Pepijn Schreinemachers

## The (Ir)relevance of the Crop Yield Gap Concept to Food Security in Developing Countries

With an Application of Multi Agent Modeling to Farming Systems in Uganda



Cuvillier Verlag Göttingen

# The (Ir)relevance of the Crop Yield Gap Concept to Food Security in Developing Countries

With an Application of Multi Agent Modeling to Farming Systems in Uganda

### **Bibliografische Information Der Deutschen Bibliothek**

Die Deutsche Bibliothek verzeichnet diese Publikation in der Deutschen Nationalbibliografie; detaillierte bibliografische Daten sind im Internet über <u>http://dnb.ddb.de</u> abrufbar.

1. Aufl. - Göttingen : Cuvillier, 2006 Zugl.: Bonn, Univ., Diss., 2006 ISBN 3-86537- 910-9

> Inaugural Dissertation zur Erlangung des Grades Doktor der Agrarwirtschaften. Angefertigt mit Genehmigung der Hohen Landwirtschaftlichen Fakultät der Rheinischen Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität zu Bonn

Examiner:	Prof. Dr. Joachim von Braun (IFPRI)
Co-examiner:	Prof. Dr. Ernst Berg (University of Bonn)
Date of oral examination:	10 April 2006

**D 98** (Deutsche Zentralbibliothek für Landbauwissenschaften)

© CUVILLIER VERLAG, Göttingen 2006 Nonnenstieg 8, 37075 Göttingen Telefon: 0551-54724-0 Telefax: 0551-54724-21 www.cuvillier.de

Alle Rechte vorbehalten. Ohne ausdrückliche Genehmigung des Verlages ist es nicht gestattet, das Buch oder Teile daraus auf fotomechanischem Weg (Fotokopie, Mikrokopie) zu vervielfältigen.
1. Auflage, 2006
Gedruckt auf säurefreiem Papier

ISBN 3-86537-910-9

Summary	ix
Acknowledgements	xiii
Abbreviations	xv

1	Introduction 1
2	The (ir)relevance of crop yield gaps in developing countries 10
3	Conceptual frame and analytical approach
4	General methodology 40
5	Generation of landscapes and agent populations
6	Crop yield and soil property dynamics72
7	Production behavior
8	Consumption behavior118
9	Simulation results 138
10	Discussion

References	
Appendix	184
Table of authorities	

	Summ	naryix
	Ackno	wledgementsxiii
	Abbre	viationsxv
1	Intro	luction1
1.1	Intro	luction1
1.2	Proble	em background 1
	1.2.1	The crop yield gap and food security1
	1.2.2	The crop yield potential 2
	1.2.3	Need for integrated approaches 4
1.3	Objec	tives
1.4	Appro	ach7
	1.4.1	Main methodological contributions7
	1.4.2	Main collaborations 8
1.5	Outlin	e of the thesis
2	The (i	r)relevance of crop yield gaps in developing countries 10
2.1	Intro	luction
2.2	The c	rop yield gap 10
	2.2.1	The yield gap concept10
	2.2.2	Background12
	2.2.3	The yield gap debate12
2.3	Misco	nceptions about crop yield gaps14
	2.3.1	'Farmers want a higher yield potential'14
	2.3.2	'A higher yield potential is needed to meet future demands'16
	2.3.3	'A higher yield potential increases food security'18
	2.3.4	'A higher yield potential is needed to keep prices low'
2.4	More	than genes 22
	2.4.1	The importance of creating an enabling environment
	2.4.2	The limited relevance of national average yields24
2.5	Summ	1ary

3	Conce	eptual frame and analytical approach	. 30
3.1	Intro	duction	. 30
3.2	Decor	nposing crop yield gaps	. 31
	3.2.1	Proximate factors	31
	3.2.2	Underlying factors	32
3.3	Socio	economic dimensions of the yield gap	. 34
	3.3.1	Private objectives	34
	3.3.2	Social objectives	36
3.4	Applic	cation to Uganda	. 37
	3.4.1	Southeast Uganda	37
	3.4.2	Maize in Uganda	38
3.5	Sumn	nary	. 39
4	Genei	al methodology	. 40
4.1	Intro	duction	. 40
4.2	Metho	odological approach	. 40
	4.2.1	Heterogeneity	40
	4.2.2	Mathematical programming-based multi-agent systems (MP-MAS).	41
4.3	Intro	duction of system components	. 42
	4.3.1	Farm agents	42
	4.3.2	Landscape	43
	4.3.3	Biophysics	43
4.4	Heter	ogeneity, interaction, and dynamics	. 43
	4.4.1	Heterogeneity	44
	4.4.2	Interaction	44
	4.4.3	Dynamics	45
4.5	Mixed	integer linear programming (MILP)	. 46
	4.5.1	Non-separable farm decision-making	46
	4.5.2	Concise theoretical model	47
4.6	A thre	ee-stage non-separable decision process	. 48
	4.6.1	Investments	49
	4.6.2	Production	50
	4.6.3	Consumption	50
4.7	Softw	are implementation	. 51
4.8	Sumn	nary	. 51

5	Generation of landscapes and agent populations		
5.1	Intro	duction	53
5.2	The la	andscape	53
	5.2.1	Data Sources	54
	5.2.2	The villages of Magada and Buvemba	54
	5.2.3	Landscape representation	56
	5.2.4	Location of agents and farm plots (lavers 1-3)	57
	5.2.5	The socioeconomic landscape (lavers 4-5)	
	5.2.6	Soil chemical properties (layers 6-10)	60
	5.2.7	Soil physical properties (lavers 11-12)	61
5.3	The a	gents	62
	5.3.1	Data Sources	62
	5.3.2	Generating an agent population	62
	5.3.3	Random data generation	63
	5.3.4	Consistency checks	65
5.4	Valida	ation of results	66
014	541	Population level	67
	542	Cluster level	68
	543	Agent level	69
<b>6</b> 6	Sump		71
6	Crop	yield and soil property dynamics	72
6.1	Intro	duction	72
6.2	Backg	Jround	72
	6.2.1	Problem background	72
	6.2.2	Theoretical background	73
	6.2.3	The Tropical Soil Productivity Calculator (TSPC)	74
6.3	Four <b>j</b>	phases in soil property dynamics	75
	6.3.1	Phase 1: yield determinants	75
	6.3.2	Phase 2: crop yield	79
	6.3.3	Phase 3: soil property updating	80
	6.3.4	Phase 4: soil property balances	83
6.4	Mode	l calibration	84
	6.4.1	Crops included	84
	6.4.2	Crop physical characteristics	84
	6.4.3	Crop chemical characteristics	86
	6.4.4	Crop yield response functions	86
6.5	Valida	ation of results	88
6.6	Sumn	nary	89

7	Produ	uction behavior	
7.1	Intro	duction	90
7.2	Crop	yield response to labor use	
	- 7.2.1	Frontier production function	90
	7.2.2	Production data used	
	7.2.3	Model estimates	92
	7.2.4	Labor response factor	93
7.3	The d	liffusion of innovations	
	7.3.1	Theoretical background	94
	7.3.2	Empirical application	95
7.4	Agent	t yield expectations	
	7.4.1	Theoretical background	96
	7.4.2	Empirical application	97
7.5	Produ	uction of livestock, coffee, vegetables and fruits	
	7.5.1	Livestock production	
	7.5.2	Coffee production	
	7.5.3	Fruit and vegetable production	
7.6	Furth	er constraints and incentives to production	103
	7.6.1	Labor availability	
	7.6.2	Labor time allocation	
	7.6.3	Labor allocation by gender	
	7.6.4	Rotational constraints	
	7.6.5	Intercropping	
	7.6.6	Crop pests and diseases	
	7.6.7	Risk	112
	7.6.8	Input prices	112
7.7	Valida	ation of results	113
7.8	Sumn	nary	117

8	Consı	Imption behavior 118
8.1	Intro	duction
8.2	A thre	ee-step budgeting process 118
	8.2.1	Theoretical background
	8.2.2	Theoretical model
	8.2.3	Savings and expenditures (Step 1)121
	8.2.4	Food and non-food expenditures (Step 2)121
	8.2.5	Almost Ideal Demand System (Step 3)122
	8.2.6	Quantifying poverty from food energy needs and intake levels 124
	8.2.7	Coping strategies to food insecurity125
	8.2.8	Fertility and mortality126
8.3	Data a	and estimation 127
	8.3.1	Budget data used127
	8.3.2	Savings and expenditures (Step 1)127
	8.3.3	Food and non-food expenditures (Step 2)128
	8.3.4	Almost Ideal Demand System (Step 3)128
	8.3.5	Market prices
	8.3.6	Food energy needs and intake levels130
	8.3.7	Opportunity cost of farm labor and migration
	8.3.8	Population growth and HIV/Aids133
8.4	Valida	ation of results 134
8.5	Sumn	nary
9	Simul	ation results 138
9.1	Intro	duction
9.2	The b	aseline scenario138
	9.2.1	Defining the baseline scenario138
	9.2.2	Sensitivity of the baseline to initial conditions
	9.2.3	Baseline dynamics: soil fertility decline and population growth 140
9.3	The m	naize yield gap 143
	9.3.1	Decomposition in proximate factors
	9.3.2	The maize yield gap and farm performance144
	9.3.3	The maize yield gap vs. economic well-being and food security 146
	9.3.4	Maize yield gap dynamics148
	9.3.5	Decomposition in underlying factors152
9.4	The ir	npact of crop breeding154
9.5	The e	ffect of HIV/Aids
9.6	Sumn	nary

10	Discus	sion	158
10.1	Introd	uction	158
10.2	Limitations of the study		158
	10.2.1	Low data quality	
	10.2.2	Migration	
	10.2.3	Sources of heterogeneity	
	10.2.4	Unknown crop yield response functions	159
	10.2.5	Absence of local factor and output markets	159
10.3	An ex-	post comparison of approaches	159
10.4	Recom	mendations for research	162

References	164
Appendix	184
Table of authorities	204

# Summary

### Introduction

The crop yield gap is defined as the difference between the yield potential and the average yield of a crop, in which the yield potential is the maximum yield achieved under optimal conditions with all stresses from nutrients, pests, and water controlled. Pointing to an observed diminishing growth in global rice and wheat yields, many studies have argued that the exploitable gap between potential and average yields is too narrow and shrinking and that this endangers food security. Such observations often lead to the claim that increasing the yield potential is the best strategy we have to combat food insecurity and that the growth in yield potential should at least keep pace with the growth in population to avert hunger.

### Objective

It is the objective of this thesis to take a critical look at the relationship between the crop yield gap and food security in developing countries. The thesis first scrutinizes the crop yield gap concept at global and national levels and then zooms in at the farm household level using an innovative methodology based on multi-agent systems that integrates the biophysical and socioeconomic factors driving the width of the yield gap. This integrated model is then used to decompose the yield gap in proximate and underlying factors, to assess its relationship with food security, and to explore how improved varieties with a higher yield potential could affect the well-being of farm households.

#### Methodology

Multi-agents systems (MAS) were used as a framework to integrate three model components: an economic model simulating farm household decision-making; a biophysical model simulating crop yields and soil property dynamics; and spatial layers of soil properties representing the physical landscape.

The methodology was applied to two villages in southeast Uganda. Maize yields in Uganda are notoriously low while maize plays a central role in the strategies of the government and several NGOs to increase food security. High population density, a diversified farming system, and a strong reliance on manual labor characterize the study area, while the use of external inputs such as improved seeds and mineral fertilizer is infrequent.

Each farm household was represented by an individual agent in the model so that there were as many agents as there were farm households in reality. Agents were parameterized by applying Monte Carlo techniques on a random sample of farm households. A mathematical programming (MP) model, with non-separable production and consumption decisions, was used to simulate agent decision-making. The MP model included more than 2,000 activities and over 500 constraints and agents optimized a three-dimensional utility function of cash income, food, and future income from investments. MP models were solved in a recursive fashion over a period of 15 years.

The biophysical part of the model was based on Mitscherlich-type of crop yield equations with explanatory variables being available nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium), soil organic carbon, acidity, labor use, and a factor capturing the yield effect of intercropping. Soil fertility was specified as a function of initial soil conditions as altered by both management (crop choice, input use, livestock numbers, harvest removal) and natural processes (decomposition, deposition, leaching, erosion).

Model integration was implemented at a pixel level, 0.5 ha in size, which captured much of the heterogeneity in environmental conditions. Survey data were used to calibrate and validate the decision model while soil samples and secondary data from literature were used to parameterize the landscape and biophysical model.

In four ways did the thesis advance existing methodologies: First, the thesis showed how MAS can be parameterized from survey data, which is unique as most MAS are based on experimental or hypothetical data. Second, the thesis developed a nonseparable three-stage decision model of investment, production, and consumption that realistically captured the economic trade-offs in the allocation of scarce resources over time. Third, a three-step budgeting system, including an Almost Ideal Demand System, was included in an MP model to simulate poverty dynamics in terms of food energy consumption. Fourth, coping strategies to food insecurity were included that gave agents a limited, yet realistic, capacity to adapt to food crises.

### Main results

A comparison of maximum yields of CIMMYT international wheat and maize trials with average national yields showed that yield gaps for most developing countries are very wide. This can be taken as prima facie evidence that factors other than the genetic potential are constraining average yields. Four major misconceptions were identified from a review of literature on the relationship between the yield potential and food security; these misconceptions were that a higher yield potential is wanted by farmers, that it is needed to meet future demands, that it increases food security, and finally, that it is needed to keep food prices low. Each of these claims was disarmed by case studies from literature. In addition, data for 19 Indian states on the width of the rice yield gap and three outcome indicators of food insecurity showed significant and positive correlations - indicating that states with a wider yield gap (read: lower yields and/or a higher potential) tend to be more food insecure. The thesis argues that this does not point to deficiencies in technology but more likely to non-technological factors that make the people in some states poorer than in others. To understand better what these factors are, the analysis turned to the farm household level using a case study of two villages in southeast Uganda.

Based on computational experiments with the multi-agent system, the maize yield gap was decomposed in proximate factors such as crop variety choice and low fertilizer use. Two additional factors that reduce yields, but are not usually considered in agronomic studies, were included: low labor use and intercropping. The results revealed the importance of the last two factors in explaining low maize yields in Uganda. The size and composition of the yield gap do, however, not indicate any inefficiencies or food insecurity.

Turning to the issue of performance, land and labor productivity were plotted against the width of the yield gap, which – not so surprisingly – showed that agents with lower maize yields have wider yield gaps. Yet a strong correlation also appeared between wide yield gaps and food security, indicating that smaller farms attain greater yields but are also more likely to be food insecure due to relatively low returns to labor. In land-constrained systems, prominence is often given to yield enhancing technologies, yet the simulation results showed that even under land scarcity, raising labor productivity, and not yields, is the most important for poverty alleviation. Scenario analyses showed that poverty levels could be reduced drastically be relatively straightforward interventions related to a better access to short-term credit and existing technologies. That maize occupies about 20 percent of arable land in Uganda is often taken as a measure for its importance to food security. This claim was assessed by comparing the present situation with two rather synthetic scenarios: one without maize and one with only maize. Results showed that poverty levels would double in the 'maize only scenario' while poverty levels would be only 4 percent lower in the 'no maize scenario'. This indicates that the importance of a crop cannot be assessed from the area it occupies, but also, that the promotion of maize – as is currently done by several NGOs – might be counterproductive beyond a certain point as it reduces the diversification of the farming system, which is important for food security.

The effect of two improved maize varieties was assessed by comparing the present situation with two hypothetical scenarios in which only one of these varieties was available. In the first scenario, a hybrid maize variety gradually replaced a traditional variety. The hybrid maize variety had a high yield potential, required more labor, was unsuitable for intercropping, and required agents to purchase new seeds annually. A second scenario simulated the diffusion of an open pollinated improved variety, which had a lower yield potential than the hybrid, but which was suitable for intercropping, had lower labor needs, and seeds could be re-used for five years. The results showed that maize yields and total maize output would be substantially greater if only hybrid maize was introduced as this gave a more complete diffusion of the hybrid. Yet in spite of this, it appeared that simulated poverty levels were about equal for all three scenarios. This suggests that albeit it's higher yield potential, the hybrid maize variety is not better than the improved open pollinated maize, which could explain the in reality observed low adoption rate of hybrids in Uganda. Varieties with a higher yield potential might hence not have the desired effect if they require more labor and more cash. Researchers would need to consider labor needs, and the effect on labor productivity, more explicitly when breeding for improved varieties.

# Acknowledgements

This study would have been a lot more difficult, if not impossible, without the tremendous support of many colleagues and friends. Some of whom I would like to mention here. I acknowledge the support of my supervisor Prof. Joachim von Braun for awakening my interest in crop yield gaps and challenging me in my thinking. I also thank Prof. Ernst Berg for taking up the second supervision. I am most thankful to Thomas Berger for teaching me the ins and outs of the multi-agent system, and everything what happens with the data in between. I furthermore thank Jens Aune, Soojin Park, and Hosangh Rhew for their collaboration on the ecology and landscape side and acknowledge that this study would be a lot less interesting without their inputs. I thank Johannes Woelcke for his initial data collection in Uganda and modeling work, which gave me a fundament to build on.

My stay in Uganda was highly pleasant, which must be attributed to Ephraim Nkonya, Aggrey Bagiire, Albert and Diana Mudhugumbya, Musinguzi, Richard Oyare, and Sarah Sanyu. I also thank Kaizzi Cramer Kayuki, Almut Brunner, Justus Imanywoha, and James Sessanga for their invaluable support.

Good friends made my time at ZEF a pleasant one. Among these, I thank Denis Aviles, Quang Bao Le, Cristina Carambas, Arisbe Mendoza, Kavita Rai, Daniela Lohlein (also for the great editing), Puja Sawney, and Charlotte van der Schaaf. I also realize that without Günther Manske, Hanna Peters, and Rosemarie Zabel at ZEF and Gisela Holstein in Hohenheim, some things would never have been accomplished or at least not as smooth. Finally, I thank my dear family: mom and dad, Maurice and Dominique, and of course ... Paan for their company and support in the past, present, and future.

Stuttgart, May 2006

# Abbreviations

AIDS	Almost Ideal Demand System
CIMMYT	International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
HIV/Aids	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IRRI	International Rice Research Institute
MAS	Multi-agent systems
MILP	Mixed integer linear programming
МР	Mathematical programming
MP-MAS	Mathemetical programming based multi-agent systems
SD	Standard deviation of the mean
TSPC	Tropical Soil Productivity Calculator
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UNHS	Uganda National Household Survey (conducted in 1999-2000)
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
Ush	Ugandan shilling (1,000 Ush $\approx$ 0.63 Euro on 01.01.2001)
ZEF	Center for Development Research in Bonn

# The (Ir)relevance of the Crop Yield Gap Concept to Food Security in Developing Countries

With an Application of Multi Agent Modeling to Farming Systems in Uganda

# 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

This thesis discusses the relevance of the concept of crop yield gaps with respect to food security in developing countries. It applies a novel methodology based on multi-agent systems (MAS) to decompose and simulate crop yield gaps while simultaneously measuring the economic well-being and food security of farm households in a developing country context. This first chapter introduces the crop yield concept and methods used to analyze it. The chapter is organized in six sections. Section 1.2 describes the problem background and introduces the concept of crop yield gaps; Section 1.3 defines the objectives of the study, while Section 1.4 introduces the methodological approach and Section 1.5 outlines how the remainder of the thesis is organized.

### 1.2 Problem background

### 1.2.1 The crop yield gap and food security

A recent decline in the global growth rate of cereal production, production per capita, and cereal yield (see **Figure 1.1**) has intensified concerns about food sufficiency and food security. Cereal yields, many scientists have argued, need to be boosted to supply the growing human population with sufficient amounts of food (*e.g.*, Lampe 1995; Khush and Peng 1996; Pingali and Heisey 1999; Timsina and Connor 2001). An increase in yields is necessary because the possibilities to further expand the agricultural land area are being exhausted at a global level, and current land is rapidly being degraded and lost to expanding urban areas.

It is often written that growth in cereal yields is constrained by insufficient genetic gains in the yield potential and a subsequent narrowness of the yield gap (Peng *et al.* 1999; Reynolds *et al.* 1999; Timsina and Connor 2001). Technologies with a higher yield potential would therefore be required, especially in irrigated areas, to meet the increasing demand for food (*e.g.*, Reynolds *et al.* 1999).

The concern about yield gaps in relation to food security can be judged from the fact that much of the literature on the issue of crop yield potentials starts by summing up global population statistics (*e.g.*, Lampe 1995; Kush *et al.* 1996: 38; Reynolds *et al.* 1996: 1; Duvick 1999; Peng *et al.* 1999: 1552; Pingali and Rajaram 1999: 1; Rejesus *et al.* 1999: 1; Reynolds *et al.* 1999: 1611; Pingali and Pandey 2001: 1; Fischer *et al.* 2002: 1; Tiongco *et al.* 2002: 897). Several authors have called for more sustained efforts in 'beaking the yield barrier' (Cassman 1994; Reynolds *et al.* 1996). Raising the yield potential, in this respect, is implicitly assumed to increase actual cereal supply (*e.g.*, Peng *et al.* 1999; Reynolds *et al.* 1999). A reduction of the difference between yield potential and actual yield, often referred to as the narrowing of the yield gap, is interpreted as a worrying sign for long-term food security as farmers have less technological potential to exploit.



Figure 1.1: Global cereal yield trends and per capita availability, 1961-2005

Source: FAO 2006

### 1.2.2 The crop yield potential

The yield gap is commonly defined as yield potential minus average yields. This yield potential refers to the genetic maximum yield of a crop. Evans (1996: 292) defines this yield potential as "the yield of a cultivar when grown in environments to which it is adapted, with nutrients and water non-limiting and with pests, diseases, weeds, lodging and other stresses effectively controlled".

**Figure 1.2** shows yield gaps for maize grown in Illinois (left pane) and Mexico (right pane). The yield potential is quantified as the average of the three highest yielding experiments in a particular year. This figure shows that the average maize yield in