

Manuscript Type: Research Article

Title: Potential Impact of Climate and Socioeconomic Changes on Future Agricultural Land Use in West Africa

Authors: Kazi Farzan Ahmed^a, Guiling Wang^{a*}, Liangzhi You^b, Miao Yu^a

^a Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering and Center for Environmental Sciences and Engineering, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT

^b International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC

*Correspondence: Guiling Wang
Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering
University of Connecticut
Storrs, CT 06269-2037
Tel: (860) 486 5648; Fax: (860) 486-2298
Email: gwang@engr.uconn.edu

Earth System Dynamics

Submitted, June 2015

Revised, January 2016

Abstract

Agriculture is a key component of anthropogenic land use and land cover changes that influence regional climate. Meanwhile, in addition to socioeconomic drivers, climate is another important factor shaping agricultural land use. In this study, we compare the contributions of climate change and socioeconomic development to potential future changes of agricultural land use in West Africa using a prototype land use projection (LandPro) algorithm. The algorithm is based on a balance between food supply and demand, and accounts for the impact of socioeconomic drivers on the demand side and the impact of climate-induced crop yield changes on the supply side. The impact of human decision-making on land use is explicitly considered through multiple “what-if” scenarios. In the application to West Africa, future crop yield changes were simulated by a process-based crop model driven with future climate projections from a regional climate model, and future changes of food demand is projected using a model for policy analysis of agricultural commodities and trade. Without agricultural intensification, the climate-induced decrease of crop yield together with increase of food demand are found to cause a significant increase in cropland areas at the expense of forest and grassland by the mid-century. The increase of agricultural land use is primarily climate-driven in the western part of West Africa and socioeconomically driven in the eastern part. Analysis of results from multiple decision-making scenarios suggests that human adaptation characterized by science-informed decision making to minimize land use could be very effective in many parts of the region.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Land use and land cover change (LULCC) is an important factor responsible for observed global
3 environmental changes (Foley 2005, Pongtraz 2010, Ellis 2011). Although the terms - land use
4 and land cover - are often exchangeable, they suggest different implications in climate change
5 studies. Land use refers to utilization of land resource by human for various socioeconomic
6 purposes while land cover indicates the type of physical material at Earth's surface.
7 Anthropogenic land use patterns have direct impact on land cover type. Both land use and land
8 cover can be strongly linked with local and regional climate (Lambin 2003, Kalnay and Cai 2004,
9 Mahmood 2010, Mei and Wang 2010). Agricultural activity is one of the most important
10 processes driving LULCC in a region. During the pre-industrial period, addition of croplands was
11 the primary response to increasing demand for food and other agricultural products. With the
12 advent of modern agricultural technology, farmers adopted intensive crop farming to minimize
13 the use of land area and slow down the rate of land cover changes (Burney 2010). Nevertheless,
14 globally the fraction of farmland, which comprises cropland and pasture, has been steadily
15 increasing at the expense of forest (Burney 2010, Hurtt 2011). The average global GHG emission
16 from agriculture was reported to increase by 1.6% per year during 1961-2010 (Tubiello 2013).

17 In addition to increasing the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse gases and
18 therefore influencing global climate, LULCC also affects the regional or local climate by altering
19 the water and energy budget at Earth's surface via changing albedo, Bowen ratio, and surface
20 roughness (e.g., Xue & Shukla, 1993; Taylor et al., 2002; Hagos et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015).
21 Although there is a strong link between climate and LULCC, the dynamics of land use change is

22 not explicitly represented in regional and global climate models, partly due to the difficulties in
23 formulating the human decision-making processes influencing anthropogenic land use (Pielke
24 2011, Rounsevell 2014). Instead, anthropogenic land use is usually included as an external driver
25 in climate models, which does not incorporate the potential adaptive measures. Using the
26 Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs) is another approach to combine the socioeconomic
27 aspects and the climatic systems into a same analytical framework. Projections from IAMs on
28 future land use changes are often at the continental or regional scale and need to be downscaled
29 to derive spatially distributed future land use scenario (Hurtt et al. 2011, West et al. 2014). Also
30 because of their rather complex modeling framework with different sources of uncertainties
31 involved, it is difficult to engage IAMs in assessing relative roles played by climate and
32 socioeconomic changes in projected LULCC (Ackerman 2009, Rounsevell 2014).

33 There are different approaches to modeling LULCC with a wide range of modeling
34 perspectives (Agarwal et al. 2002, Parker et al. 2003, Verburg et al. 2006). Agarwal et al. (2002)
35 reviewed and evaluated a set of 19 land use models with respect to spatial and temporal
36 resolutions as well as human decision-making processes. They concluded that models involving
37 more complex human decision-making are limited to lower resolution and extension in both
38 space and time. In reviewing a number of methodologies of modeling LULCC, Parker et al (2003)
39 suggested to combine cellular model, which focuses on transitions in landscapes, with agent-
40 based model, which represents human decision-making process, to incorporate anthropogenic
41 elements in a spatially explicit modeling scheme. In projecting future agricultural land use, human
42 decision-making is crucially important as farmers can adapt to a changing climate especially if
43 there is national policy or strategies in place to incentivize or guide adaptation. Moreover,

44 different crops may have different responses to the same climate change scenario. Agent-based
45 modeling approach, which considers the interaction between agents representing decision-
46 makers with certain optimization schemes, has been used to represent the complex
47 anthropogenic behaviors regarding land use changes (Parker et al. 2003, Verburg 2006, Valbuena
48 et al. 2010). However, application of agent-based approach in modeling land use change at a
49 regional scale is limited because of its inherent complexity and larger data requirements
50 (Valbuena et al. 2010).

51 Many previous studies with different modeling approaches integrated the climate-
52 induced changes in agricultural productivity with socioeconomic changes to project future land
53 use scenarios. However, most of them assessed the land use change on national/sub-national
54 levels, and therefore, do not provided gridded land use map needed by climate projection models
55 (Schmitz et al., 2014). Two partial equilibrium models, the Model of Agricultural Production and
56 its Impact on the Environment (MAGPIE) (Lotze-Campen et al. 2008) and the Global Biosphere
57 Management Model (GLOBIOM) (Havlik et al. 2011), are applicable for modeling land use and
58 land cover changes on a spatially explicit scheme. MAGPIE simulates land use patterns at a spatial
59 resolution of 0.5° based on an objective function to minimize the production cost for specific
60 demand values. GLOBIOM simulates land use change scenario accounting for competition among
61 agriculture, forestry and bioenergy on a spatially explicit scheme. These two models provide land
62 use information regarding individual crops in addition to aggregated crop area.

63 In this study, we develop a land use projection (LandPro) algorithm that operates on a
64 spatially explicit grid system (therefore addressing the need for grid-based land use information

65 by climate models) and has the capacity of quantifying land use at individual crop level (therefore
66 addressing the need for crop-level information in country-level policy making and development
67 of adaptation strategies). In the current application of LandPro to West Africa in evaluating the
68 impact of future increase of food demand and the climate-induced crop yield changes on
69 agricultural land use changes in the region, the mid-21st century projection is analyzed as an
70 example. Sub-Saharan Africa is extremely vulnerable to climate change impact because of its
71 large dependence on natural resources, fragile economic infrastructure and limited capacity for
72 mitigation and adaptation. Although local crop production provides the majority supply of staple
73 foods, the mostly rainfed agricultural system in Sub-Saharan Africa is not prepared to adapt to
74 projected future climate. Various studies predicted significant reduction in the productivity of
75 major crops in the region in future climates unless new technology and adaptation policy can
76 counteract the adverse effect of climate (Schlenker and Lobell 2010, Knox 2012, Ahmed et al.
77 2015). Here we engage LandPro to address three questions: What level of cropland expansion is
78 necessary in West Africa to satisfy the future demand for foods with current agricultural practice?
79 What are the relative roles of socioeconomic factors and climate changes in driving future
80 agricultural land use changes? Could land use optimization through human decision-making
81 make a significant difference in the overall LULCC? Since crop yield is influenced by climate, we
82 also examine the sensitivity of our results to the selection of future climate data source used in
83 projecting the future yield. Section 2 outlines the LandPro algorithm with its fundamental
84 assumptions, and provides a brief description of the datasets used in this study. Section 3
85 presents the results, discusses the projected future changes in land use patterns in the region
86 and the key factors driving the changes, and compares the agricultural land use map as projected

87 by our model with that of the H11 dataset. Section 4 summarizes the results and presents the
88 conclusions.

89

90 **2. Model, Data, and Methodology**

91 *2.1 Algorithm for Land Use Projection*

92 The LandPro algorithm is developed based on the equilibrium between future demand and
93 supply of food at the country level. In the application to the West African Sahel and Guinea Coast
94 regions, 14 countries are included: Benin, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau,
95 Ivory Coast, Liberia Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo. The spatially explicit
96 model, at a resolution of 0.5°, treats each country separately to calculate the gap between future
97 demand of a particular crop and its supply from the local production based on future yield of the
98 crop and the respective present-day crop area at each pixel within the country.

$$99 \quad D_{ij} = G_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^n y_{ijk} a_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

100 where, D_{ij} is the future deficit for crop j in country i , G_{ij} is the future demand, y_{ijk} is future yield
101 of crop j at pixel k and a_{ijk} is present-day area allotted for crop j at pixel k in country i with n
102 number of 0.5° pixels.

103 The model is developed based on the assumption that agricultural land use will be
104 prioritized over natural land use/land cover types to satisfy increased food demand in future
105 decades. Therefore, the deficit will be overcome by means of increasing local production through
106 the expansion of cropland at the expense of existing natural vegetation. Several rules are set to

107 govern the conversion from naturally vegetated land to cropland, and multiple scenarios of
108 decision making are considered. For example, in the best scenario of future land use with science-
109 informed decision-making:

110 1) Forest is preferred over grassland in making new land for crops, due to its generally more
111 fertile soil and the need to use grassland for pasture.

112 2) If the forest area within a country is completely exhausted and crop deficit still remains,
113 the grass area will be used for conversion to cropland.

114 3) For multiple grid cells having the same type of natural vegetation, areas in grid cells with
115 higher yield in future climate for a given crop will be used to cultivate that particular crop
116 before acquiring land from the next most productive grid cell, i.e., the order of land
117 conversion follows the descending order of crop yield across grid cells within a particular
118 country.

119 4) Naturally vegetated land is converted and allocated to crops following the descending
120 order of crop deficit in a particular country. That is, the crop with the largest remaining
121 gap between demand and production will be prioritized first.

122 The best scenario implies the minimum crop area expansion at the expense of natural vegetation.

123 Several alternative scenarios are constructed to test the sensitivity of the land use projection
124 results by altering one or multiple rules listed above. For example, a worst scenario implying the
125 maximum crop area expansion involves reversing the order mentioned in rule 3 and rule 4, and
126 several intermediate scenarios represent different degrees of randomness in the decision making
127 related to the rules.

128 The y_{ijk} in equation 1 is derived using the process-based crop model Decision Support System
 129 for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) (Jones et al. 2003). Future yield projected by the DSSAT are
 130 scaled by three factors. First, like any process-based model, outputs from the DSSAT associate
 131 with some bias. The ratio of the DSSAT-simulated present-day yield to a reference present-day
 132 yield dataset is used to correct the bias in the DSSAT-simulated future crop yield. Second,
 133 although the land use allocation model can account for any number of crops, sometimes due to
 134 data limitation or other reasons, only a subset of crops are considered. For example, instead of
 135 exhausting all crops existing, for simplicity, we consider in this study only five major crops in West
 136 Africa - maize, sorghum, millet, cassava and peanut. These crops were chosen for their large
 137 present-day harvest area and high economic value in the region (Ahmed et al. 2015). To indirectly
 138 account for the existence of other crops (“minor crops”), the DSSAT-simulated future yield for
 139 major crops were scaled down using the ratio between major-crop harvesting area and all-crop
 140 harvesting area. In addition, mixed cropping systems commonly seen in West Africa are difficult
 141 to model explicitly. To indirectly account for the impact of mixed crops, a third factor, the ratio
 142 of total harvest area to the total area of physical land for crops, is used to scale up the DSSAT-
 143 simulated future crop yield. These can be summarized as follows:

$$144 \quad y_{ijk} = y'_{DSSAT,ijk} * \frac{y_{SPAM,ijk}}{y_{DSSAT,ijk}} * \frac{A_{M,ik}}{A_{H,ik}} * \frac{A_{H,ik}}{A_{P,ik}} \quad (2)$$

145 where, y_{ijk} is the factored future yield, $y'_{DSSAT,ijk}$ is the DSSAT future yield, $y_{DSSAT,ijk}$ is the
 146 DSSAT present-day yield, $y_{SPAM,ijk}$ is the present-day yield according to the Spatial Production
 147 Allocation Model (SPAM) (You and Wood, 2006, You et al. 2014), $A_{H,ijk}$ is the total harvest area
 148 (summation of areas allocated to all the individual crops) at pixel k in country i , $A_{P,ik}$ is the total

149 physical area (excluding water body) and $A_{M,ik}$ is the total area allocated to the five major crops
150 chosen for this study. The mixed cropping practice, as well as the ratio of harvest areas occupied
151 by the “major” and the “minor” crops in a particular region or country, is largely influenced by
152 dietary habits, and is likely to stay stable in the absence of any major shift in dietary habits. In the
153 application to the mid-century in West Africa, we assume that the scaling factors in the future
154 will be at the same level as in the present. Harvest area used here was aggregated from the SPAM
155 data which represents the geographic distribution of crop harvest areas across the globe at a
156 spatial scale of 5 min. for the year of 2005. SPAM was generated combining the Food and
157 Agriculture Organization (FAO) national crop-specific data, population density, satellite imagery
158 and other datasets. Also note that brief descriptions of the reference present-day yield data and
159 the land use land cover data are provided later in section 2.4.

160 *2.2. Projecting Future Crop Yield*

161 Agricultural land use in a region depends to a large degree on crop yield which is one of the
162 essential inputs to the LandPro algorithm. In the application to West Africa, spatially distributed
163 future yields of five major crops were used as the inputs that were simulated using the DSSAT
164 version 4.5 at a spatial resolution of 0.5° across the region. The DSSAT was calibrated and run to
165 simulate future yield for the period of 2041-2059 following the methodology of Ahmed et al.
166 (2015) for cereal crops. This calibration of the cereal crop models was based on tuning of the
167 nitrogen fertilizer input, which dramatically improved the agreement between DSSAT and the
168 FAO data on the country-average crop yield. For cassava and peanut, however, the DSSAT could
169 not be calibrated satisfactorily following the same approach. Therefore, instead of calibrating the

170 model, yield values of those two crops for the future DSSAT runs were adjusted by the ratio of
171 country-level mean observed yield to the corresponding present-day mean of DSSAT-simulated
172 yield. The mean observed yield values were calculated using the FAO country-level yearly yield
173 data for 1980-1998 (FAOSTAT database). Note that these approaches, both the model calibration
174 for cereal crops based on the Ahmed et al. (2015) and the scaling of the cassava and peanut yields
175 for bias correction, focus on getting the right long-term mean of crop yields. Differences in the
176 inter-annual variability of crop yield between DSSAT and the FAO data remain, and are difficult
177 to address due to the impact of human factors as discussed in Ahmed et al. (2015). Simulated
178 future yield values from 2041 to 2059 were averaged to provide the inputs to the LandPro
179 algorithm for projecting agricultural land use in 2050.

180 The future climate data required to drive the crop model was derived by dynamically downscaling
181 the RCP8.5 climate of two general circulation models (GCMs) participating in the Coupled Model
182 Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor et al. 2012), the Model for Interdisciplinary
183 Research On Climate – Earth System Model (MIROC-ESM) and the National Center for
184 Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Community Earth System Model (CESM). The regional climate
185 model of Wang et al. (2015), which couples RegCM 4.3.4 (Giorgi et al. 2012) with the Community
186 Land Model version 4.5 (CLM 4.5) (Oleson et al. 2010), was used to downscale the MIROC and
187 CESM outputs to 50km, and the resulting climate was then resampled to a 0.5° grid system. The
188 dynamically downscaled climates were then bias-corrected using the Statistical Downscaling and
189 Bias Correction (SDBC) method of Ahmed et al. (2013), and the Sheffield et al. (2006) data was
190 used as the present-day climate reference in the bias-correction algorithm. We chose these two
191 GCMs because the MIROC-ESM-driven and the CCSM4-driven CLM-CN-DV model performed

192 better than other GCM-driven runs in capturing the present-day vegetation distribution in West
193 Africa (Yu and Wang, 2014).

194 *2.3. Projecting Future Demand for Local Production*

195 Future demand for local crop supply is one of the main inputs to LandPro. Demand of crops in
196 the West African countries in future years (from 2005 to 2050) was projected using the
197 International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and Trade (IMPACT) model
198 (Rosegrant et al. 2012). The IMPACT was developed at the International Food Policy Research
199 Institute (IFPRI) to investigate the supply-demand chain in the context of national food security
200 in future decades. It can be used to project the future scenarios of supply, demand and price for
201 more than 40 food commodities globally or regionally. For this study, IMPACT was run under the
202 Shared Socioeconomic Pathway-2 (SSP2), a moderate pathway characterized by historical trends
203 of economic development and medium population growth, according to IPCC AR5. The future
204 climate data used to drive IPMACT were derived from the RCP8.5 output of four GCMs, including
205 GFDL-ESM2M, HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, and MIROC-ESM. The average of the output from
206 the four IMPACT runs was used as the input to the LandPro algorithm. Also, to project the mid-
207 century land use scenario, future average of the demand during 2041-2050 was used. Note that
208 the IMPACT projections include future scenarios for both the total demand (i.e., local demand
209 assuming no international trade) and effective demand (i.e., net demand for local production
210 after considering international trade) for a specific commodity in a country. Local production may
211 satisfy the total demand partially or fully. The deficit or surplus between the total demand and
212 local production reflects the effect of international trade. For example, comparison of the time-

213 series of total demand and local production of maize in Nigeria as projected by IMPACT for 2005-
214 2050 indicates an increasing trend for the portion of total demand to be met by international
215 trade during the period (Figure S1).

216 *2.4. Present-Day Land Use and Crop Yield Data*

217 To quantify the bias in crop yield simulated by DSSAT (equation 2), the grid-level dataset of
218 present-day yield from SPAM for the year of 2005 were used as the reference data. The present-
219 day harvest area for five major crops and total physical land area at each 0.5° pixel in West Africa
220 used as inputs to LandPro were also obtained from the SPAM 2005 dataset. In addition to crop
221 area, the present-day fractional coverage of forest and grassland at each grid cell are also needed
222 to provide the initial condition for the LandPro algorithm. The fractional coverage of each of these
223 three land cover types at each grid cell was obtained from the global land surface data developed
224 by Lawrence and Chase (2007) which combined various satellite products and other datasets to
225 derive the present-day global distribution of plant functional types at a 0.05° resolution.
226 However, crop fraction in the Lawrence and Chase (2007) dataset was estimated according to
227 historical crop area data generated by Ramankutty and Foley (1999) and it shows a considerable
228 deviation from the SPAM crop fraction. Since crop area information for this study were
229 prescribed according to SPAM, the cropland coverage from Lawrence and Chase (2007) was
230 updated accordingly and the fractional coverage for forest and grassland were adjusted
231 proportionally.

232

233

234 3. Results and discussions

235 The reduction in crop yield as a result of climate change and the increasing demand for food in
236 future years are expected to cause an increase in the agricultural land use, leading to a substantial
237 shift in land cover in West Africa as projected by the LandPro algorithm (Figure 1). The present-
238 day land use distribution shows majority of the agricultural activity occurring in the eastern part
239 of West Africa and the extensive presence of forests in the southwest, especially along the coast.
240 Although grassland exists almost over the entire region, they are more dominant further inland
241 in the north. The LandPro algorithm projects further increase in crop areas in the eastern part of
242 West Africa which would result in a complete depletion of forest and grassland in future decades.
243 The western and central parts of West Africa would also experience noticeable expansion of
244 cropland. However, most of the increment would occur at the expense of forests, with generally
245 a lower degree of grassland depletion. In Nigeria, the country-average cropland fractional cover
246 is projected to increase from 39.4% to 84.5% under MIROC-driven climate and to 80.9% under
247 CESM-driven climate (Table S1). In the western part of the region along the coast, the largest
248 absolute increase in cropland coverage is projected to occur in Gambia (by 45% and 39.2% under
249 the MIROC- and CESM-driven climates respectively). Along the Gulf of Guinea, west of Nigeria,
250 Benin would also experience a large increase of cropland coverage by 37.3% (MIROC) and 40.9%
251 (CESM). In Niger, crop production is clustered only to the south since the vast northern part of
252 the country is mostly desert. Therefore, although the model projects a small change in the
253 fractional coverage of cropland averaged over the entire country, the magnitude of the projected
254 increase of agricultural land use in the south is much larger. For most countries, the LandPro
255 projections for aggregated land use change driven by the dynamically downscaled climates from

256 the two GCMs are very similar. The inter-model difference is much smaller than the inter-country
257 difference of land use changes, and much smaller than the differences caused by some human
258 decision making (as to be shown later). Several factors contribute to this remarkable similarity in
259 the LandPro-produced land use changes under the two future climate scenarios. First, climate
260 from MIROC and CESM are dynamically downscaled by the regional climate model and
261 statistically corrected for model bias, which eliminates part of the inter-model differences related
262 to model bias; as the bias-corrected future climate data were used to force the crop model
263 DSSAT, a better agreement results between the DSSAT-produced crop yields corresponding to
264 the two climate scenarios. Second, as shown later, results of our study indicate that the future
265 land use changes in this region would mostly be dominated by socioeconomic factors in the
266 region.

267 To assess the relative importance of climate and socioeconomic factors in driving the future land
268 use changes, we also conducted LandPro simulations considering only the socioeconomic
269 changes in the region and excluding the impact of climate-induced crop yield changes. In order
270 to do so, the LandPro was run with the future demand and present-day crop yield (as opposed
271 to the future yield used for the initial run) as inputs. Since the crop yield values remain
272 unchanged, outputs from this run, namely LandPro_SE, reflect the impact of socioeconomic
273 changes on agricultural land use ignoring the climate-induced changes in yield (Figure 2). The
274 difference between the future changes in cropland coverage from the LandPro_Total run
275 (considering both climate and socioeconomic factors) and the LandPro_SE run indicate the
276 changes projected by LandPro considering only climate changes (LandPro_CC). Under both the
277 MIROC-driven and CESM-driven regional climates, the socioeconomic changes tend to have a

278 stronger impact on future land use transition than the changes in crop yield in the eastern part
279 of the region. In the western part near the coast, however, the impact of crop yield changes is
280 more dominant, which can be attributed to the larger yield loss resulting from a larger future
281 warming and drying in that part of the region (Ahmed et al. 2015). In the central part of the
282 region, the climate-induced expansion in crop area tends to be somewhat more evident under
283 the CESM-driven climate.

284 Food demand determined by socioeconomic factors is the most important driver for land use.
285 The land use changes shown in Figure 2 were predicted using LandPro driven by changes in the
286 net demand for local production projected by IMPACT (referred to as “Local Production”
287 experiment). To test the sensitivity of LandPro to the production demand, future changes in
288 agricultural land were also predicted using the total demand projected by IMPACT (as if there
289 would be no international trade) as the driver (referred to as the “Total Demand” experiment),
290 and using a demand that features a future increase half as fast as the projection by IMPACT
291 (referred to as the “50% Change” experiment). Spatial patterns of absolute changes in cropland
292 fractional coverage are essentially similar for both the net demand and total demand
293 experiments (Figures 3 and 4, for the MIROC- and CESM-driven climates respectively). The
294 magnitude of changes is generally larger in the case of total demand since most of the countries
295 in the region depend on import to satisfy the demands which exceed local production. The land
296 use changes are expectedly smaller for the “50% Change” experiment. However, spatial patterns
297 of the relative importance of climate change and socioeconomic changes can noticeably vary
298 according to demand scenarios. For example, under the MIROC-driven climate, to satisfy the total
299 demand, cropland changes in the northeast part of Nigeria (East of 10°E and North of 8°N) are

300 projected to be dominated by socioeconomic factors (Figure 3). In contrast, in satisfying either
301 the net demand or 50% future changes of total demand, cropland changes in the same region
302 would be controlled by climate-induced changes in crop yield while the impact of socioeconomic
303 changes would be negligible. Thus, the fraction of future land use changes attributed to climate
304 changes tends to vary spatially within a country depending on the level of future demands.
305 However, the magnitudes and spatial patterns of the climate-induced cropland expansion across
306 the regions for all three demand scenarios are generally similar under both climate scenarios.

307 The dependence of future land use patterns on the magnitude of demand can be
308 attributed to two factors which govern LandPro algorithm – the present-day distribution of forest
309 and grass, and the differences between present-day and future ranking of grid cells according to
310 their respective yield values. Since the LandPro scenario experimented on uses up forest area
311 over the entire country before it starts to consume grassland, grid cells with grass in the present-
312 day are not converted to crop area until the demand reaches a threshold value. Therefore, with
313 present-day yield, although many grid cells dominated by grass do not experience any change in
314 land use in satisfying lower demand, they are converted to crop area when demand is higher.
315 However, with generally lower yield in future climate, those grid cells need to be converted to
316 cropland even to satisfy a lower level of demand. Furthermore, a grid cell with a lower rank for
317 present-day yield may become higher-ranked for future yield and vice versa, leading to a
318 difference in spatial variability of climate-induced land use changes for different demand values.
319 The comparison among country-average values of climate-induced land use changes for different
320 demand scenarios also highlights the uncertainty in LandPro in determining the fraction of
321 changes attributable to climatic factors (Figure 5). For a particular country, the total demand

322 would usually necessitate a larger increase in total crop area than the net demand for local
323 production, whereas the magnitude of the increase would be the lowest in the case of 50%
324 changes of the total demand. Exception can be found for export countries. The relative
325 importance of climate and socioeconomics changes as drivers of land use change and how it
326 varies spatially are relatively stable across the three simulations, with the exception of several
327 countries. For example, under the MIROC-driven climate changes, in Gambia, Senegal and Togo,
328 the climate-induced changes as a fraction of total changes projected by LandPro to satisfy the
329 50% increase in total demand is larger than the projected changes for the other two demand
330 scenarios. Under the CESM-driven climate, the climate-induced change in agricultural land use is
331 the largest for the “50% change” experiment in the case of Burkina Faso as well.

332 The LandPro algorithm explicitly considers multiple scenarios of human decision-making
333 (as reflected by the order of land conversion in rule 3 and rule 4 mentioned in section 2.3), which
334 is a major source of uncertainty in projected future land use changes. To assess such
335 uncertainties, we evaluated whether human decision regarding agricultural land use optimization
336 can influence the future land use change in West Africa based on alternative decision scenarios.
337 In agricultural expansion, the selection of areas to cultivate from naturally vegetated land is one
338 major uncertainty in human decision-making for land use. Therefore, apart from the best
339 scenario simulated by the initial run, two alternative projections of future land use distribution,
340 including the worst scenario and an intermediate scenario, were conducted by altering the order
341 of crop area selection based on future crop yield in rule 3. The worst scenario assumes that the
342 conversion from natural vegetation to cropland by farmers follows the ascending order of crop
343 yield, while the selection is random for the intermediate scenario. Comparison of these

344 alternative scenarios with the best scenario reveals noticeable differences, with both alternative
345 scenarios generally involving more cropland (Figure 6). The cropland expansion is minimized if
346 farmers utilize the areas with higher future yield first before engaging the less productive land,
347 whereas the opposite approach would maximize the amount of cropland usage (Table S2, using
348 MIROC as example). The difference among multiple future scenarios of agricultural land use,
349 which depends on the farmers' decision regarding the selection of crop area, implies an adaptive
350 potential to minimize the conversion of naturally vegetated land based on appropriate
351 knowledge of future crop yield. We also performed sensitivity analysis of LandPro projections to
352 input demand (as shown in Figures 3 and 4) in the case of worst scenario of agricultural land use
353 regarding the order of crop area selection. With the alternative cropping order, the relative
354 importance of climate and socioeconomic factors as land use drivers considerably changes in
355 many parts of the region for all the demand scenarios (Figure S2, using MIROC as example). This
356 implies that land use decision-making can make a significant in determining future agricultural
357 land use changes.

358 Prioritization of the crops by farmers with respect to the sequence of land allocation in a
359 particular country reflects another uncertainty related to human decision-making. For the best
360 scenario run, the land was allocated to the crops according to the descending order of future
361 crop deficits as stated in rule 4. Several alternative scenarios were examined with LandPro. In
362 alternative 1, the prioritization in rule 4 follows the ascending order of deficits in each country;
363 in alternative 2, in all of the countries, the priority for land allocation was given to the cereal
364 crops first (maize, sorghum and millet) followed by cassava and peanut; in alternative 3, the
365 reverse order of alternative 2 is used. Under the MIROC-driven climate, spatial maps of crop area

366 distribution from the multiple alternative runs indicate that prioritization of the crops as a land
367 use optimization technique would have little impact on the projected future land use land cover
368 changes (Figure 7). The difference in country-average cropland fractional coverage from different
369 runs is negligible as compared to the absolute magnitude in a particular country (Table S3). The
370 results are qualitatively similar for the projections based on the CESM-driven climate changes.
371 We also tested the sensitivity of LandPro projections to the assumption that forest would be
372 totally exhausted before using grasslands for crop area expansion (rule 1 and 2), by employing
373 LandPro to project the future cropland expansion preferring grassland over forest (Figure 8, using
374 MIROC as an example). Some differences between the two scenarios are noticeable but are
375 mostly small, indicating a low level of sensitivity of the model to this assumption. Overall, based
376 on results from all sensitivity experiments, the LandPro-projected future cropland expansion is
377 most sensitive to the demand input and the order of land selection for agricultural expansion.

378 As an inter-comparison with others' results, we compared the LandPro projections with the crop
379 area distribution in 2050 projected by Hurtt et al. (2011, henceforth H11) data. H11 projected
380 future (2005-2100) land use scenarios following four Representative Concentration Pathways
381 (RCPs) according to the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) of the Intergovernmental panel on Climate
382 Change (IPCC), and created a unique grid-level dataset for both the historical land use and future
383 carbon-climate scenarios. However, the impact of future climate changes on land use and land
384 cover changes was not explicitly accounted for. Therefore, the future change in crop area
385 according to the H11 data is conceptually comparable to our LandPro_SE projection. The
386 comparison shows that the increase in croplands projected by LandPro_SE is substantially higher,
387 especially in the agriculture-dominated eastern part of the region (Figure 9). The changes in land

388 use from one type to another between two time steps according to Hurtt et al. (2011) significantly
389 depends on the probability of particular types of land use changes in previous time steps.
390 However, in the application of LandPro in this study, the future crop area expansion was
391 projected between two time slices, which are several decades apart, without considering the
392 transient processes in land use dynamics. Although noticeable differences exist also in the spatial
393 patterns projected by the two data sets, both projections show consensus with larger increase in
394 the southeastern part of the region. The challenges and uncertainty in quantifying land use are
395 also reflected by the differences in the present-day cropland coverage between SPAM and H11.
396 For the present-day land use distribution in 2005, the two data sets exhibit noticeable
397 discrepancy over the region dominated by agriculture. This highlights the typical inconsistency
398 between land use maps generated by different methodologies (You et al. 2014).

399

400 **4. Summary and conclusions**

401 An algorithm for land use and land cover change projection (LandPro) was developed to study
402 the future expansion of cropland and the resulting loss of naturally vegetated land, and was
403 applied to West Africa as a case study. LandPro integrates the impact of climate change on crop
404 yield and future socioeconomic scenarios to construct a spatially gridded land cover map, and a
405 spatial scale of 0.5° is used in the case study. Without accounting for the farmers' adaptive
406 potential to address the negative impact of future warming and changes in precipitation pattern
407 on crop productivity (such as use of irrigation, fertilizer and other crop management techniques),
408 the model projects a large increase in agricultural land use under the future climate scenario. The

409 increase in cropland would occur at the expense of natural vegetation cover, both of which could
410 further modify the regional climate. Not considering the farmers adaptive potential and the
411 technological advancements (which could reduce the rate of cropland expansion by increasing
412 yield) is one of the limitation of this study. However, in Sub-Saharan Africa, more than 80% of the
413 agricultural growth since 1980 was attributed to crop area expansion as opposed to increase of
414 productivity over already existing cropland (The World Bank, 2008). Considering the vulnerability
415 of agricultural infrastructures in the region, despite the potential scope of improving yield to
416 minimize land use change, addition of new crop area is likely to be a prevailing strategy for
417 agricultural growth in the near future.

418 Multiple possible adaptive measures by the farmers to minimize the agricultural expansion were
419 also analyzed addressing the uncertainties involved in human decision-making process. Although
420 prioritization among the crops in allocating the available land for their cultivation might have no
421 or minimal impact in optimizing agricultural land use, a specific order of selecting cultivation area
422 based on future crop yield might effectively reduce the total loss of naturally vegetated land. The
423 effect of farmers' adaptive actions characterized by their decision-making based on scientific
424 information suggests the significance of farmers' adaptive potential on future land use change
425 dynamics in the region, and emphasizes the need for more effective adaptation strategies to slow
426 down the regional land use expansion under future climate scenarios.

427 We would like to point out that the spatial scale of 0.5 degree is too coarse to simulate cropping
428 patterns in each individual farm. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to capture the farmers'
429 decision-making at individual farm level for a large region. While many existing land use models,

430 applicable at much smaller scale, are capable of simulating the farm-level changes, they do not
431 address the need of climate models for land use change information at the regional scale. This
432 study attempts to address the climate model needs and simulate the land use-climate
433 interactions at the regional scale, and to facilitate national-level policymaking in devising
434 strategic framework to assess the potential impact of climate and socioeconomic factors on
435 future land use. The focus therefore is not on developing a land use model capable of analyzing
436 and projecting cropping pattern in each individual farm. Instead, we are interested in the long-
437 term aggregated outcome, assuming that all farmers will eventually adapt to the climate-induced
438 changes in crop yields by adjusting the agricultural land use practice. Therefore, the algorithm
439 assumes similar science-informed decision-making by all the farmers under a particular pixel.

440 Our results also indicate spatial heterogeneity of land use change dynamics which can be
441 dominated by different controlling factors in different parts of West Africa. Climate change
442 impact on crop yield would considerably vary across the region resulting in large variability in the
443 spatial pattern of future yield loss. While land use changes could be dominated by the projected
444 yield loss in some parts of the region, the projected increase in food demand would be of greater
445 importance in land use dynamics in other regions. However, future projections from LandPro
446 imply that farmers' decision-making can alter the relative importance of different factors in
447 driving future land use changes. Therefore, although LandPro demonstrated robustness to
448 multiple future climate scenarios, the projection from the model can be more sensitive to other
449 future scenarios of supply and demand for food. Despite the fact that the IMPACT model was run
450 for multiple climate and socioeconomic scenarios in projecting the future demand, the
451 uncertainties involved in the IMPACT projection can potentially be a limitation of this study. Apart

452 from the uncertainties involved in the model setup, not considering any historical trend in land
453 use transitions is another limitation of this study.

454 The LandPro algorithm provides a preliminary framework for the projection and analysis of future
455 agricultural land use. LandPro offers two clear advantages. It provides spatially distributed land
456 use information needed by climate models as the lower boundary condition; it can also be
457 conveniently used for future land use information at the individual crop level that is needed for
458 national and regional land use and food security policy analysis. The algorithm can and will be
459 further developed to overcome existing limitations pointed out earlier. In this study, we
460 employed LandPro in equilibrium mode to evaluate the changes in land use between two time
461 slices, which are several decades apart, without considering the transient processes in land use
462 dynamics. Applying LandPro in transient mode (which necessitates performing the crop modeling
463 and the regional climate modeling in a transient mode as well) is a topic of our follow up study.

464

465 **Author contributions**

466 K.F.A. and G.W. designed the study, analyzed the results and wrote the paper, with input from
467 L.Y. and M.Y.. L.Y. and M.Y. also provided data.

468 **Acknowledgements**

469 Funding support for this study was provided by National Science Foundation (AGS-1049017, AGS-
470 1048967).

471

472 **References**

- 473 • Ackerman, F., DeCanio, S. J., Howarth, R. B., and Sheeran, K.: Limitations of integrated
474 assessment models of climate change. *Climatic Change*, 95(3-4), 297–315.
475 doi:10.1007/s10584-009-9570-x, 2009.
- 476 • Agarwal, C., Green, G.M., Grove, J.M., Evans, T.P., and Schweik, C.M.: A Review and
477 Assessment of Land-Use Change Models: Dynamics of Space, Time, and Human Choice.
478 GTR NE-297. Newton Square, PA: U.S.D.A., Forest Service, Northeastern Research Station.
479 61 p., 2002.
- 480 • Ahmed, K. F., Wang, G., Silander, J., Wilson, A. M., Allen, J. M., Horton, R., and Anyah, R.:
481 Statistical downscaling and bias correction of climate model outputs for climate change
482 impact assessment in the US northeast. *Global and Planetary Change*, 100, 320-332, 2013.
- 483 • Ahmed, K.F., Wang G.L., Miao Y., You L.Z., Koo, J.: Potential Impact of Climate Change on
484 Cereal Crop Yield in West Africa. *Climatic Change*, conditionally accepted, 2015
- 485 • Boysen, L. R., Brovkin, V., Arora, V. K., Cadule, P., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N., Kato, E., and
486 Gayler, V.: Global and regional effects of land-use change on climate in 21st century
487 simulations with interactive carbon cycle. *Earth System Dynamics Discussions*, 5(1), 443–
488 472, 2014.
- 489 • Burney, J. A., Davis, S. J., and Lobell, D. B.: Greenhouse gas mitigation by agricultural
490 intensification,1–6.doi:10.1073/pnas.0914216107, 2010.
- 491 • Deng, X., Zhao, C., and Yan, H.: Systematic Modeling of Impacts of Land Use and Land
492 Cover Changes on Regional Climate: A Review. *Advances in Meteorology*, 2013, 1–11.
493 doi:10.1155/2013/317678, 2013.

- 494 • Division, E. S., Ridge, O., and Ridge, O.: The Relationship between Land-Use Change and
495 Climate Change, 7(August), 753–769, 1997.
- 496 • Ellis, E. C.: Anthropogenic transformation of the terrestrial biosphere. Philosophical
497 Transactions. Series A, Mathematical, Physical, and Engineering Sciences, 369(1938),
498 1010–35. doi:10.1098/r, 2011.
- 499 • FAOSTAT Database on Agriculture, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United
500 Nations, Rome, Italy. Available at: <http://faostat.fao.org/sta.2010.0331>
- 501 • Foley, A.: Estimating historical changes in global land cover : Croplands historical have
502 converted areas, 13(4), 997–1027, 1999.
- 503 • Foley, J.A., DeFries, R., Asner, G.P., Barford, C., Bonan, G.,Carpenter, S.R., Chapin, F.S.,
504 Coe, M.T., Daily, G.C., Gibbs, H.K.,Helkowski, J.H., Holloway, T., Howard, E.A., Kucharik,
505 C.J., Monfreda, C., Patz, J.A., Prentice, I.C., Ramankutty, N. andSnyder, P.K.: Global
506 consequences of land use. Science, 309, 570–574, 2005.
- 507 • Giorgi, F., Coppola, E., Solmon, F., Mariotti, L., Sylla, M.B., Bi, X., Elguindi, N., Diro, G.T.,
508 Nair, V., Giuliani, G., Cozzini, S., Guttler, I., O’Brien, T.A., Tawfik, A.B., Shalaby, A., Zakey,
509 A.S., Steiner, A.L., Stordal, F., Sloan, L.C., Brankovic, C.: RegCM4: model description and
510 preliminary tests over multiple CORDEX domains. Clim Res 52:7–29. 2012.
- 511 • Havlik, P., Schneider, U.A., Schmid, E., Böttcher, H., Fritz, S., Skalský, R.,Aoki, K., Cara,
512 S.D., Kindermann, G., Kraxner, F., Leduc, S., McCallum, I.,Mosnier, A., Sauer, T.,
513 Obersteiner, M.: Global land-use implicationsof first and second generation biofuel
514 targets. Energy Pol. 39, 5690–5702, 2011.

- 515 • Havlik, P., Valin, H., Mosnier, A., Obersteiner, M., Baker, J.S., Herrero, M., Rufino, M.C.,
516 Schmid, E.: Crop productivity and the global livestock sector: Implications for land use
517 change and greenhouse gas emissions. *Am. J. Agric. Econ.* 95, 442–448, 2013.
- 518 • Houghton, B. R. A., Woods, T., Box, P. O., and Hole, W.: Revised estimates of the annual
519 net flux of carbon to the atmosphere from changes in land use and land management
520 1850 – 2000, 378–390, 2003.
- 521 • Hurtt, G. C., Chini, L. P., Frohking, S., Betts, R. a., Feddema, J., Fischer, G., Wang, Y. P.:
522 Harmonization of land-use scenarios for the period 1500–2100: 600 years of global
523 gridded annual land-use transitions, wood harvest, and resulting secondary lands.
524 *Climatic Change*, 109(1-2), 117–161. doi:10.1007/s10584-011-0153-2, 2011.
- 525 • Jones, J., Hoogenboom, G., Porter, C., Boote, K., Batchelor, W., Hunt, L., Ritchie, J.: The
526 DSSAT cropping system model. *European Journal of Agronomy* (Vol. 18, pp. 235–265).
527 doi:10.1016/S1161-0301(02)00107-7. 2003.
- 528 • Knox, J., Hess, T., Daccache, A., and Wheeler, T.: Climate change impacts on crop
529 productivity in Africa and South Asia. *Environmental Research Letters*, 7(3), 034032.
530 doi:10.1088/1748-9326/7/3/034032, 2012.
- 531 • Lambin, E. F., Geist, H. J., and Lepers, E.: Dynamics of L and -U Se and L and -C Over C
532 Hange in T Ropical R Egions. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 28(1), 205–
533 241. doi:10.1146/annurev.energy.28.050302.105459, 2003.
- 534 • Lawrence, P. J., and Chase, T. N.: Representing a new MODIS consistent land surface in
535 the Community Land Model (CLM 3.0). *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 112(G1),
536 G01023. doi:10.1029/2006JG000168, 2007.

- 537 • Le Quéré, C., Raupach, M.R., Canadell, J.G., Marland, G., Bopp, L., Ciais, P., Conway, T.J.,
538 Doney, S.C., Feely, R.A., Foster, P., Friedlingstein, P., Gurney, K., Houghton, R.A., House,
539 J.I., Huntingford, C., Levy, P.E., Lomas, M.R., Majkut, J., Metzler, N., Ometto, J.P., Peters,
540 G.P., Prentice, I.C., Randerson, J.T., Running, S.W., Sarmiento, J.L., Schuster, U., Sitch, S.,
541 Takahashi, T., Viovy, N., van der Werf, G.R., Woodward, F.I.: Trends in the sources and
542 sinks of carbon dioxide. *Nature Geoscience* 2, 831e836. doi:10.1038/ngeo689, 2009.
- 543 • Leclère, D., Havlík, P., Fuss, S., Schmid, E., Mosnier, A., Walsh, B. and Obersteiner, M.:
544 Climate change induced transformations of agricultural systems: insights from a global
545 model. *Environmental Research Letters*, 9(12), 124018, 2014.
- 546 • Lotze-Campen, H., Müller, C., Bondeau, A., Rost, S., Popp, A., and Lucht, W.: Global food
547 demand, productivity growth, and the scarcity of land and water resources: a spatially
548 explicit mathematical programming approach. *Agricultural Economics*, 39(3), 325-338,
549 2008.
- 550 • Mahmood, R., Quintanar, A. I., Conner, G., Leeper, R., Dobler, S., Pielke, R. A., Syktus, J.:
551 Impacts of Land Use/Land Cover Change on Climate and Future Research Priorities.
552 *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 91(1), 37–46.
553 doi:10.1175/2009BAMS2769.1, 2010.
- 554 • Mei, R., and Wang, G.: Rain follows logging in the Amazon? Results from CAM3–CLM3.
555 *Climate Dynamics*, 34(7-8), 983–996. doi:10.1007/s00382-009-0592-x, 2009.
- 556 • Mittermeier, C.: Impact of urbanization and land-use change on climate, 423(May), 528–
557 532. doi:10.1038/nature01649.1, 2003.

- 558 • Murray-Rust, D., Dendoncker, N., Dawson, T. P., Acosta-Michlik, L., Karali, E., Guillem, E.,
559 and Rounsevell, M.: Conceptualizing the analysis of socioecological systems through
560 ecosystem services and agent-based modelling. *Journal of Land Use Science*, 6(2-3), 83–
561 99. doi:10.1080/1747423X.2011.558600, 2011.
- 562 • Olesen, J. E., and Bindi, M.: Consequences of climate change for European agricultural
563 productivity, land use and policy. *European Journal of Agronomy*, 16(4), 239–262.
564 doi:10.1016/S1161-0301(02)00004-7, 2002.
- 565 • Oleson, K. W., D. M. Lawrence, G. B. Bonan, M. G. Flanner, E. Kluzek, P. J. Lawrence, S.
566 Levis, S. C. Swenson, P. E. Thornton, A. Dai, M. Decker, R. Dickinson, J. Feddema, C. L.
567 Heald, F. Hoffman, J. F. Lamarque, N. Mahowald, G.-Y. Niu, T. Qian, J. Randerson, S.
568 Running, K. Sakaguchi, A. Slater, R. Stockli, A. Wang, Z.-L. Yang, X. Zeng, and Zeng, X:
569 Technical description of version 4.0 of the Community Land Model, NCAR Tech. Note
570 NCAR/TN-478+STR, 257, 2010.
- 571 • Parker, D. C., Manson, S. M., Janssen, M. A., Hoffmann, M. J., Deadman, P., Manson, S.
572 M., Hall, S.: Multi-Agent Systems for the Simulation of Land-Use and Land-Cover Change :
573 A Review *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 2002.
- 574 • Pielke, R.A., Pitman, A., Niyogi, D., Mahmood, R., McAlpine, C., Hossain, F., Klein
575 Goldewijk K., Nair, U., Betts, R., Fall, S., Reichstein, M., Kabat, P., de Noblet-Ducoudre, N.:
576 Land use/land cover changes and climate: modeling analysis and observational evidence.
577 *WIREs Climate Change* 2: 828–850, 2011.

- 578 • Pongratz, J., Reick, C. H., Raddatz, T., and Claussen, M.: Biogeophysical versus
579 biogeochemical climate response to historical anthropogenic land cover change.
580 Geophysical Research Letters, 37(8), n/a–n/a. doi:10.1029/2010GL043010, 2010.
- 581 • Robinson, S., van Meijl, H., Willenbockel, D., Valin, H., Fujimori, S., Masui, T., Sands, R.,
582 Wise, M., Calvin, K., Havlik, P., Mason d’Croz, D., Tabeau, A., Kavallari, A., Schmitz, C.,
583 Dietrich, J.D., von Lampe, M.: Comparing supply-side specifications in models of global
584 agriculture and the food system. *AgricEcon* 45(1):21–35, 2014.
- 585 • Ronneberger, K. E.: The global agricultural land-use model KLUM – A coupling tool for
586 integrated assessment, PhD dissertation, University of Hamburg, 2006.
- 587 • Rosegrant, M. W.: International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and
588 Trade (IMPACT) Model Description International Food Policy Research Institute, (July),
589 2012.
- 590 • Rounsevell, M. D., Annetts, J., Audsley, E., Mayr, T., and Reginster, I.: Modelling the spatial
591 distribution of agricultural land use at the regional scale. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and*
592 *Environment*, 95(2-3), 465–479. doi:10.1016/S0167-8809(02)00217-7, 2003.
- 593 • Rounsevell, M. D. A., Arneth, A., Alexander, P., Brown, D. G., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N., Ellis,
594 E., Young, O.: Towards decision-based global land use models for improved understanding
595 of the Earth system. *Earth System Dynamics*, 5(1), 117–137. doi:10.5194/esd-5-117, 2014.
- 596 • Schlenker, W., and Lobell, D. B.: Robust negative impacts of climate change on African
597 agriculture. *Environmental Research Letters*, 5(1), 014010. doi:10.1088/1748-
598 9326/5/1/014010, 2010.

- 599 • Schmitz, C., van Meijl, H., Kyle, P., Nelson, G. C., Fujimori, S., Gurgel, A., Alin, H.: Land-use
600 change trajectories up to 2050: insights from a global agro-economic model comparison.
601 *Agricultural Economics*, 45(1), 69–84. doi:10.1111/agec.12090, 2014.
- 602 • Schröter, D., Cramer, W., Leemans, R., Prentice, I.C., Araújo, M.B., Arnell, N.W., Bondeau,
603 A., Bugmann, H., Carter, T.R., Gracia, C.A., de la Vega-Leinert, A.C., Erhard, M., Ewert,
604 F., Glendining, M., House, J.I., Kankaanpää, S., Klein, R.J.T., Lavorel, S., Lindner, M.,
605 Metzger, M.J., Meyer, J., Mitchell T.D., Reginster, I., Rounsevell, M., Sabaté, S., Sitch, S.,
606 Smith, B., Smith, J., Smith, P., Sykes, M.T., Thonicke, K., Thuiller, W., Tuck, G., Zaehle, S. and
607 Zierl, B.: Ecosystem service supply and vulnerability to global change in Europe. *Science*,
608 310, 1333–1337, 2005.
- 609 • Sheffield, J., Goteti, G., Wood, E.F.: Development of a 50-yr, high resolution global dataset
610 of meteorological forcings for land surface modeling. *J. Climate* (13), 3088–3111, 2006.
- 611 • Smith, P., Haberl, H., Popp, A., Erb, K.-H., Lauk, C., Harper, R., Rose, S.: How much land-
612 based greenhouse gas mitigation can be achieved without compromising food security
613 and environmental goals? *Global Change Biology*, 19(8), 2285–302.
614 doi:10.1111/gcb.12160, 2013.
- 615 • Stéphenne, N., and Lambin, E. F.: A dynamic simulation model of land-use changes in
616 Sudano-sahelian countries of Africa (SALU). *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*,
617 85(1-3), 145–161. doi:10.1016/S0167-8809(01)00181-5, 2001.
- 618 • Taylor, K. E., Stouffer, R. J., and Meehl, G. A.: An Overview of CMIP5 and the experiment
619 design.” *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc*, 93, 485–498, doi:10.1175/BAMS-D-11-00094.1, 2012.

- 620 • Tubiello, F. N., Salvatore, M., Rossi, S., Ferrara, A., Fitton, N., and Smith, P.: The FAOSTAT
621 database of greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture. *Environmental Research Letters*,
622 8(1), 015009. doi:10.1088/1748-9326/8/1/015009, 2001.
- 623 • Valbuena, D., Verburg, P. H., Bregt, A. K., and Ligtenberg, A.: An agent-based approach to
624 model land-use change at a regional scale. *Landscape Ecology*, 25(2), 185–199.
625 doi:10.1007/s10980-009-9380-6, 2010.
- 626 • Valin, H., Havlík, P., Mosnier, A., Herrero, M., Schmid, E., and Obersteiner, M.: Agricultural
627 productivity and greenhouse gas emissions: trade-offs or synergies between mitigation
628 and food security?. *Environmental Research Letters*, 8(3), 035019, 2013.
- 629 • Veldkamp, A, and Lambin, E.: Predicting land-use change. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and*
630 *Environment*, 85(1-3), 1–6. doi:10.1016/S0167-8809(01)00199-2, 2001.
- 631 • Verburg, P. H., Kok, K., Pontius Jr, R. G., and Veldkamp, A.: Modeling land-use and land-
632 cover change. In *Land-use and Land-cover Change* (pp. 117-135). Springer Berlin
633 Heidelberg, 2006.
- 634 • Verburg, P. H.: Simulating feedbacks in land use and land cover change models. *Landscape*
635 *Ecology*, 21(8), 1171–1183. doi:10.1007/s10980-006-0029-4, 2006.
- 636 • Verburg, P. H., Neumann, K., and Nol, L.: Challenges in using land use and land cover data
637 for global change studies. *Global Change Biology*, 17(2), 974–989. doi:10.1111/j.1365-
638 2486, 2011.
- 639 • Wang, G. L., Miao, Y., Pal, J. S., Rui, M., Bonan, G., Levis, S., Thornton, P.: On the
640 development of a coupled RegCM-CLM-CN-DV model and its validation in West Africa.
641 *Climate Dynamics*, DOI 10.1007/s00382-015-2596-z, 2015.

- 642 • World Bank: Investment in Agricultural Water for Poverty Reduction and Economic
643 Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. A collaborative programme of ADB, FAO, IFAD, IWMI and
644 World Bank. Synthesis Report, 2008.
- 645 • You, L. S., and Wood, S.: An entropy approach to spatial disaggregation of agricultural
646 production. *Agricultural Systems*, 90(1-3), 329–347. doi:10.1016/j.agsy.2006.01.008,
647 2006.
- 648 • You, L. S., Wood, S., Wood-Sichra, U., Wu, W.: Generating global crop distribution maps:
649 From census to grid. *Agricultural Systems* 127 (2014) 53–60, 2014.
- 650 • Yu, M., Wang, G., Parr, D., Ahmed, K.: Future changes of the terrestrial ecosystem based
651 on a dynamic vegetation model driven with RCP8.5 climate projections from 19 GCMs.
652 *Climatic Change*, 1-15 (2014).

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664 **Figure Captions**

665 **Figure 1:** Spatial distribution of cropland, forest and grass coverage (%) in 14 West African
666 countries from present-day (year 2005) observation (top row) and future projections by the
667 LandPro for mid-21st century under regional climates driven with two GCMs: MIROC (middle row)
668 and CESM (bottom row).

669

670 **Figure 2:** Future changes in crop area distribution projected by LandPro: total changes
671 (LandPro_Total), changes because of socioeconomic changes (LandPro_SE) and changes because
672 of climate change (LandPro_CC) in West Africa under the MIROC-driven and CESM-driven future
673 climates.

674

675 **Figure 3:** Land use changes projected by LandPro assuming three different levels of future
676 demand, under the MIROC-driven regional climate. 1st row: absolute magnitude of total land use
677 changes; 2nd row: changes due to socioeconomic factors; 3rd row: changes due to climatic factors;
678 4th row: climate-induced change as a fraction of total change.

679

680 **Figure 4:** Similar to Figure 3, but for CESM-driven climate. (Note that the SE-induced changes in
681 Figure 3 and Figure 4 are same).

682

683 **Figure 5:** Country-average values of total changes in cropland coverage (top) and climate-induced
684 changes as a fraction of total changes (bottom) according to three future scenarios of demand
685 under the MIROC- and the CESM-driven regional climate.

686

687 **Figure 6:** Future crop area percentage (1st and 3rd rows) in West Africa (under the MIROC- and
688 CESM-driven regional climates) projected by the LandPro algorithm following two alternative
689 scenarios of selecting grid cells for conversion to agricultural land based on the order of yield,
690 and their respective differences relative to the initial run (best scenario) that follows the
691 descending order of yield (2nd and 4th rows). Alternative scenario 01: ascending order of yield;
692 alternative scenario 2: random order.

693

694 **Figure 7:** Future crop area coverage (%) in the West Africa as projected by the LandPro algorithm
695 under the MIROC-driven climate, following four different ranks of prioritizing crops in land
696 allocation: Rank 1, descending order of country-level crop deficit (initial run); Rank 2, ascending
697 order of country-level crop deficit; Rank 3, maize, sorghum, millet, cassava, peanut; Rank 4,
698 peanut, cassava, millet, sorghum, maize.

699

700 **Figure 8:** Future crop area coverage (%) in the West Africa as projected by the LandPro algorithm
701 under the MIROC-driven regional climate, based on the future scenario where forest is preferred
702 over grass for crop area expansion (as shown in Figure 1) and the alternate scenario where grass
703 is preferred over forest, and the differences between the two.

704

705 **Figure 9:** Future changes in crop area distribution, from the LandPro projections accounting for
706 only socioeconomic changes (LandPro-SE) and from the Hurtt et al. data, and their differences
707 (top row); the present-day (2005) crop area, from SPAM and from Hurtt et al. data, and their
708 differences (bottom row).

709

710

711

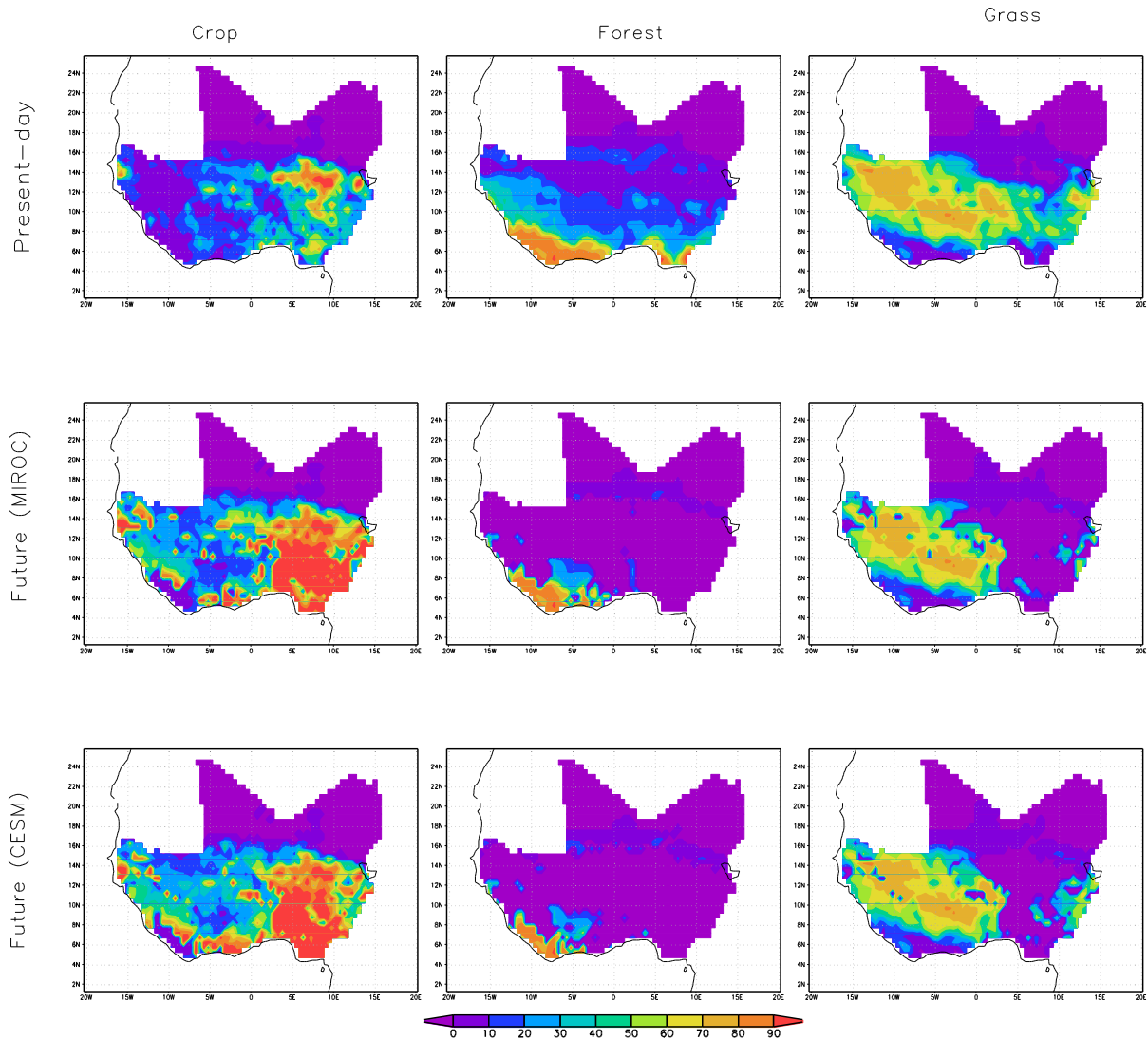
712

713

714

715

716



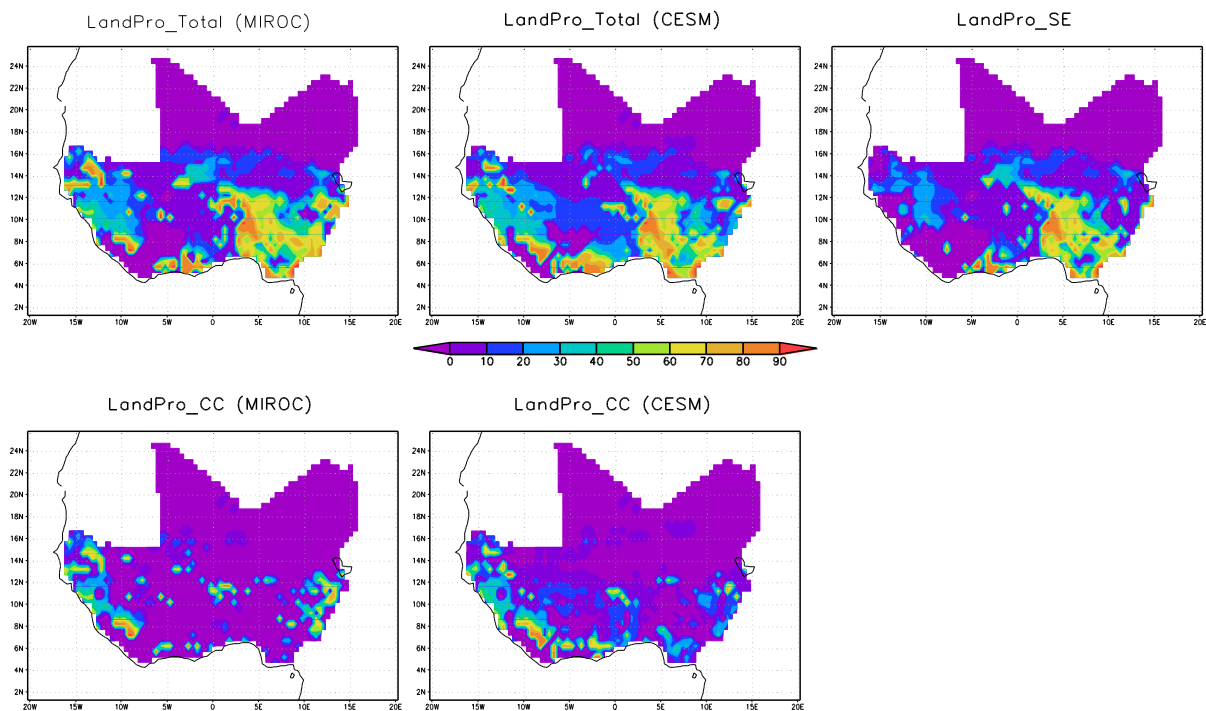
717

718 **Figure 1:** Spatial distribution of cropland, forest and grass coverage (%) in 14 West African
 719 countries from present-day (year 2005) observation (top row) and future projections by the
 720 LandPro for mid-21st century under regional climates driven with two GCMs: MIROC (middle row)
 721 and CESM (bottom row).

722

723

724



725

726 **Figure 2:** Future changes in crop area distribution projected by LandPro: total changes
 727 (LandPro_Total), changes because of socioeconomic changes (LandPro_SE) and changes because
 728 of climate change (LandPro_CC) in West Africa under the MIROC-driven and CESM-driven future
 729 climates.

730

731

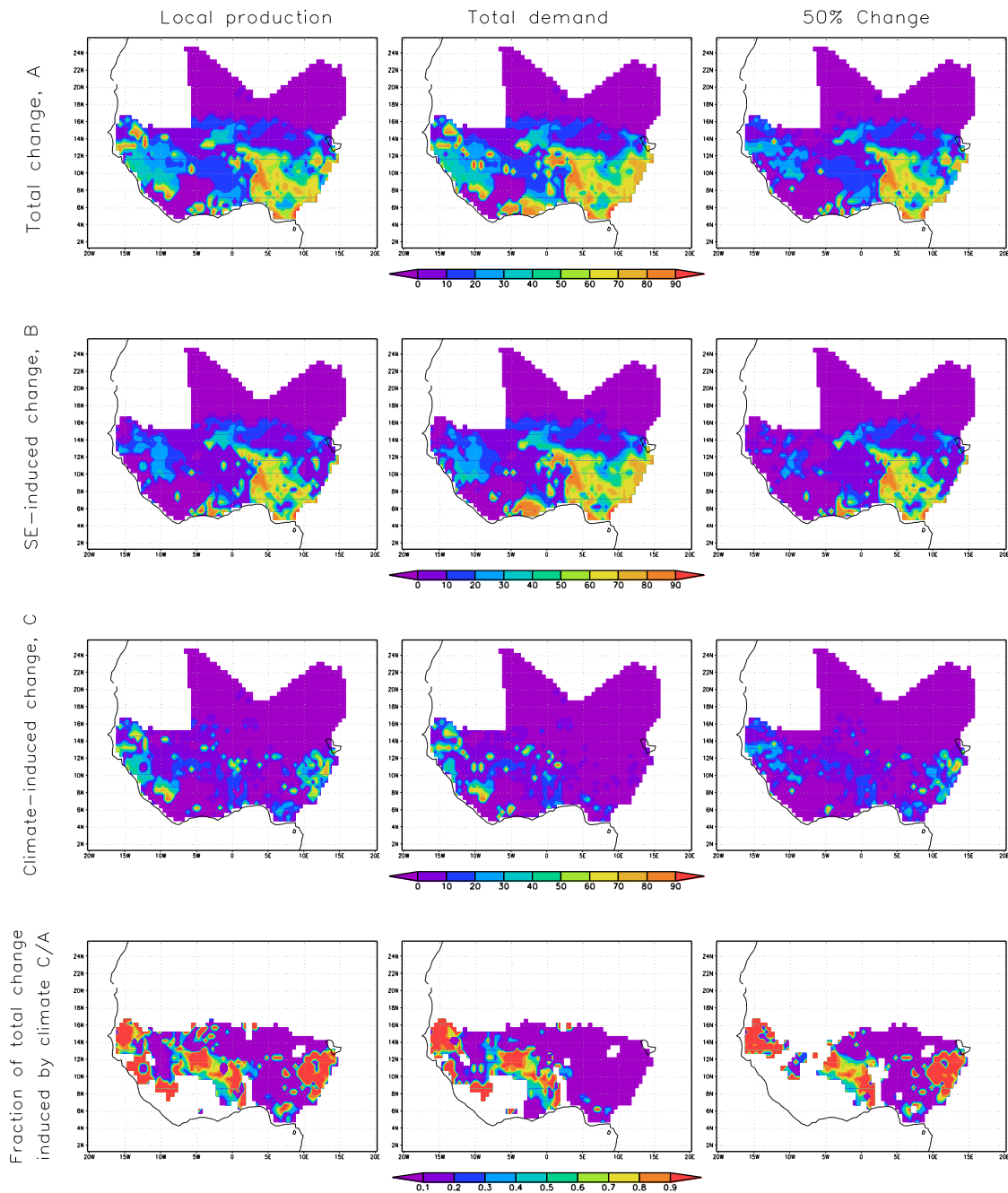
732

733

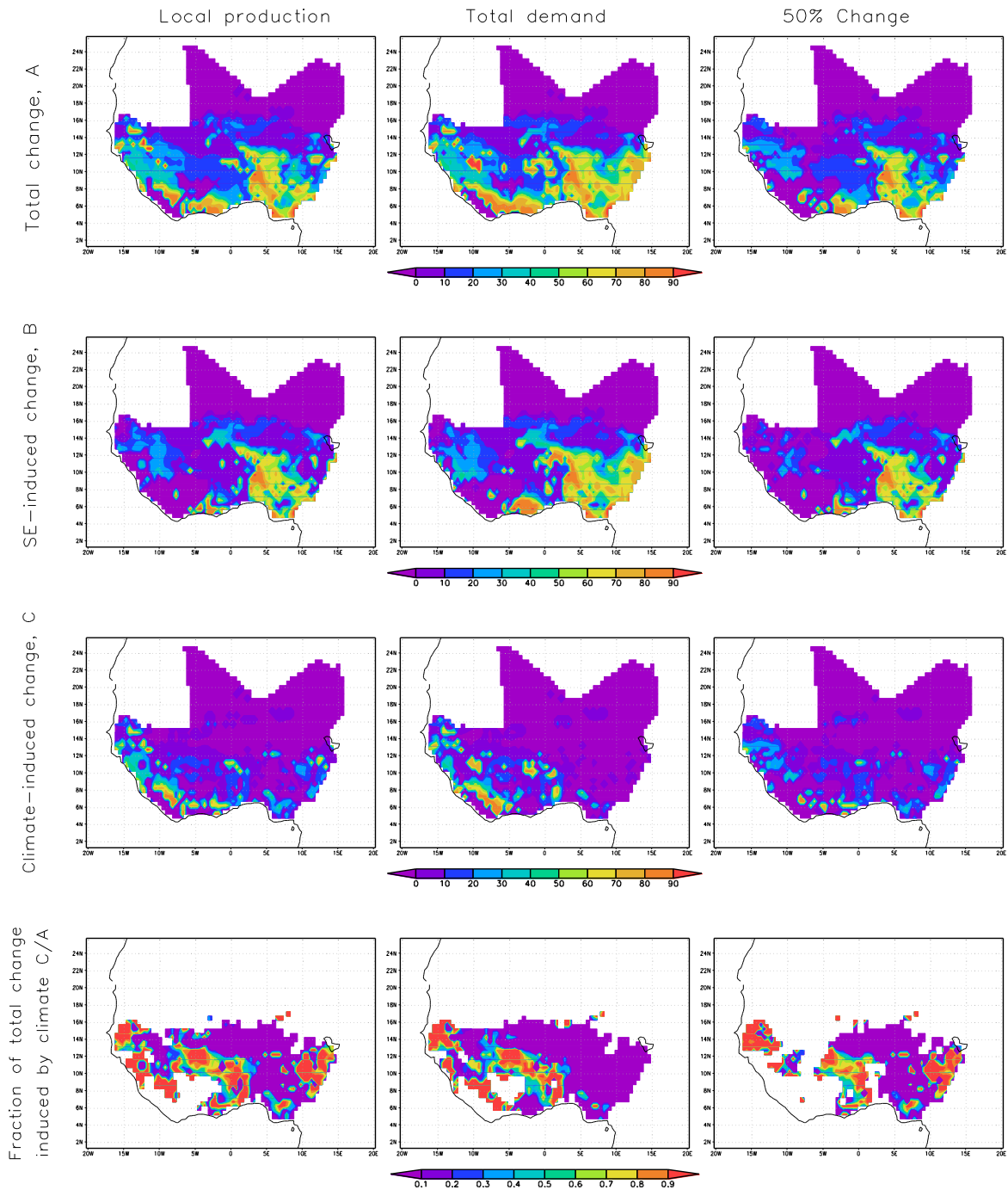
734

735

736



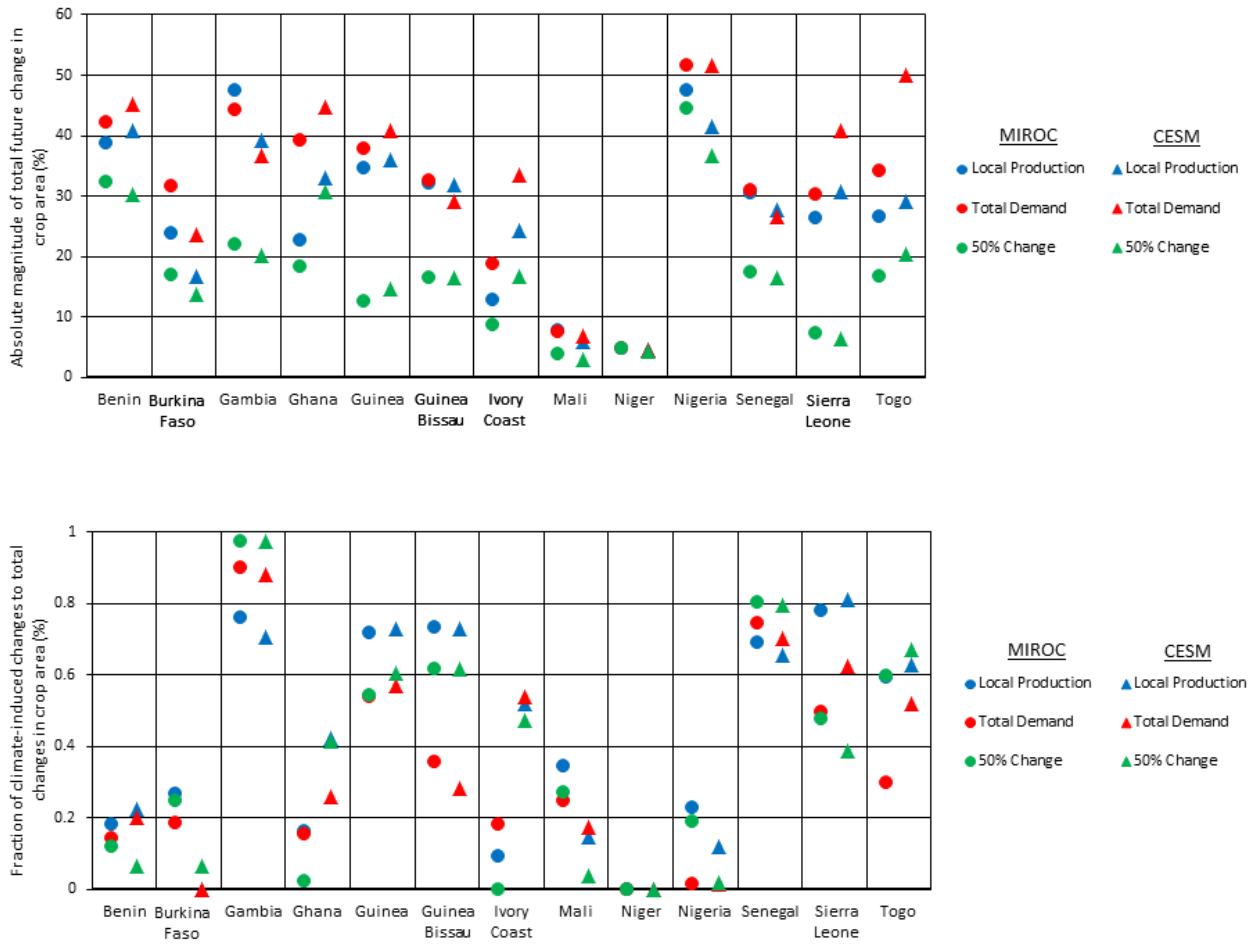
739 **Figure 3:** Land use changes projected by LandPro assuming three different levels of future
 740 demand, under the MIROC-driven regional climate. 1st row: absolute magnitude of total land use
 741 changes; 2nd row: changes due to socioeconomic factors; 3rd row: changes due to climatic factors;
 742 4th row: climate-induced change as a fraction of total change.



743

744 **Figure 4:** Similar to Figure 3, but for CESM-driven climate. (Note that the SE-induced changes in
 745 Figure 3 and Figure 4 are same).

746



747

748 **Figure 5:** Country-average values of total changes in cropland coverage (top) and climate-induced
 749 changes as a fraction of total changes (bottom) according to three future scenarios of demand
 750 under the MIROC- and the CESM-driven regional climate.

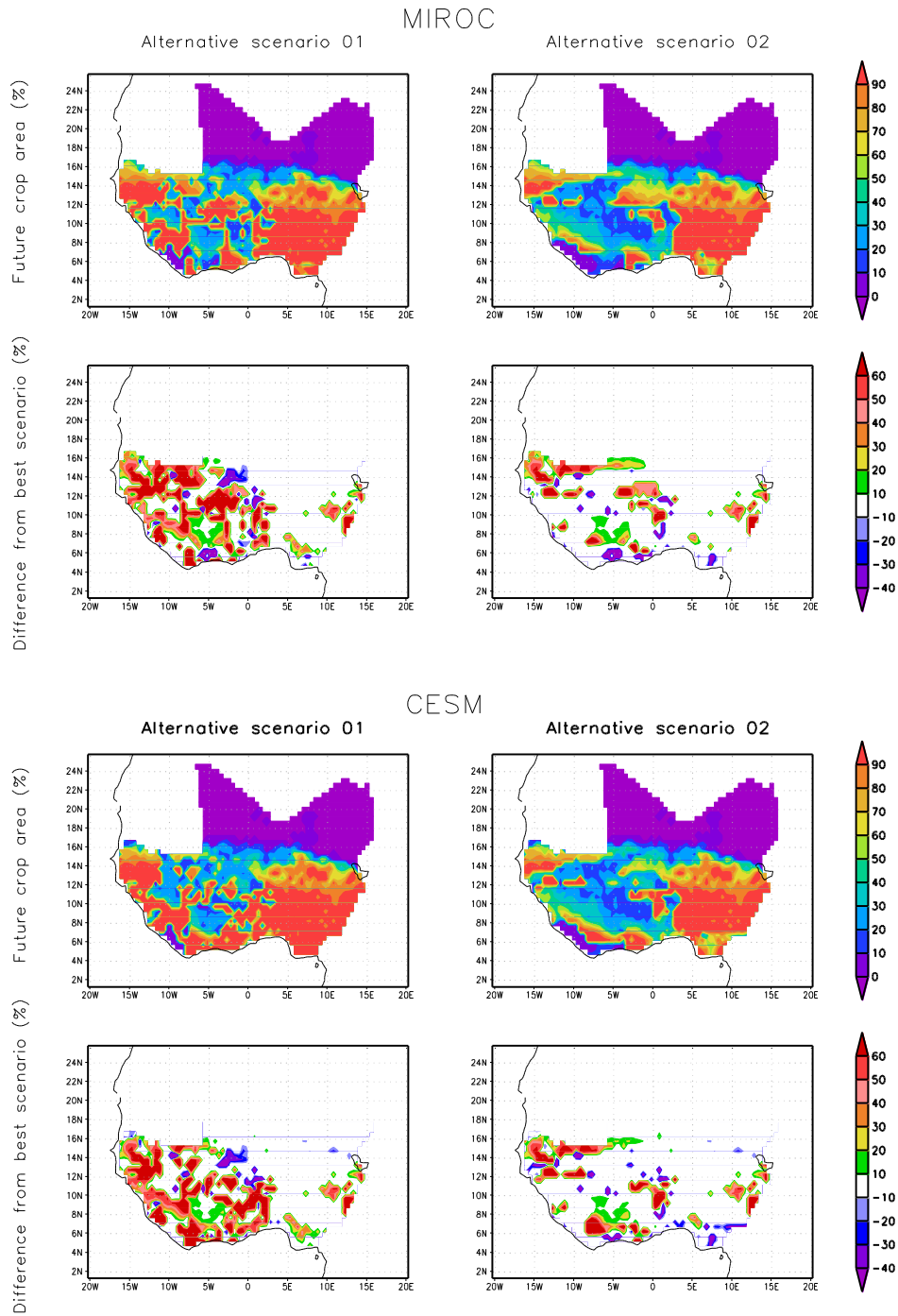
751

752

753

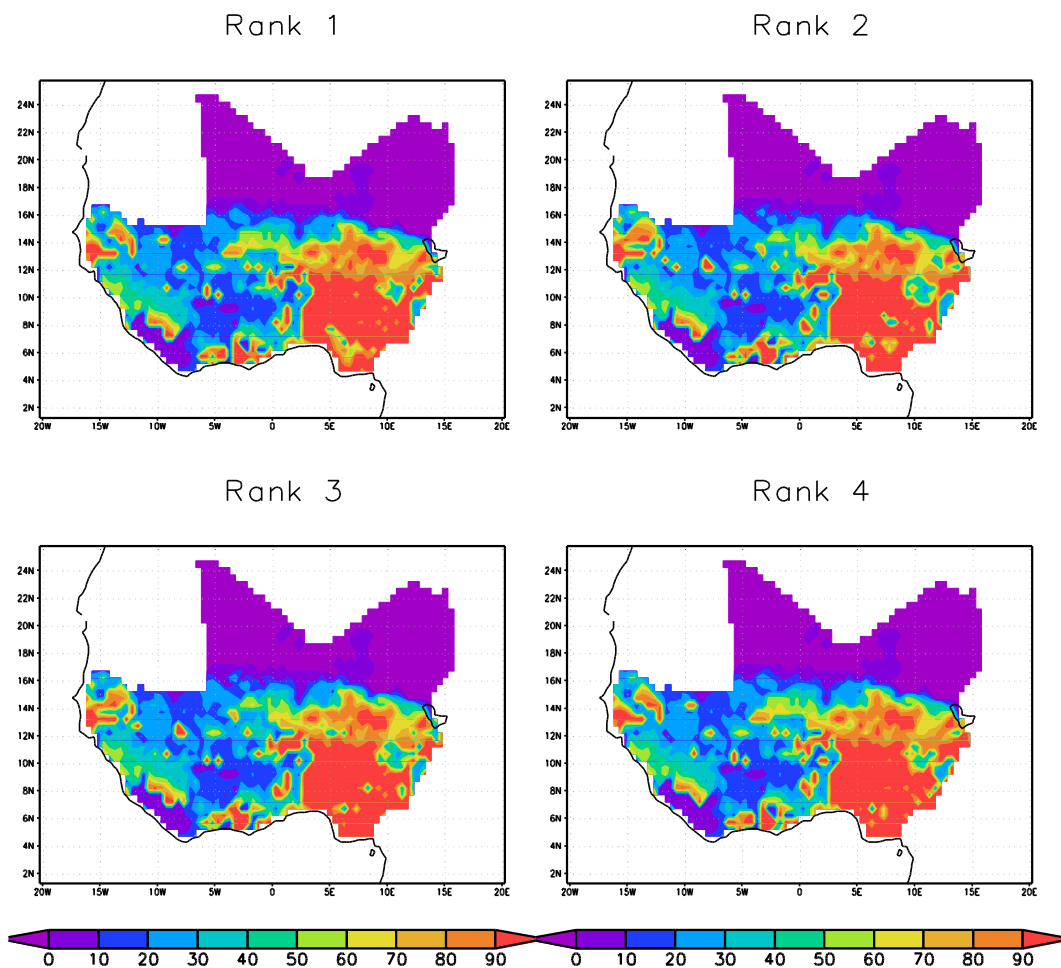
754

755



756

757 **Figure 6:** Future crop area percentage (1st and 3rd rows) in West Africa (under the MIROC- and
 758 CESM-driven regional climates) projected by the LandPro algorithm following two alternative
 759 scenarios of selecting grid cells for conversion to agricultural land based on the order of yield,
 760 and their respective differences relative to the initial run (best scenario) that follows the
 761 descending order of yield (2nd and 4th rows). Alternative scenario 01: ascending order of yield;
 762 alternative scenario 2: random order.



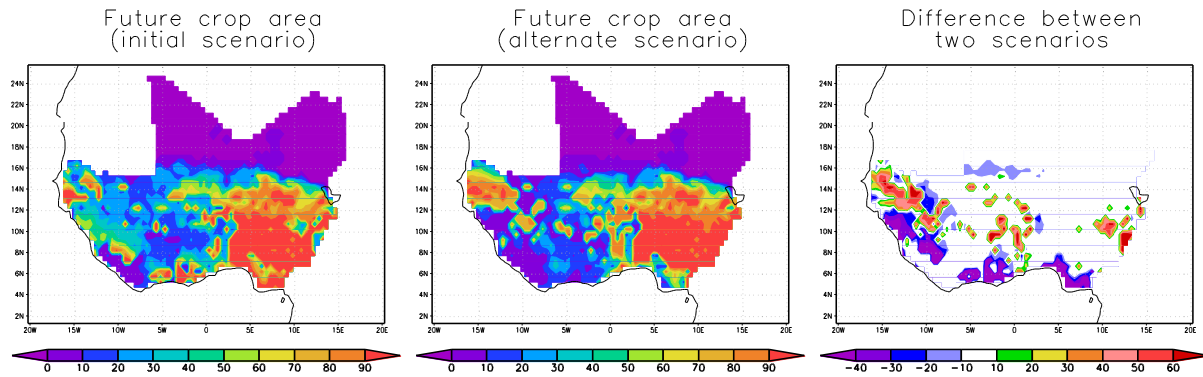
763

764 **Figure 7:** Future crop area coverage (%) in the West Africa as projected by the LandPro algorithm
 765 under the MIROC-driven climate, following four different ranks of prioritizing crops in land
 766 allocation: Rank 1, descending order of country-level crop deficit (initial run); Rank 2, ascending
 767 order of country-level crop deficit; Rank 3, maize, sorghum, millet, cassava, peanut; Rank 4,
 768 peanut, cassava, millet, sorghum, maize.

769

770

771



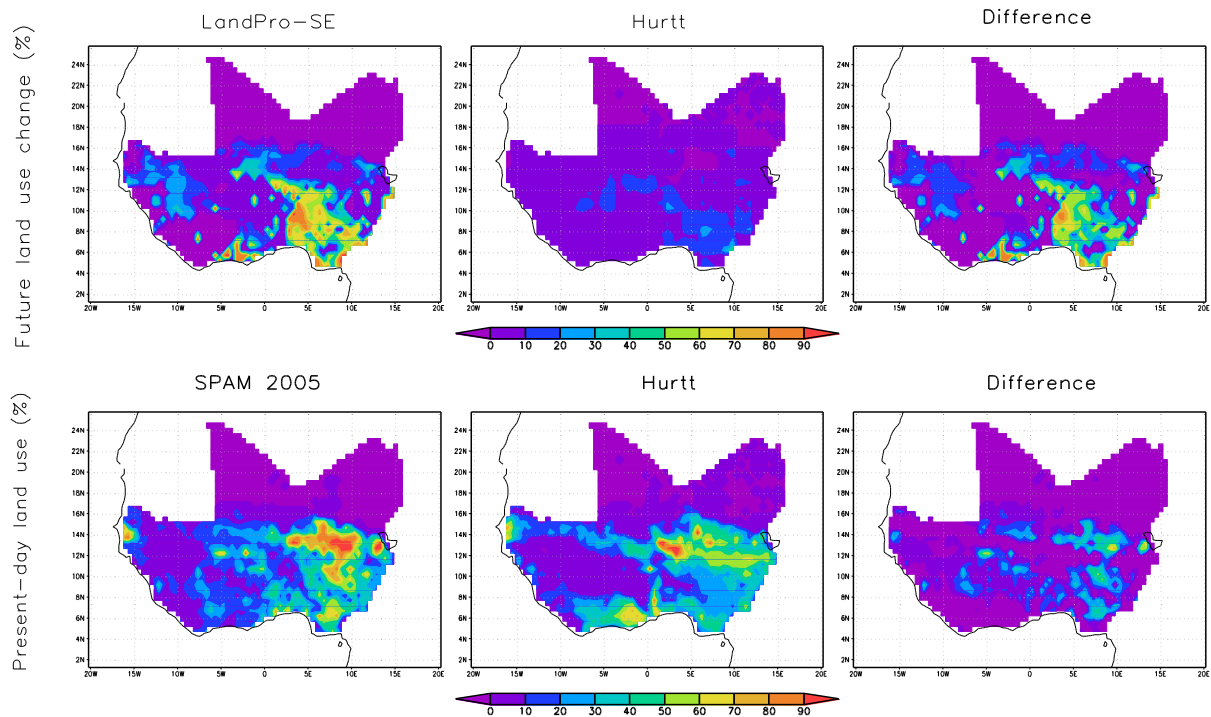
772

773 **Figure 8:** Future crop area coverage (%) in the West Africa as projected by the LandPro algorithm
 774 under the MIROC-driven regional climate, based on the future scenario where forest is preferred
 775 over grass for crop area expansion (as shown in Figure 1) and the alternate scenario where grass
 776 is preferred over forest, and the differences between the two.

777

778

779



780

781 **Figure 9:** Future changes in crop area distribution, from the LandPro projections accounting for
 782 only socioeconomic changes (LandPro-SE) and from the Hurtt et al. data, and their differences
 783 (top row); the present-day (2005) crop area, from SPAM and from Hurtt et al. (data, and their
 784 differences (bottom row).

785

786

787

788

789

790

791