

ISSN 2278 - 0211 (Online)

Soil Degradation in Marginal Areas: Perspectives of Farming Communities of Semi-Arid Areas of Katsina State, Northern Nigeria

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Abstract:

The farmers' views on indicators and causes of soil degradation and the measures used in conserving the soil fertility was investigated Household survey, key informants interview; focus group discussion and field observation were used in the data collection. The result indicate that farmers have array of indicators for assessing the extent of soil degradation in their farms and also identified and explained the causative factors responsible for the phenomenon. Majority of the farmers prefer to use agronomic/biological conservation compare to mechanical measures which require a lot of materials hence costly, difficult to make and maintain. It is also found that individual views on soil degradation are influenced by many factors, thus when planning any programme to remediate soil degradation must to be cognizance of farmers' differences of environmental knowledge and their holistic perception of the problem.

Key words: soil degradation, water erosion, wind erosion, soil fertility decline, soil and water conservation

1. Introduction

Soil degradation is the persistent decrease in the soil productivity (Albaladje et al., 1998; Kerr and Pender, 2005). Soil fertility degradation on smallholder farms are widely believed to be the major cause of food insecurity and poverty in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where large percentage of the people live in rural areas and derive their livelihoods from farming and other related activities (Bielders et al., 2001;Mortimore, 2005; Moges and Holden; 2007). In dry lands, soil degradation processes, which have a more severe impact on land productivity, include, deforestation, water erosion, wind erosion, salinization, alkalinization and soil compaction (Olofin, 1998; Dregne, 2002;). These degradation processes take place in three interlocking stages with one stage leading to another. These are soil physical degradation, chemical degradation, and biological degradation (Maigari 2002).

Since the first United Nations (UN) Desertification Conference of 1977 in Nairobi, the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development, which held in Rio de Janeiro, and the 1994 Inter-governmental Convention to Combat Desertification which held in Paris, science has played a leading role in defining land degradation, as well as determining its extent and assessing its impact and offered a variety of alternatives to remedy the problem. (Stringer and Reed 2007; Stringer et al., 2007). Despite all these and other efforts, the problem still persists (Le Houerou, 2003). "Science has its own limitations and cannot always provide accurate diagnosis or solution to all problems" (Stringer and Reed 2007). Hence, many scientists are now advocating the need to consider the views and perspectives of the local communities because they may offer important revelations on their environment changes which analysis of scientific data alone cannot capture (e.g Kiome and Stocking,1998; Kerr and Pender, 2005; Okoba and Graarff 2005, Loius 2007, Wei et al., 2009). Even though some have argued that farmers and scientists contrasting views are influence by their different aim, method and nature of work (Ingram et al., 2010).

Davies (2010) and Odendo et al., (2010) also suggested that the identification of the indicators of soil degradation should no longer be considered an exclusive monopoly of the scientists. Because "it is not exclusive knowledge held by scientists that hold the key to understanding and solving environmental problems but the mutual inter dependence of both "expert" and indigenous knowledge" (Mahiri, 1998).

In many countries, a few studies have been attempted to understand the causes, extent and severity of soil degradation from the point of view of the people directly affected by the problem (West et al. 2008). But a huge amount of resources has been allocated on

experiment at national and international agricultural research and development centers, which have not always had a significant impact on third world farmers, whereas relatively few resources have been used for exploring the indigenous agricultural and environmental knowledge system of the communities living in an increasingly degraded land.

Perhaps a good way of addressing the complexities and contentious nature of the understanding of dry lands' environments provided by western science is for the researchers of these environments to start giving emphasis in using the indigenous knowledge of environmental degradation to complement western scientific knowledge. As Lal (2009a) pointed out, "indigenous knowledge and modern innovation go hand-in-hand. One cannot solve current global issue without the other". Hence he stressed that "we can develop upon traditional knowledge, but those who ignore modern innovations must be prepare to endure more sufferings." Some scientists have emphasized the need for the use of both local and scientific environmental knowledge systems in the development planning process and in scientific investigations (e.g. Thomas and Tyman, 2004; Stringer and Reed 2007 Lindsay et al 2007). Even though, from 1980s there is a lot of "bottom-up" and "participatory" rhetoric, the old habit of the top-down approach still persists and local views and perspectives were not given due consideration (Reed et al., 2007).

Nigeria's grassland (savanna) region covers about 849,496km² or 86% of the country's land area and contains more than 60% of the country's population (Omijeh et al, 1989; Adegbehin, et al., 1990; Mijindadi and Adegbehin 1991). Between 11⁰N and 14⁰N where the Sudano-Sahelian agro-ecological zone lies, is about 40% of the country's landmass which is very susceptible to land degradation than any other region of the country due to a variety of factors, including overgrazing, deforestation, wind erosion, soil depletion aggravated by continuous cropping, drought and bush fire (Adegbehin, 1990). The rate of land degradation in Nigeria appears to have extended below 11⁰N because of uncontrolled human activities (Otegbeye, 2004).

It has been estimated that Nigeria is losing 350,000m² to desertification every year and the Sahara desert is advancing at an estimated rate of 0.6km per year (Ministry of Environment Bulletin, 2008). Northern Katsina State (i.e.the six local governments bordering Niger Republic) is an area believed to be threatened seriously by land degradation (Effeh, 2000). In most agro-ecological zones of Nigeria, there is no much record documenting the indigenous environmental knowledge, thus, studying how local communities in this area understand soil degradation problems, and how they manage it, could help in building on the existing knowledge and experience of the scientists by enhancing and re-orienting their thinking of the problem. This could help to direct project toward solving the problem in a right way and avoid unnecessary mistakes. In other words, integrating or coordinating local people understanding with scientific knowledge could pave the way of having diverse views and coming up with a better approach for formulating useful policies and best practices in monitoring and responding to environmental challenges in the area, i.e. "combining scientific rigour and accuracy with relevance and sensitivity to local perspectives and context" (Stringer and Reed, 2007). The objectives of this study are (i) to identify and describe farmers indicators of soil degradation, (ii) to investigate farmers perceive reasons/causes of soil degradation and (iii) to document farmers' soil conservation knowledge and existing practices.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Geographical settings of the StudyArea

The study area lies between latitude 12o 52'N and13o 19'N and longitude 7o 16'E and 8o 43'E. The villages fall within six local government areas (LGA) of Katsina state, northern Nigeria. The landscape features are underlain by sedimentary rock, dominantly flat with an average height of 300 meters above sea level, with intersection in some parts by hills. Local vegetation adapt to climatic rhythm of long dry season and short wet season. The dominant trees in the area developed long tap roots, thick barks which allow them to withstand the long dry season and bush fires. The vegetation is facing various form of abuse, including, cutting, cultivation, overgrazing and bush fire. The area has unimodal rainfall pattern most which received between May to September, annual average below 700mm. Temperatures are high in most parts of the year, with the mean daily maximum ranging between 27oC to 40oC occur between March and May. The mean minimum ranging between 18oC to 25oC received between November to early February The study area has four different seasons; a cool dry season (December to February), a hot dry season (March to May), a warm wet season (May to September) and a season of low temperature (September to November), (Tomlinson, 2010). The soils are sandy ferruginous type, of latosols group, highly weathered and markedly laterised and slightly acidic due to low organic matter content and phosphorous, its total nitrogen rarely exceed 0.2%.(Abubakar, 2006) The subsistence rainfed farming is the major economic activity in the study area and fragmented farm land form the dominant characteristics of the land use pattern,

2.2. Reconnaissance and Pilot Surveys

The research was conducted between January – November 2011, in four phases, first, reconnaissance survey of one week was conducted to be familiar with the study area. Prior to formal contact with the local farmers, the study and its purpose were explained to the local traditional rulers with a view of getting maximum cooperation from their subjects. Twelve villages were systematically selected and the number of respondents chosen in each village takes into consideration its population size. A pilot survey was conducted to test the reliability and viability of the research tools and techniques. All the research assistants that helped in questionnaire administration have tertiary education, and are well familiar with the terrain of the villages and fluent in Hausa, the dominant local language spoken by the majority of the people residing in the study area.

Local Govt.	Villages		Location (Coordinate)	Estimated Population	No. of Sample Selected in the village	No. of Sample selected in the Local Govt.	Dominant tribe
D	1	Burdudu	12 ⁰ 53'N, 8 ⁰ 43'E	1,350	23	4.6	Hausa/Fulani
Baure	2	Sawani	12 ⁰ 52'N, 8 ⁰ 49'E	1,300	23	46	Hausa/Fulani
N4 : 1	1	Bumbum	13 ⁰ 16'N, 8 ⁰ 07'E	1,700	17	20	Hausa/Fulani
Maiadua	ua 2 Kwangwalan		13 ⁰ 10'N, 07 ⁰ 32'E	2,200	22	39	Hausa/Fulani
3.6.11	1	Birnin Kuka	13 ⁰ 19'N, 07 ⁰ 59'E	3,200	32		Hausa/Fulani
Mashi 2	2	Majigiri	13 ⁰ 15'N, 07 ⁰ 53'E	2,500	25	57	Hausa/Fulani
T.1.	1	Magama	13 ⁰ 06'N, 07 ⁰ 16'E	3,600	36	53	Hausa
Jibia	2	Faru	13 ⁰ 06'N, 07 ⁰ 11'E	1,760	17		Hausa
T7. *.	1	Dankama	13 ⁰ 18'N, 07 ⁰ 47'E	4,500	45	73	Hausa/Fulani
Kaita	2	Gishirawa/Matsai	13 ⁰ 10'N, 07 ⁰ 40'E	2,800	28		Hausa
	1.	Yakubawa	13 ⁰ 04'N, 08 ⁰ 29'E	1,800	18	40	Hausa
Zango	2			2,200	22	40	Hausa/Fulani
Estin	nated	l Population and San respectively	nples sizes	28,910	308	308	

Table 1: Sample Sizes and Some Characteristics of the Study Area Sources: Field Work 2011

2.3. Transect Walk

Secondly, transect walks with the key informants was held. They were asked to enumerate perceived reason/causes for soil degradation in their locality and identify observable indicators of soil degradation along the transects and conservation adopted (Okoba and Sterk, 2006)

2.4. Household survey

Thirdly, baseline questionnaire with open-ended and closed -ended questions were used to get information on demography, size of land holding, livelihood, farming practices, livestock ownership constituted the closed type questions. Issues on soil degradation process were contained in open questions. The respondents were encouraged to mention many reasons and indicators of soil degradation and soil conservation and management practices.

2.5 Focus Group Discussion

Series of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with 8-12 people were held in each village and another with one person representing each of the twelve villages. The FGD is aimed at weighing and balancing the information derived through questionnaire administration and transect walk with a view of getting a consensus and develops generalization about traditional knowledge on soil degradation of communities living in northern Katsina state. Selections of members of FGD take into consideration, the age, gender, literacy (western or Arabic/Islamic knowledge) and social status of the participants. As Mogotisi et al., (2011) pointed out that these factors affects variation in traditional knowledge in communities

2.6. Data Analysis.

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistic (frequency, percentages charts and tables) and inferential statistics (Kruka-Wallis). SPSS soft ware package was used in the analysis

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Farmer's perspectives on soil degradation indicators

Farmers describe soil degradation as a decline in soil productivity which in most cases, they believed manifests itself through soil erosion and soil fertility decline.

Most of the farmers during the FGD believed that soil erosion and soil fertility decline (decline in crop yield) are the major degradation process in the area. In other words, farmers identified the physical and biological soil degradation process, while scientists apart from these two included chemical degradation processes which are known through laboratory analysis (Lal, 1993; 2001), which is an indication that farmers have a holistic understanding of their resources (Desbiez, 2004). They are using what they can see or feel to describe their environment.

Farmers divided the time of erosion activities into two, i.e. during the dry session and wet season and believed the severity of wind erosion to be high at the beginning of the rainy season. They noted that immediately after harvest, between October/November – January, Harmattan wind changes from low to moderate wind erosion. The second most important erosion period is the early rainy season (May – July). The period is characterized by excessive wind and severe dust storm; the duration of the dust storm is usually short, from a few minutes to one hour. In most cases, it results in intense particles movement and is followed by heavy rain, which may cause the partial deposition of the eroded soil particles. The farmers further explained that if the rain is heavy, it may result to severe water erosion by displacing sediment to different directions. However, all the farmers agreed that wind erosion is more destructive in the early rainy season than water erosion.

3.2. Water Erosion

During the FGD an 82 year old farmer in Birni Kuka (Mashi LGA), described different stages of erosion and the features produce. He said;

"Erosion begins when rain drop strike the bare soil; soil aggregates are broken into fine particles that can easily be carried away by the run off (splash erosion). As water moves across the surface, soil particles are carried away (sheet erosion). As water continues moving across the soil surface, it cuts many small ditches across (rill erosion). If water concentrates flowing across one spot it creates large ditches (gulley erosion)"

This description is similar to the water erosion process explained by Lal (2001). Even though the elderly man did not mention different forms of water erosion by name, at least, he was able to describe each process and the features produced. However, it is important to note that soil erosion by water is called Zaizayar Kasa in Hausa language. All the features produced have the same name rami (hole) particularly if it is deep. But the sizes of erosion are ranked, i.e. babbar or karamar zaizayar kasa (high or low erosion rate). If a hole (rami) is wide and irregular in shape; it is called kwazazzabo (gulley).

3.3 Wind Erosion

The farmers during the FGD described wind-erosion as the removal of soil particles by the wind .A 94 year old farmer in Bududu (Baure LGA), describes how eroded materials are transported by wind. He said:

"When the wind blows, it lifts some particles a few centimeters away. Others are moved above the soil surface less than the height of a man, while the tiny particles are held up by the wind in suspense to faraway places."

The elderly farmer's description of the mode of the transport of wind-blown particles is similar to the scientific account, i.e saltation, creeping and suspension, described by Sterk (2003).

3.4 Soil Fertility Decline

Soil fertility is described by the farmers as a reduction in the nutrient status of the soil, which crops depend on for nourishment and growth. Others see decline in soil fertility when the crop use of nutrient exceed their replenishment. Mortimore (2006) study supported the latter view of the farmers, where he found in all sub-Saharan Africa net nutrient removal exceeds replenishment by a factor of 3 to 4. Hence, consider the problem as the major reason of decline in food production in sub Saharan Africa countries.

S/N	SOIL	Bua	re	Jibi	ia	Kai	ta	Mas	hi	Zan	go	Mai'a	dua	Average
	DEGRADATION INDICATORS	(n = 4	46)	(n = :	53)	(n = '	73)	(n = 5	57)	(n = 4	40)	(n = 3	39)	%
	IDENTIFIED	Freq	%											
1	Low Crop Yield	37	82	38	73	55	76	45	80	31	78	27	69	76
2	Colour Change of	28	62	29	56	50	68	34	61	23	58	26	67	62
	Crop													
3	Increased Soil	22	49	25	48	44	61	47	83	16	42	09	23	57
	Looseness													
4	Presence of Weeds	24	52	16	30	21	30	24	34	16	42	14	37	38
5	Absence of Worms	03	07	14	09	08	11	07	13	03	09	1	02	09
	and Insects													
6	Soil Stoniness	24	52	06	30	21	30	24	34	17	42	14	37	38

Rill Formation	06	13	10	27	15	21	12	17	04	11	11	30	20
Splash Pedestals	01	03	42	11	02	03	03	05	02	06	02	05	06
Sheet Wash	02	04	10	19	5	08	06	11	01	03	1	02	80
Dissection of field &	22	48	42	80	38	52	28	50	17	43	20	52	54
gullies													
Soil Colour Change	08	17	10	23	25	34	35	62	17	43	13	33	36
Exposure of	05	12	06	11	10	15	10	18	01	03	0	0	10
Underlying Rocks													
Exposure of Roots	12	27	20	38	38	52	21	37	23	57	14	35	33
Deposition of	14	32	11	21	08	11	10	18	05	13	06	16	19
Sediments													
Decrease Grass Cover	05	11	20	39	15	21	06	11	04	10	01	02	16
Poor Water Holding	03	07	01	03	04	06	09	17	01	03	0	0	06
Capacity													
Increase	28	62	30	57	05	68	41	72	24	60	27	69	65
Fertilizer/Manure													
Requirement													
Poor Crops	30	67	33	63	51	70	39	68	29	73	27	69	68
Performance													
	Splash Pedestals Sheet Wash Dissection of field & gullies Soil Colour Change Exposure of Underlying Rocks Exposure of Roots Deposition of Sediments Decrease Grass Cover Poor Water Holding Capacity Increase Fertilizer/Manure Requirement Poor Crops	Splash Pedestals Sheet Wash O2 Dissection of field & 22 gullies Soil Colour Change Exposure of O5 Underlying Rocks Exposure of Roots Deposition of 14 Sediments Decrease Grass Cover Poor Water Holding O3 Capacity Increase 28 Fertilizer/Manure Requirement Poor Crops 30	Splash Pedestals 01 03 Sheet Wash 02 04 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 Soil Colour Change 08 17 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 05 12 Exposure of Roots 12 27 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 Decrease Grass Cover 05 11 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 Increase Fertilizer/Manure Requirement 28 62 For Crops 30 67	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 05 12 06 Exposure of Roots 12 27 20 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 Decrease Grass Cover Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 Increase Fertilizer/Manure Requirement Poor Crops 30 67 33	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 12 06 11 Exposure of Roots 12 27 20 38 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 21 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 03 Poor Water Holding Capacity 28 62 30 57 Fertilizer/Manure Requirement 28 62 30 57 Poor Crops 30 67 33 63	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 05 12 06 11 10 Exposure of Roots 12 27 20 38 38 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 21 08 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 03 04 Increase Fertilizer/Manure Requirement 28 62 30 57 05 Foor Crops 30 67 33 63 51	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 Dissection of field & gullies 22 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Roots 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 21 08 11 10 18 Decrease Grass Cover 05 11 20 39 15 21 06 11 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 03 04 06 09 17 Increase Fertilizer/Manure Requirement 03 67	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 03 05 02 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 06 11 01 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 52 28 50 17 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 21 08 11 10 18 05 Decrease Grass Cover O5 11 20 39 15 21 06 11 04 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 03 04 06 09 17 01 Extrilizer/Manure Requirement 28 62 30 57 05	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 03 05 02 06 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 06 11 01 03 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 52 28 50 17 43 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 Exposure of Underlying Rocks 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 57 Deposition of Sediments 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 57 Decrease Grass Cover 05 11 20 39 15 21 06 11 04 10 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 03 04 06 09 17 01	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 03 05 02 06 02 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 06 11 01 03 1 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 52 28 50 17 43 20 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 13 Exposure of Colour Change 05 12 06 11 10 15 10 18 01 03 0 Underlying Rocks 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 57 14 Deposition of Sediments 14 32 11 21 08 11 10 18 05 13 06 Poor Water Holding Capacity 03 07 01 <td>Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 03 05 02 06 02 05 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 06 11 01 03 1 02 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 52 28 50 17 43 20 52 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 13 33 Exposure of Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 13 33 Exposure of Colour Change 05 12 06 11 10 15 10 18 01 03 0 0 Underlying Rocks 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 57 14</td>	Splash Pedestals 01 03 42 11 02 03 03 05 02 06 02 05 Sheet Wash 02 04 10 19 5 08 06 11 01 03 1 02 Dissection of field & gullies 22 48 42 80 38 52 28 50 17 43 20 52 Soil Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 13 33 Exposure of Colour Change 08 17 10 23 25 34 35 62 17 43 13 33 Exposure of Colour Change 05 12 06 11 10 15 10 18 01 03 0 0 Underlying Rocks 12 27 20 38 38 52 21 37 23 57 14

Table: 2 Soil Degradation Indicators Identified By Farmers.

Source: Field Work (2011)

3.5. An Analysis of the Identified Indicators

Looking at the trend of the soil degradation indicators in the villages (table 2), it could be observed that soil degradation has depicted nearly the same indicators in the area. Low crop yield (76%) poor crop performance (68%) increasing requirement of fertilizer and manure by crops (65%), and colour change of crops (62%), were the common indicators mentioned by the majority of farmers in all the villages. However, looking at the indicators at the village, level, and gulley erosion (80%) is the critical indicator in villages of Jibia (LGA), while in Mashi (LGA) increasing soil looseness (83%) is the major indicator mentioned by the farmers. In Zango (LGA), apart from four major indicators, the exposure of crop roots and trees (57%) is another visible indictor signifying soil degradation. Soil stoniness (52%) and the presence of weds (52%) follow the four major observed indicators in Baure (LGA). *Kruskal-Wallis* test indicates that, statistically there is a significance mean differences in soil degradation indicators values identified in the six local government (*Kruskal-Wallis or F Values* = 9.761, df = 5, P = 0.082)

3.6. The Classification of soil Degradation Indicators

To assess the level of farmers' understanding of soil degradation indicators and other related process, during the FDG, the key informants were asked to re-classify the listed indicators with regard to the time taken before they were clearly detected. The indicators were reclassified into ongoing and later soil degradation indicators (Okoba and Sterk, 2006). The key informants maintain that later indicators were usually observed after a long time of continued action of water and wind that lasted for months or years or long period of unsustainable cultivation and other human activities.

While ongoing soil degradation indicators could be seen after a single excessive rain or windstorm or single poor cultivation practice. They all agreed that the ongoing indicators could easily turn or change into the later degradation indicators if appropriate measures were not taken on time to remedy the situation.

Ongoing soil Degradation indicators	Later soil degradation indicators
 Splash pedestal Rill Sedimentation Sheet wash Root exposure (In foods crops) Decrease grass Cover Poor water holding Capacity Increase fertilizer and manure requirement Presence of weeds 	 Rock exposure Root exposure (In trees) Stoniness Gullies Loose soil Low crop yields Colour change of crops Absence of worms and insects Soil colour change Poor crop performance

Table: 3 Farmers' Classification of ongoing and later degradation Indicators Source: Field Work (2011)

Even though, the farmers seem to be aware of both short term (ongoing) and long term (later) indicators menace, however, it has been observed that they were not taking concrete measures to minimize the problems of ongoing degradation indicators. They felt that ongoing indicators could be overcome through seasonal harrowing, ploughing and weeding. Many farmers believed these indicators were not responsible for reduction in crop yield and therefore not a problem in crop production. Okoba and Sterk (2006) noted that ongoing indicators could easily be changed by change in land use and management practice that would improve soil structure and organic matter content.

	Bau (n=4		Jib (n=5		Kai (n=7		Mas (n=5			ango =40)	Maia (n=3		Aver- age %
Local	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Government													
					Exte	nt of Sc	il Degra	dation					
High	29	62	34	64	53	72	29	50	20	50	21	54	59
Moderate	8	18	14	26	12	17	27	47	17	43	16	42	33
Low	9	20	5	10	8	11	01	03	03	07	02	04	10
				Se	everity of	Soil D	egradatio	on Ove	rtime				
Increasing	36	78	38	72	60	82	43	76	32	80	30	78	78
Same	06	12	11	20	12	16	12	21	07	17	09	22	18
Decreasing	04	10	04	08	01	02	02	03	02	03	0	0	5

Table: 4 Farmers views on the Extent of Soil Degradation and Rating its Seriousness Overtime.

Source: Field Work (2011)

They maintained that farmers who failed to take permanent measures on ongoing soil degradation indicators risk allowing permanent and irreversible indicators to develop. Majority of the respondents in Kaita (72%), Jibia (65%), Baure (62%) and Mai'adua (54%) LGs believed that the level of soil degradation is very high in their villages, and predicted the severity of soil degradation is likely to increase overtime (see table 3).

3.7. Farmers' Qualitative and Quantitative Estimates of Soil Degradation

Apart from the FGD at the local level, another FGD was held with 12 key informants, one selected from each of the 12 samples villages. The aim of the discussion was to assess the extent and severity of each of the soil degradation indicators (both qualitatively and quantitatively). The discussants were asked to use their farming experience to determine which of the listed indicator relatively signify a more severe level of soil degradation. They estimated degradation indicators qualitatively by rating the severity of the indicators (whether extreme, average or low) and they were also introduced to quantitative estimates using the Pairwise Matrix analysis approach to rank each of the identified soil degradation indicators.

3.7.1. Farmers' qualitative estimate of soil Degradation

During the FGDs, key informants categorized soil degradation into three (extreme, average and low). And mentioned the relationship between soil degradation indicators and degradation levels. In other words, the nature of soil degradation in a field reflected the extent of soil degradation. However, the key informants admitted that they could not quantify the actual soil degradation level on the field, but could only relate certain soil degradation indicator to different soil degradation rates (whether extreme, average or low)

Extreme soil degradation rate	Average soil degradation rate	Low soil degradation rate
Low crop yield	Root exposure (trees)	Loose soil
Rills	Sheet wash	Root exposure (crops)
Sedimentation	Soil colour change	Splash
Gullies	Rock exposure	Presence of weeds
Stoniness	Increase fertilizer and manure	Absence of worms
	requirement	
Poor crop performance	Colour change of crops	
Poor water holding capacity		

Table: 5 Farmers' Qualitative Estimate of Soil Degradation Rates, Using Soil Degradation Indicators
Source: fieldwork (2011)

The key informants revealed that when the soil surface exhibits root exposure (for trees), sheet wash, soil colour change, the colour change of crops, and there is exposure of underlying rock and increased fertilizer and manure requirement by the soil, these features indicate a moderate soil degradation level.

3.7.2. Farmers' Quantitative Estimate of Soil Degradation

In the quantitative estimation of soil degradation, Pairwise matrix analysis was used. It involves comparing one soil degradation indicator against all the others. The key informants decide between indicators by consensus. In other words, the farmers discussed and justified why they thought certain indicators should be considered to represent higher or lower soil degradation status than the others. After all the indicators were compared, the number of times the indicator was superior over the other was recorded against it. The relative importance of each indicator's contribution to soil degradation was computed and expressed as a weight that is the ratio of frequency count for the individual indicator to the total count of all the indicators. (Okoba and Sterk, 2006)

Different ways on how the assigned weight count could be used to determine the extent of soil degradation was demonstrated to the farmers after carrying out a transect walk across the nearby farms with a view of seeing the existing soil degradation indicators. Table 5 shows the higher the indicator weight the more severe the soil degradation and the overall effect on soil productivity.

Degradation indicators	Total Frequency Count	Weight	Severity Ranking
Low crop yield	18	0.105	1
Gullies	17	0.099	2
Rills	16	0.093	3
Stoniness	15	0.087	4
Poor crops performance	14	0.081	5
Poor water holding capacity	13	0.076	6
Sedimentation	12	0.070	7
Soil Colour Change	11	0.064	8
Rock exposure	10	0.058	9
Sheet Wash	9	0.052	10
Root exposure (trees)	8	0.046	11
Colour of changed crops	7	0.040	12
Increase fertilizer & manure	6	0.35	13
requirements			
Root exposure (Crops)	5	0.029	14
Loose soil	4	0.023	15
Presence of weeds	3	0.017	16
Splash pedestals	2	0.011	17
Absence of worms	1	0.00	18

Table: 6 List of Indicators and Relative Severity Weight Ratio Ranked by Farmers Source: Field Work (2011)

The key informants unanimously agreed that the use of a relative weight index was simple and useful, particularly if one wants to quantify the effects of multiple soil degradation indicators on a given site or different sites. Weight ratio was used to rank soil degradation indicators in six selected farms (table 6). The result of weighting the indicators indicates that field B has only two indicators; its overall weight value (0.204) is higher than field A with five soil degradation indicators. The overall weights (0.133) from the selected field are illustrated.

S/N	Case	Indicator observed	Severity of soil degradation
1	Field A	Absence of Worms, splash pedestals	0.00 + 0.011 +
		loose, soil, presence of weeds, root	0.017 + 0.023
		exposure (crops)	+0.29 = 0.133
2	Field B	Low Crop yield,	0.105+0.099
		Gullies	= 0.204
3	Field C	Sheet wash, root exposure (tree)	0.052 + 0.046 +
		Root exposure (crops)	0.029 + 0.127
4	Field D	Sedimentation, poor crop performance	0.070 + 0.081 +
		Presence of weeds, absence of worms	0.11 + 0.000
			= 0.162
5	Field E	Colour change of crops,	0.040 + 0.035
		Increase fertilizer and manure requirement	= 0.075
6	Field F	Stoniness, poor crop performance	0.087 + 0.081
			= 0.168

Table: 7 Relative Degradation Weights to Express the Effect of Soil Degradation in Six Selected Farms Source: Field work (2011)

3.8. Farmers Perspectives on Reasons/Causes of Soil Degradation

The farmers have identified 18 reasons/causes of soil degradation, however, the frequent reasons given by the farmers for soil degradation in the villages was deforestation, aggravated by large scale land clearing, cutting and lopping of trees for livestock feed in the dry season and the frequent drought. The villagers admitted that whenever there is a crop failure as a result drought or pest, farmers intensify exploitation of meager vegetation resources to meet the demand of livestock and cut tree for wood to generate additional income to supplement the crop deficit. It is not surprising 84% of the respondents believed that deforestation was responsible for soil degradation in the area, followed by inadequate manure (80%) and lack of land following (53%). But only 9% of the respondents believed that poor cultivation practice could lead to soil degradation. (See figure 2) This is similar to what Moges and Holden (2007) found in Ethiopia and Bielders et al (2001) in Niger, where 66% and 98% respectively of their respondents attributed erosion problem to deforestation, Hence, for any recommended soil conservation measure to be successful it must take into cognizance the local land husbandry and the holistic thinking of the farmers.

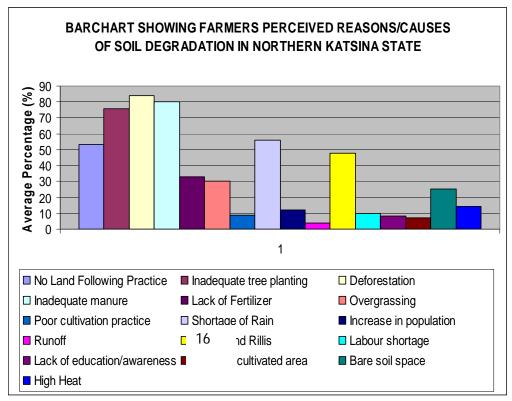


Figure 1: Farmers' Perceived Reasons/causes of Soil Degradation in Northern Katsina State

The result of Kruskal-wallis test shows statistically there is no significance differences in mean rank values of perceived reasons/focuses of soil degradation in the six local government (Kruskal-Wallis or F values = 5.521, df = 5, P = 0.356)

3.9. Farmers' Soil and Water Conservation Strategies

Farmers' perspectives on soil degradation is a clear testimony that local farmers have been observing environmental changes in their immediate habitat, and have devised large repertoire of land management and soil conservation practices to minimize the effect soil degradation. But most of the farmers were commonly using agronomic/biological conservation measures, which they believed are better, easy to make, less costly and do not require much labour compared with mechanical soil conservation measures. The most common agronomic/biological measures which more than 90% of farmers adopted in all the villages are manure application, weed mounds, intercropping, agro forestry, weeding, and thinning (figure 3). The farmers relied heavily on organic input (animal dung, crop residue and household refused) which many believed have long residual effects and does not need to be applied every year like chemical fertilizer. That is the reason majority of the farmers (more than 80%) in all the villages kept livestock at home to generate animal dung and have family refuse dump site.

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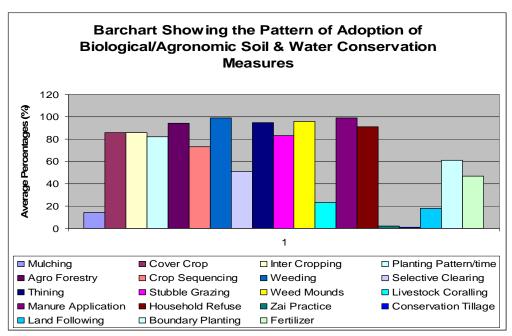


Figure: 3 Pattern of adoption of soil and water conservation

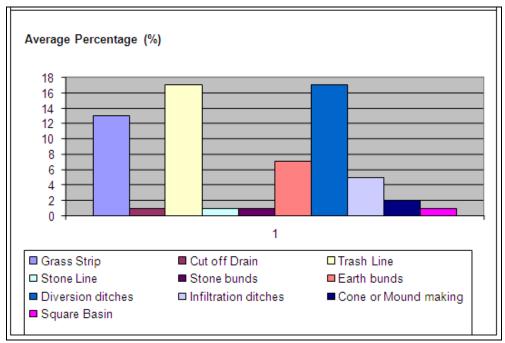


Figure: 4 Mechanical soil and water conservation measures

However, some farmers have pointed out that in certain places and instances, mechanical measures (figure 4) were more appropriate, but due to inadequate materials needed, the cost involved and labour required, they resort to using agronomic/biological measures. Trash line of sack filled with sand is the common mechanical conservation measure used by the farmers.(plate 1)



Plate 1. Trash line of sacks filled with sand to prevent soil erosion in Dankama, Kaita (LGA)

Most of the farmers attributed the increased adaptation of soil and water conservation measures to rapid population growth and decline in the availability of cultivable land. A similar trend of adaptation of biological and agronomic conservation measures due to the above reasons were reported by Muzzacato et al., (2001) in Burkina Faso.

4. Conclusion

The farmers' account on soil degradation indicated that people living in a semi-arid environment are observing slowly operating process. Apart from identifying soil degradation indicators, the farmers were able to differentiate between ongoing(splash pedestals, rill formation, sheet wash, decrease grass cover, crops root exposure, poor water holding capacity, increasing manure and fertilizer requirement and presence of weeds) and later indicators(rock exposure, root exposure in trees, stoniness, gullies, loose soil low crop yield colour change of crop, absence of worm and insect, and poor crop performance) which occur as a result of ignoring ongoing indicators. Although the study has demonstrated farmers' familiarity of soil degradation, however; their understanding of its severity is limited only to what they can see. Despite the fact that the farmers knew a range of techniques of soil conservations, but limited resources and socio-economic situation impair their ability to use appropriate conservation measures. Hence any project designed to ameliorate soil degradation have to be cognizant of farmers' knowledge and perception and their holistic views on the problem.

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