see Valbuena et al, 2012 for more details).



Insert Table 1 here

2.2 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics, such as mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions were computed and used for household characterization. A Tobit model was used to determine factors associated with crop residue use in the study areas.

Crop residue use can be categorized as an internal service/input to the agricultural production system or as external:

1. Internal service/input to agricultural production system (crop and/or livestock): primarily revolves around the use of crop residues as soil amendment (including mulching) and as livestock feed – either through in situ stubble grazing or ex situ through stall feeding.
2. External service/output to agricultural production system – i.e. uses other than those associated with the internal agricultural production system within the farm, including any off-farm uses and non-agricultural on-farm uses. This primarily revolves around crop residue sales and gifts, in situ burning, household fuel and construction.

The internal vs external service of crop residues corresponds to a large extent with the associated biomass and nutrient flows within or out of the agricultural production system. For instance, most crop residues fed to livestock on the farm will be converted to manure most of which is eventually returned to the crop field – either during stubble grazing or collected from stall feeding. However some of the external services may partially remain within or return to the agricultural system – for instance in case of ashes from in situ or ex situ burning and re-cycling of construction material.

2.2.1 Theoretical model

The theoretical model of the household's decision to utilize crop residues for internal services that promotes long time sustainability of land, productivity or efficiency is modeled as the adoption of a new technology and treated as a continuous but discrete choice (following Adesina and Zinnah 1993, Akinola et al., 2009).

It is assumed that the household makes the decision to use residues for internal services



that promotes sustainable use of land based on the utility that is derived from the chosen agricultural technique. The household chooses between those defined as internal services or external services decision is made based on the farming technique(s) that delivers the maximum utility

Household utility maximization is modelled to explain farmers' adoption behaviour following Caviglia and Kahn (2001) because households are both consumers and producers of goods. And since the farmers often operate under various market imperfections characterized by limitation by transportation, imperfection of information availability to consumers and, erratic production methods an expected utility maximization framework could be used to represent choices made under such market uncertainty.

An expected utility maximization model is developed based on the assumption that farmers' decision making is conditioned by resources available, knowledge they possess, and constraints which limit these activities. The household utility maximization model is based on the expected value of the non-observable underlying utility function that ranks the preference of the i th household according to the chosen crop residue use. The non-observable underlying utility function, U , is represented by:

$$E [U_{itT} (C_{it} (H_{it}, A_{it}), Z_{it})] \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

where C represents the household goods consumed, Z , is a group of other factors (including leisure), E is the expectations operator, T represents the crop residue choice ($T=1$ when internal services are on the lot and $T=2$ when external services are employed), i indicates the individual household, and t indicates the interview year.

Consumption of farmers is derived from observable socio-economic characteristics, H , (such as farm size, and age and education level of the household heads), and from observable



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crop residue characteristics where the technology refers to the crop residue usage chosen by the household. The choice of technology therefore determines farm yield and household income, which are influenced by the labour limitations of the family. Input and output levels of agricultural production will differ according to the farm technique. Although the utility is unobservable, the relation between the utility derived from a specific technology is a function of the vector of the observed farm and technology characteristics included in the utility measurement.

The family chooses between $E[U_{it1}]$ and $E[U_{it2}]$ depending upon which agricultural technology yields the greatest expected utility. The utility ranking of the chosen technology is therefore estimated from the vector of observable farm and technology characteristics as follows:

$$E[U_{iT}] = \alpha_{it} F_{it}(X_{it}) + e_{iT} \quad T = 1, 2 \quad t = 1, 2 \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

where e_{iT} is a normally distributed disturbance term.

The i th family will choose to export biomass (external services) from the farm if $U_{it1} < U_{it2}$, or if the latent variable $Y^* = U_{it1} - U_{it2} < 0$ and will choose using the biomass as an internal system when $U_{it1} > U_{it2}$, or if the non-observable latent variable $Y^* = U_{it1} - U_{it2} > 0$:

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } U_{it1} > U_{it2}, \text{ Internal services are adopted} \\ 0 & \text{if } U_{it1} < U_{it2}, \text{ External services are adopted} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

The probability that the household use crop residue for internal services (the probability that Y_{it} equals one), is a function of the independent variables:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{it} &= \Pr(Y_{it}) = 1 = \Pr(U_{it1} > U_{it2}) \\ &= \Pr[\alpha_1 F_{it}(X_{it}) + e_{it1} > \alpha_2 F_{it}(X_{it}) + e_{it2}] \\ &= \Pr[(e_{it1} - e_{it2}) > F_{it}(X_{it})(\alpha_2 - \alpha_1)] \\ &= \Pr[\mu_{it} > \alpha_2 F_{it}(X_{it})\beta] \\ &= F_{it}(X_{it}\beta) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$



where X is an $n \times k$ matrix of explanatory variables, and β is a $k \times 1$ vector of coefficients to be estimated.

The probability that the i th household use crop residue for the internal system is therefore the probability that the utility gained from external system' use less than the utility gained from the adoption of sustainable activities of internal system (the cummulation distribution function of F for i evaluated at X_i). If μ_{ij} is normal, F will have a cumulative normal distribution, and if μ_{it} is uniform then F is triangular. For the purpose of this analysis, μ_{it} is assumed to be normal, thereby necessitating the use of Tobit model.

The stochastic model underlying Tobit as suggested by Tobin (1958) can be expressed by the following relationship:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_t &= X_t \beta + u_t && \text{if } X_t \beta + u_t > 0 \\
 &= 0 && \text{if } X_t \beta + u_t \leq 0 \\
 &&& t = 1, 2, \dots, N,
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{Equation 5}$$

Where N is the number of observations, y_t is the dependent variable, X_t is a vector of independent variables, β is a vector of unknown coefficients, and u_t is an independently distributed error term assumed to be normal with zero mean and constant variance σ^2 . Thus the model assumes that there is an underlying, stochastic index equal to $(X_t \beta + u_t)$ which is observed only when it is positive, and hence qualifies as an observed, latent variable. The total change in y can be disaggregated into two very intuitive parts: (1) the change in y of those above the limit, weighted by the probability of being above the limit; and (2) the change in probability of being above the limit, weighted by the expected value of y if above. The estimates of the disaggregated variables as well as their marginal effects can then be obtained (following Amemiya, 1984; McDonald and Moffit, 1980).

2.2.2. Empirical model



The theoretical Tobit model was fitted with the collected data. The dependent variable is the proportion of crop residue used for internal services/input within the agricultural production system - which by definition mirrors and complements the proportion of crop residue external to the agricultural production system. The empirical model was specified as:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 HHAGE + \beta_2 HHEDU + \beta_3 GENDER + \beta_4 HHSIZE + \beta_5 TLU + \beta_6 CREDITAC + \beta_7 PLOTMANU + \beta_8 FERTPHA + \beta_9 OUTPUTPH + \beta_{10} CROEXT + \beta_{11} EXTLIVST + \beta_{12} KANOVAR + \beta_{13} FAKARVAR + \mu$$

(Equation 6)

The multidisciplinary explanatory / independent variables included farmer, farm and institutional factors postulated to influence adoption of technologies. These variables include age of the household head in years (*HHAGE*), years of education of the household head (*HHEDU*), household size (*HHSIZE*), aggregate livestock ownership (Tropical Livestock Units, *TLU*), access to credit (*CREDITAC*), distance of the field from the house measured in kilometres (*FIELDDIST*), total asset of the farmers in Nigeria Naira (*ASSET*). Others include training received on importance of crop residue use (*CROPEXT*) and training on crop-livestock integration (*EXTLIVST*). Moreover, variations associated with gradients of population density and associated crop-livestock integration and agricultural intensification are captured by the two region dummies of Fakara and Kano, *FAKARVAR* and *MARADVAR*, respectively (See Table 2).

The rationale for inclusion of these factors was based on previous agricultural technology adoption literature and the analysis of these systems (Feder et al. 1985; Nkonya et al. 1997; Oluoch-Kosura et al. 2001; Bekele and Drake 2003). The expected effect of age (*HHAGE*) on the use of crop residue is ambivalent and likely location- and technology-specific. Previous studies show that the age affect mental attitude to new ideas and influences adoption in several ways. Younger farmers have been found to be more knowledgeable about new practices and may be more willing to bear risk and adopt innovations because of their longer planning horizons. On the other hand, older farmers may have more experience, resources, or authority that may give them more possibilities for trying a new technology. .

Education (*HHEDU*) was hypothesized to positively influence the internal service use of crop residue. Education increases the ability of farmers to use their resources efficiently and the



allocative effect of education enhances the farmer's ability to obtain, analyze and interpret information (ibid.; Alene et al., 2000). Similarly, effect of education is expected to increase along the intensification gradient from Fakaya to Kano.

Household size (*HHSIZE*) has been identified to have either positive or negative influence on adoption (ibid.; Manyong and Houndekon 1997, Zeller et al. 1998 Bamire et al. 2002). However, in this study larger family size could be associated with a greater labor force being available to the household for the timely operation of farm activities including crop residue use. More labor hours could be used on collecting and transporting crop residue away from the farm. The study hypothesizes that increased household size could favour external service use. Moreover, since population increases along the intensification gradient, external service use is expected to increase across the intensification gradient.

Insert Table 2 here

Institutional factors of prior farmer training on crop residue use (*CROPEXT*) and crop-livestock integration (*EXTLIVST*) as well as access to credit (*CREDITAC*) are hypothesized to positively influence the internal service use. The training variable incorporates the information that the farmers obtain on their production activities on the importance and application of innovations through counseling and demonstrations by extension agents on regular bases. The effect of this information on adoption varies depending on channel, source, content, motivation, and frequency. The present study hypothesized that the respondents who frequently receive training have higher probability of adoption than those that do not (Adesina and Zinnah 1993; Shiferaw and Holden 1998; Bamire et al. 2002; Mazvimavi and Tmomi, 2009). We also expect access to training to increase along the intensification gradient. The variable, *CREDITAC*, takes cognizance of farmers' access to sources of credit to finance the agricultural activities and thereby boosts farmers' readiness to adopt technological innovations. It is hypothesized that the variable has a positive influence on the probability of the adoption and use of improved technologies (ibid.; Zeller et al. 1998). It is measured as a dichotomous variable with access



being one, and zero for no access. It is expected to reduce the need to sell crop residues and thereby enhance the internal service use and increase along the intensification gradient.

Measures of wealth, livestock ownership (*TLU*), and *ASSET* are hypothesized to enhance the internal service use of crop residue and to increase along the intensification gradient (Shiferaw and Holden 1998; Zeller et al. 1998; Negatu and Parikh 1999). They represent capital that could be used either in the production process or be exchanged for cash or other productive assets. Livestock and assets increase the availability of capital which makes investment in production activities feasible. The livestock holding possessed by the households (*TLU*) is expected to positively relate to the internal service use given increased feed demand. Livestock type affects feed demand (Erenstein and Thorpe, 2010) and larger animals such as cattle are expected to enhance the internal service use. Farmers in the area own different types of livestock. To have a common unit of measurement for different types, we converted all into Tropical Livestock Unit.

Cropping patterns, population and livestock density, residue use, and availability of resources potentially differ by agroecology. Based on this, it is hypothesized that in the region specific variables - *FAKARVAR* and *MARADVAVAR* could be positive or negatively related to crop residue use.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the sample households

The characteristics of the sampled households were variously associated with the intensification gradient (Table 3). The average respondent was male, relative young (45) and with a household of 10-12 – being consistent across the gradient. This relatively young age might influence the availability of labor for agricultural activities, for testing of agricultural innovations, production of biomass (Bamire et al., 2002). The average educational level increased along the intensification gradient – from about 3 years in Fakara to 9 years in Kano. Most previous studies have found a positive relationship between literacy and the ability to process information on agricultural innovations (Akinola et al., 2010).

Land ownership increases along the intensification gradient – being near universal in Kano – although farm size tends to decrease along the same, with the largest average farm size in



Fakara (Table 4). In Kano about 12% for farm households were also involved in shared cropping, while only 2% rented in; whereas in the less intensive Fakara, renting was 23% while shared cropping was negligible.

Livestock ownership was common throughout the study area reflecting the prevalence of mixed crop-livestock systems. Livestock holding per farm household decreases along the intensification gradient (Table 4): i.e. the largest herds (in terms of TLU) were observed in Fakara, the lowest in Kano, the latter with a large proportion of small ruminants, in line with Mortimore (1991). However, given lower population density and larger farm sizes in Fakara, livestock density actually increases along the intensification gradient (Table 1). In spite of the important role that livestock play in the household economy and capital accumulation, purposive forage or pasture cultivation was negligible throughout the study areas. Livestock were primarily fed with biomass from crop residues and communal lands like few grasslands, roads and weeds.

Insert Table 3 here

The cropping system across the gradient is dominated by cereals (58-72% of the cropped area, primarily sorghum, millet) followed by legumes (17-38% of the cropped area, primarily cowpea, groundnut – Table 4). In line with the intensification gradient, crop intensification indicators were positively associated – including fertilizer use, manure application and yields – increasing from Fakara to Kano. However, average rates of fertilizer and manure use remain low throughout.

Insert Table 4 here

The institutional characteristics were generally positively associated with the intensification gradient, including increased agricultural training, savings and access to credit (Table 3) – albeit the latter mainly from the informal sector. The provision of credit is increasingly regarded as an important tool for raising the incomes of rural populations, mainly by mobilizing resources for more productive uses (Hossain, 1988).

3.2 Crop residue use in the Sudano-Sahelian zone



Crop residue uses varied across crop types and study regions (Table 5), comprising both internal and external services. Internal service as livestock feed constituted the largest share across sites and crops—averaging 34-59% for cereal stover biomass (millet and sorghum) and 70-80% for legume haulms (cowpea and groundnut). In line with their feed value, legume haulms were consistently preferred over cereal stovers. Across sites, there was no marked difference between cowpea and groundnut haulms, notwithstanding increased research interest in cowpea haulms as feed (Singh et al., 2003). Sorghum stover was generally preferred as feed over millet stover across sites. Internal service as soil amendment/mulching was largely limited to the most extensive systems (Fakara) and millet stover, and to a lesser extent sorghum and sorrel.

Sales of crop residues were the main external service/output and more common for legume haulms biomass (15-24%) compared to cereal stover (5-6%). Crop residue sales were positively associated with the intensification gradient – with highest average shares in Kano both for legume haulms (31-41%) and cereal stover (21%). Sales of cowpea biomass was somewhat higher than for groundnut across sites, off-setting the somewhat higher feed use of groundnut. Gifts of legume haulms were equally common for the two legumes.

Taken together, legume biomass was nearly solely used as internal feed or for external sales/gifts – reiterating their higher value compared to cereal stover. The cereal stover use was more diverse – including internal services as soil amendment/mulch (8-24%) and external services such as household fuel (18-22%), construction (5-8%) and in situ burning (2%). These other services were associated with the intensification gradient – with internal soil amendment/mulch being largely absent in Kano with the reverse being true for the other external services (Table 5).

The more intensive systems in Kano thereby showed considerable pressure on biomass given their intensive use for feed, sales, fuel and construction with limited surplus remaining for alternative uses. In the more extensive systems in Fakara, crop residue use centres basically on livestock feeding with limited sales and substantial surplus cereal residues remaining as soil amendment/mulch in the field. The diversity in crop residue use intensity along the intensification gradient and particularly in the more intensive systems raises concerns on systems sustainability and livelihood security. Further capacity building of farmers could help promote internal services and recycling to enhance system sustainability in these fragile and stressed



agro-ecologies. However, this also calls for appropriate innovations to facilitate sustainable intensification.

Insert Table 5 here

The grouping of crop residue use in terms of internal and external services to the agricultural production system reinforces the important roles played by crop residues along the intensification gradient (Table 6). Cereal biomass redistribution within the farming system was highest in Fakara (76 percent %), and followed by Maradi (66 percent %) and. The figure was lowest in Kano (61 percent). On the other hand, export of cereal residue from the system was highest in Kano (39 percent). The result indicates that the use of cereal crop residue for internal services that favour long time sustainability decreased along the intensification gradients. This might be connected to reduced access to fertilizers and other intensification inputs that increase along the intensification gradients. Increasing availability of alternative land enhancing inputs could be a driving force making farmers to use less of the available cereal crop residues along the intensification gradient. However, there was substantial legume biomass export (>82 percent in all the sites) out of the system. Maradi had highest legume biomass redistribution within the system. Generally, there was more legume biomass export out of the system in Kano followed by Fakara. The high export of legume biomass out of the systems could be traced to high sales of legume crop residues for cash in both sites. The proximity of these sites to urban markets and/or availability of few cash crops to generate cash earnings could necessitate better exchange of legume haulms for cash in both Kano and Fakara compared to Maradi.

Insert Table 6 here

3.3 Determinants of crop residues uses

The results of the Tobit model are summarized in Table 7. Based on the size of sigma and log-likelihood, the model has an overall good fit.

The variables of age (HHAGE), education (HHEDU), household size (HHSIZE), training received on the use of crop residue (CROPEXT), training in livestock (EXTLIVST), livestock ownership (TLU) and region specific variables (FAKARVAR and KANOVAR) were the



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significant factors influencing the probability and intensity of internal services to the agricultural system (Table 7). One year increase in age of farmer increased the probability of enhancing internal service by 0.01%. The results indicated that the probability of redistributing biomass within the system increases as farmers grow older. This is related to that fact that older farmers tend to have better experience that reinforces their understanding of enhancing internal services to the agricultural system.

Education was positively and significantly related to the probability and intensity of enhancing internal services to agricultural system. This is also in agreement with our expectation that trained farmers have better insights of the importance of biomass in increasing soil moisture, reducing water run-off of soil nutrients and eventual effects on the fertility of the soil. An additional one year of formal education obtained increased the probability and intensity of boosting internal service of agricultural system by about 0.6 percent. This was further substantiated by the findings that training of farmers via extension services on crop residue use also positively influenced internal services of agricultural system. An average farmer that received the training had 14 percent increase in the probability of enhancing internal services of agricultural system compared to those who have not received any training. Similarly, exposure to training about crop-livestock integration increased internal services to agricultural system. One unit increase in education on crop-livestock integration increased the probability of enhancing internal services to agricultural systems by about 6 percent.

Livestock ownership also increased the probability of enhancing internal services to agricultural systems. An increase in livestock ownership of farming households by 1 tropical livestock unit increased the probability of enhancing internal services to agricultural systems by about 1 percent. Farmers possessing livestock took the advantage of using manure from the animals for greater biomass production and redistributed the biomass within the system by feeding the crop residues to their livestock thereby boosting the internal services to agricultural systems.

However, as household size increased the probability of enhancing internal services to agricultural systems declined. One unit decreased in household size decreased the probability of boosting internal services to agricultural systems by 0.6 percent. This might imply greater effect of household burden on the internal agricultural system.



Insert Table 7 here

Our findings on the location-specific variables agree with the a priori expectation that probability of redistributing biomass within the farm increased along the gradient of intensification from the Fakara to Maradi. Although, the two location specific variables were positively related to probability of enhancing internal services to agricultural system, the effect in Maradi was higher compared with that in fakara. Agro-ecological attributes associated with living in Fakara had the tendency of increasing the probability of redistributing crop residue within the system by about 38 percent but agro-ecological characteristics in Maradi increased probability of reallocating by about 46 percent. Whereas a movement towards Fakara along the intensification gradient increased the intensity of enhancing internal services to agricultural system by about 3.8 percent, a movement toward Maradi increased it by about 4.6 percent.

4. Conclusion and recommendations

The overall pressure on crop residue use was especially high as one move along the intensification gradient of more intensive systems (Fakara-Maradi-Kano).

Cereal biomass redistribution within the farming system was highest in Fakara and followed by Maradi and lowest in Kano. This presupposes that the use of cereal crop residue for internal services that favour long time sustainability decreased along the intensification gradients. This might be connected to reduced access to fertilizers and other intensification inputs that increase along the intensification gradients. However, there was substantial legume biomass export out of the system. Maradi had highest legume biomass redistribution within the system. Generally, there was more legume biomass export out of the system in Kano followed by Fakara. The high export of legume biomass out of the systems could be traced to high sales of legume crop residues for cash in both sites. The proximity of these sites to urban markets and/or availability of few cash crops to generate cash earnings could necessitate better exchange of legume haulms for cash in both Kano and Fakara compared to Maradi.

The study confirms widespread crop residue use both as internal service to agricultural production (particularly livestock) and as external service/output in West Africa's savannah



zones. Use of crop residue as feed and for sales, are substantially higher for legume haulms compared to cereal stover. The Tobit regression results also showed that age of the farmer, education, household size, and training by extension agent on crop-livestock interaction, training received on the use of crop residue management, livestock ownership and region specific variables were significantly influencing the probability and intensity of internal uses of biomass services within the agricultural production system. Given the importance of crop residue for livestock feed and soil cover in these fragile savannah system and the high pressure for competing uses of crop residues, there is need to develop and promote potential substitute to ensure sustainability.

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Table 1: Selected characteristics of research sites, savannah zone West Africa

| | Fakara (western Niger) | Maradi (south-central Niger) | Kano (northern Nigeria) |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Conceptual intensification gradient | Low | Medium | High |
| Annual rainfall (mm) | 500 | 600 | 700 |
| Human population density (people/ha) | 2.0 | 2.7 | 3.3 |
| Livestock density (TLU/ha) | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.6 |



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**Table 2: Description of key variables for regression**

| Variable | Variable descriptions | Units |
|-----------------|--|--------------------------|
| <i>HHAGE</i> | Age of the household head in years. | Years |
| <i>HHEDU</i> | Years of formal education completed by the household head. | Years |
| <i>GENDER</i> | Gender of the household head. 1 if male, 0 if not. | |
| <i>HHSIZE</i> | Household size, i.e., number of people living together under the same roof and eating from the same pot. | |
| <i>CROPEXT</i> | An ordinal measure of farmer's having received training on crop residue use. 1 if training was received, 0 if not. | |
| <i>EXTLIVST</i> | An ordinal measure of farmer's having received training on crop-livestock integration. 1 if training was received, 0 if not. | |
| <i>CREDITAC</i> | Access to credit measured by farmer's access to a source of credit, such as co-operative society, at a reasonable cost. 1 if there was access, 0 if not. | |
| <i>PLOTMANU</i> | Quantity/ha of manure applied. | Kg/ha |
| <i>FERTPHA</i> | Quantity/ha of fertilizer applied. | Kg/ha |
| <i>OUTPUTPH</i> | Quantity/ha of major output produced. | Kg/ha |
| <i>TLU</i> | Aggregate livestock holding of the household, as probable source of wealth. | Tropical Livestock Units |
| <i>FAKARVAR</i> | Fakara dummy; Fakara 1, Kano and Maradi 0 | |
| <i>KANOVAR</i> | Kano dummy, Kano 1, Fakara and Maradi 0 | |

Table 3: Demographic and institutional characteristics surveyed households by research site, savannah zone West Africa

| Variables | Fakara (n =156) | Maradi (n=160) | Kano (n =159) |
|--|----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Demographic Characteristics | | | |
| Age of the household head | 46(14) | 45(16) | 45(14) |
| Years of education household head | 2.6(3.6) | 5.8(7.4) | 8.8(4.2) |
| Male headed household (% of respondents) | 98.7 | 98.7 | 99.4 |
| Household size | 11.9(22.5) | 9.7(18.9) | 11.1 (24.6) |
| Institutional characteristics | | | |
| With credit (% of respondents) | 33 | 54 | 76 |
| With savings (% of respondents) | 16 | 42 | 95 |
| Received training (% of respondents): | | | |
| - on crop residue management | 72 | 0 | 100 |
| - on crop livestock integration | 61 | 37 | 100 |

Figures in parentheses represent standard error

Source: Data analysis, 2012

Table 4: Farm characteristics surveyed households by research site, savannah zone West Africa

| Variables | Fakara (n =156) | Maradi (n=160) | Kano (n =159) |
|---|----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| Land ownership (% of respondents) | 76 | 85 | 96 |
| Farm size (ha hh ⁻¹) | 11.9(23.7) | 3.7(15.6) | 4.8(19.5) |
| Livestock holding (TLU hh ⁻¹) | 4.9(10.4) | 4.4(4.8) | 2.9(4.5) |
| Crop area (% cultivated area) | | | |
| - Cereals | 58 | 72 | 65 |
| - Legumes | 38 | 17 | 27 |
| - Other | 4 | 11 | 8 |
| Livestock composition (% TLU) | | | |
| - Large ruminants | 80 | 59 | 12 |
| - Small ruminants | 15 | 34 | 63 |
| - Other stock | 5 | 7 | 25 |

Figures in parentheses represent standard error

Source: Data analysis, 2012

Table 5: Crop residue uses (% of biomass) reported by surveyed households by crop and research site, savannah zone West Africa

| | Internal service | | External Service | | Burnt (in situ) | | Construc- tion |
|---------------|------------------|------|------------------|------|-----------------|------|-------------------|
| | Mulch | Feed | Sold | Gift | | Fuel | |
| All | | | | | | | |
| Millet | 24 | 34 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 22 | 8 |
| Sorghum | 8 | 59 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 5 |
| Cowpea | 3 | 70 | 24 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Groundnut | 0 | 80 | 15 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Fakara | | | | | | | |
| Millet | 49 | 39 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Sorghum | 28 | 57 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| Cowpea | 7 | 68 | 21 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Groundnut | 0 | 87 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sorrel | 32 | 50 | 11 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| Maradi | | | | | | | |
| Millet | 13 | 65 | 8 | 1 | 0 | 10 | 3 |
| Sorghum | 7 | 81 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Cowpea | 2 | 90 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Groundnut | 0 | 90 | 5 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Kano | | | | | | | |
| Millet | 0 | 31 | 21 | 4 | 3 | 28 | 13 |
| Sorghum | 1 | 39 | 21 | 4 | 3 | 18 | 14 |
| Cowpea | 0 | 67 | 31 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Groundnut | 2 | 57 | 41 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Source: Data analysis, 2012



Table 6: Aggregate crop residue use (% of biomass) for internal and external services to agricultural system by crop type and research site, savannah zone West Africa

| | Kano Cereal Stover | Legumes haulms | Maradi Cereal Stover | Legumes | Fakara Cereal Stover | Legumes haulms |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Service | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) | Mean (SD) |
| External | 39 (19) | 99 (21) | 34 (24) | 81 (23) | 24 (16) | 93 (19) |
| Internal | 61 (21) | 1 (4) | 66 (24) | 19 (9) | 76 (26.7) | 7 (7) |

Figures in parentheses represent standard error

Source: Data analysis, 2012

Table 7: Determinants of crop residue use for internal crop services to agricultural production system across research sites, savannah zone West Africa (Tobit model)

| <i>Variable</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>P[Z >z</i> | <i>dy/dx</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| <i>CONSTANT</i> | 26.971*** | 0.0000 | 2.697 |
| <i>HHAGE</i> | 0.013* | 0.0575 | 0.001 |
| <i>HHEDU</i> | 0.580** | 0.0193 | 0.058 |
| <i>HHSIZE</i> | -0.559** | 0.0117 | -0.006 |
| <i>FIELDIST</i> | 0.006 | 0.8283 | 0.001 |
| <i>CROPEXT</i> | 14.126*** | 0.0002 | 1,413 |
| <i>EXTLIVST</i> | 6.198** | 0.0347 | 0.620 |
| <i>FAKARVAR</i> | 38.209*** | 0.0000 | 3.821 |
| <i>MARADVAR</i> | 45.852*** | 0.0000 | 4.583 |
| <i>CREDITAC</i> | -1.505 | 0.5826 | -0.151 |
| <i>TLU</i> | 0.9499*** | 0.0000 | 0.095 |
| <i>ASSET</i> | -0.015 | 0.3524 | -0.002 |
| <i>Log likelihood function</i> | -2169.02 | | |
| <i>Number of observations</i> | 476 | | |
| <i>Sigma</i> | 28.78 | | |

***, **, *: Significant at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Source: Data analysis, 2012