Land cover dynamics following a deforestation ban in northern Costa Rica

This content has been downloaded from IOPscience. Please scroll down to see the full text.

2013 Environ. Res. Lett. 8 034017

View the table of contents for this issue, or go to the journal homepage for more

Download details:

IP Address: 203.29.104.10
This content was downloaded on 21/02/2017 at 06:06

Please note that terms and conditions apply.

You may also be interested in:

Multiple pathways of commodity crop expansion in tropical forest landscapes
Patrick Meyfroidt, Kimberly M Carlson, Matthew E Fagan et al.

International trade, and land use intensification and spatial reorganization explain Costa Rica’s forest transition
I Jadin, P Meyfroidt and E F Lambin

Designing multifunctional landscapes for forest conservation
Truly Santika, Erik Meijaard and Kerrie A Wilson

The future of forests and orangutans (Pongo abelii) in Sumatra: predicting impacts of oilpalm plantations, road construction, and mechanisms for reducing carbon emissions from deforestation
David L A Gaveau, Serge Wich, Justin Epting et al.

Mapping and monitoring deforestation and forest degradation in Sumatra (Indonesia) using Landsat time series data sets from 1990 to 2010
Belinda Arunarwati Margono, Svetlana Turubanova, Ilona Zhuravleva et al.

High-yield oil palm expansion spares land at the expense of forests in the Peruvian Amazon
Víctor H Gutiérrez-Vélez, Ruth DeFries, Miguel Pinedo-Vásquez et al.

Trading forests: land-use change and carbon emissions embodied in production and exports of forest-risk commodities
Sabine Henders, U Martin Persson and Thomas Kastner

Measurement and monitoring needs, capabilities and potential for addressing reduced emissions from deforestation and forest degradation under REDD+
Scott J Goetz, Matthew Hansen, Richard A Houghton et al.
Land cover dynamics following a deforestation ban in northern Costa Rica

M E Fagan1, R S DeFries1, S E Sesnie2, J P Arroyo3, W Walker4, C Soto3, R L Chazdon5 and A Sanchun6

1 Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Environmental Biology, Columbia University, USA
2 US Fish and Wildlife Service, Southwest Region, Albuquerque, NM, USA
3 Department of Geography, McGill University, Canada
4 Woods Hole Research Center, Falmouth, MA, USA
5 Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Connecticut, USA
6 EARTH University, Guacimo, Costa Rica

E-mail: mef2153@columbia.edu

Received 13 March 2013
Accepted for publication 18 July 2013
Published 5 August 2013
Online at stacks.iop.org/ERL/8/034017

Abstract
Forest protection policies potentially reduce deforestation and re-direct agricultural expansion to already-cleared areas. Using satellite imagery, we assessed whether deforestation for conversion to pasture and cropland decreased in the lowlands of northern Costa Rica following the 1996 ban on forest clearing, despite a tripling of area under pineapple cultivation in the last decade. We observed that following the ban, mature forest loss decreased from 2.2% to 1.2% per year, and the proportion of pineapple and other export-oriented cropland derived from mature forest declined from 16.4% to 1.9%. The post-ban expansion of pineapples and other crops largely replaced pasture, exotic and native tree plantations, and secondary forests. Overall, there was a small net gain in forest cover due to a shifting mosaic of regrowth and clearing in pastures, but cropland expansion decreased reforestation rates. We conclude that forest protection efforts in northern Costa Rica have likely slowed mature forest loss and succeeded in re-directing expansion of cropland to areas outside mature forest. Our results suggest that deforestation bans may protect mature forests better than older forest regrowth and may restrict clearing for large-scale crops more effectively than clearing for pasture.

Keywords: Costa Rica, deforestation, agricultural intensification, land sparing, protected areas, payments for environmental services (PES), tree plantations, remote sensing

Online supplementary data available from stacks.iop.org/ERL/8/034017/mmedia

1. Introduction

Lowland tropical rainforests are under threat from agricultural expansion, particularly in areas with fertile soils [1–4]. Increases in global agricultural production are needed to meet the projected 70–100% growth in food demand by 2050 [5, 6]. Higher yields are likely to account for most of the production increase, but tropical forests are threatened with future conversion to staple and luxury crops [7]. Although high-yield, high-input (‘intensive’) agricultural production has been proposed to relieve agricultural pressure on natural habitats through ‘land-sparing’ [5, 8, 9], export-oriented, intensive agriculture remains a leading driver of habitat destruction in many tropical regions [2, 10–12]. By increasing the profitability of agriculture, intensive cropping systems have the potential to increase expansion into forests [13, 14], or become ‘land-hungry.’ To promote agricultural intensification while protecting tropical forests, effective and enforce-
able policy mechanisms are needed to combat deforestation from cropland expansion [15, 16].

Unfortunately, options to protect forests on private land are limited in regions with high potential return from agriculture [14]. Protected areas have been successful in limiting agricultural expansion into forest [17–19], but establishing parks in productive agricultural regions increases their negative economic impact [14, 20, 21]. Payments for environmental services (PES) can give landowners incentives to retain forest cover, but they directly compete with high returns from agriculture [14, 22] and depend on volunteer subscription [23]. Partial land-use restrictions (e.g., slope protections, riparian buffers, logging bans) have had mixed success in combating deforestation for agriculture, in part because of the difficulties in enforcing selective bans on clearing activities across large areas [16, 24–30]. All forest protection efforts may displace deforestation to unprotected areas [16, 31–34].

Can policies that mandate forest protection outside parks maintain forest cover without negatively affecting production in regions under agricultural pressure? In the fertile humid lowlands of northern Costa Rica, we examined changes in deforestation and regrowth in the context of rising agricultural pressure and the implementation of a country-wide deforestation ban. Regional moratoriums on forest clearing, which have been tried in a few countries [28, 35–38], may be hard to maintain long-term in the face of economic trade-offs [7, 16, 21, 39]. The Brazilian soy moratorium and Chinese logging ban contributed to local declines in forest loss ([17, 32], although see [33]), and the recent Indonesian forest concession ban is restricted to primary and peat forest [38]. Costa Rica’s ban may be the most restrictive in that it covers the entire country, it provides few exceptions for acceptable deforestation, and it allows only regulated logging under its own guidelines for sustainable forestry [39].

Costa Rica is a global leader in both conservation and intensive tropical agriculture; a fifth of the country has some type of protected status [7], and it has some of the highest yields per hectare of bananas and pineapples in the world [40]. In the last two decades, Costa Rica has extended its conservation efforts to private lands, banning deforestation country-wide in 1996 [37, 39] and implementing a payments for environmental services (PES) program to protect forests and promote reforestation within nationally designated biological corridors [23, 37, 41, 42]. The 1996 Forest Law was the outcome of several decades of increasingly conservation-oriented forest policies, including establishing the national park system (1969) and subsidies for tree plantations (1979) [43]. If Costa Rica truly represents a ‘model’ for conservation in developing countries, the success of its policies on private lands should indicate their potential applicability elsewhere [23, 44]. The 1996 Forest Law lowered deforestation rates shortly after its passing [37, 45], but its long-term effectiveness has not been evaluated, especially in light of the recent boom in pineapple production (figure 1). In the last decade, production of pineapples in Costa Rica has soared due to cheap labor, improved varieties, and extensive pesticide and fertilizer use [46, 47]; this reflects an 88% increase in global pineapple area from 1986 to 2010 ([17]; figure 1).

In this letter, we quantify the changes in forest cover and agricultural expansion in northeastern Costa Rica to examine the effectiveness of the 1996 Forest Law in reducing...
deforestation. The Law banned clearing of forests, legally defined as at least 70% cover over 2 ha by 60 diverse tree species >15 cm DBH [48]; this definition omits most natural regeneration less than 8–12 yr in age [49]. We expected that if forest protection policies have been effective, deforestation would have declined and pressure on available land would have risen, lowering the rate of forest regrowth and directing agricultural expansion onto land not defined as forest. A decline in deforestation accompanied by increasing agricultural production would indicate that these two objectives are potentially achievable simultaneously through forest protection policies.

2. Methods

We used a time series of five Landsat images and field validation data to quantify agricultural expansion, deforestation, and regrowth from 1986 to 2011 in the lowlands of northeastern Costa Rica. The northeastern lowlands are an agricultural frontier whose settlement expanded rapidly in the late 1960s [50]. Government policies granting land title for forest clearing and facilitating cattle production promoted deforestation and colonization [43] while agrarian reform programs were largely limited to redistribution of already-cleared estates [50]. In the 1980s a drop in beef prices and end of beef subsidies led to pasture abandonment in other regions of Costa Rica [51], but the northeast experienced a consolidation of producers without a decline in deforestation for pasture [52]. Recent decades have seen rapid local population increase, improved road connections to the capital, rising export-oriented crop production, and increased PES payments through the Forest Law [37, 52].

The northeastern lowlands retain some of the largest patches of forest outside protected areas in Costa Rica [43]. Much of this region is now part of the San Juan-La Selva Biological Corridor (SJLSBC), a highly forested area of private land (2466 km²) that connects two large, forested parks (figures 2(A) and (B)). We mapped the SJLSBC and adjacent areas (20 km buffer) within Costa Rica (hereafter, the ‘study region’), focusing on the wide coastal plain drained by the San Juan River (<500 m elevation) along the Nicaraguan border. This large region (6617 km²) has low variability in rainfall (3.2 ± 0.8 m yr⁻¹) and elevation (108 ± 98 m), with central ranges of low hills cut by broad river valleys giving way to coastal plains to the east. In this focus area, we mapped changes over time in two types of legally protected mature forest (forest >30 years in age: includes mature lowland forest and swamp forest), two types of regrowth (exotic tree plantations, and native reforestation (natural regeneration and native tree plantations)), four crop types (banana, pineapple, sugarcane, heart-of-palm), pasture, urban areas, and bare soil (table S2 and a detailed description of methods are available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/8/034017/mmedia). Native reforestation includes both natural regeneration and native tree plantations because of our inability to separate them due to their spectral similarity. Overall accuracy for the resulting land cover maps for each year ranged between 90% and 96% (table S4), with forest change over time classified with 93% accuracy (table S5). Using these land cover maps, we first assessed whether deforestation and regrowth rates changed over time in a manner consistent with an effective deforestation ban, and second whether the expansion of croplands and pastures into forest changed following the ban.

3. Results

From 1986 to 2011, the region experienced persistent losses of mature forest cover that were spatially concentrated in remote portions of the study area (figure 3, figure S2). The loss of mature forest slowed after the 1996 deforestation ban,
but remained at $\sim 1\%$ rate of annual loss (figures 3 and 4). Most mature forest cleared was converted to pasture, both before and after the 1996 ban (figure S3). However, after 1996, clearing of mature forest for cropland declined as the amount of cropland increased (figures 5 and 6 and figure S7).

Cropland has expanded rapidly in the region, led by an increase in pineapple cultivation in the last decade (figures 2(B), 4 and 6). Cropland expansion after 1996 has primarily replaced pasture and exotic tree plantations, with some cropland clearing expanding into native reforestation (figure 6). Expansion of all three dominant types of agriculture (banana, pineapple, and pasture) sharply shifted away from mature forest after 1996, with banana having the largest proportional decline in forest expansion (figure 5). Pineapple did not expand into forest extensively at any time, but the proportion of pineapple expansion derived from mature forest

Figure 3. (A) Rate of mature forest loss at each time interval, estimated from single-date image classification. The mean rates of forest loss declined from $2.20\%$ yr$^{-1}$ pre-ban (1986–1996) to $-1.38\%$ yr$^{-1}$ post-ban (1996–2011). Means and non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals for the pre-ban and post-ban periods are shown, in addition to the rate of forest loss over shorter time periods. (B) Total forest (mature forest, native reforestation, and exotic tree plantations) loss rate, with non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals. The rate of total forest loss was derived from three image dates and change detection analysis independent from mature forest area estimates (see supplementary materials available at stacks.iop.org/ERL/8/034017/mmedia).

Figure 4. Per cent of total land area in each land cover category over time within the study area. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Total forest cover is the sum of mature forest, native reforestation (natural regeneration and native tree plantations), and exotic tree plantations.
Figure 5. The expansion of banana, pineapple, and pasture into other land covers over time; note the different axis scales. From 1986 to 1996, pasture expanded into mature forest proportionally more often than it was represented in the landscape (see figure 4). After 1996, all land covers decreased their proportional expansion into mature forest and increased their proportional expansion into native reforestation and other habitats.

Figure 6. Conversions of other land uses to cropland. The percentage of total land converted to cropland from mature forest is labeled in dark green.

dropped by 50% post-ban (figure 5). The expansion of pasture into mature forest was less frequent after 1996, but the proportion of pasture expansion derived from mature forest clearing remained high relative to clearing for pineapple and banana (figure 5, figure S7).

Because of extensive native reforestation (∼1428 ha yr⁻¹ of natural regeneration and native tree plantations), total forest cover (including all mature and regrowth forest types) has remained relatively constant (figure 4). The loss of secondary forests from 1996 to 2001 observed by Morse et al [37] for this study region appears to have been compensated recently by a rise in reforestation from 2005 to 2011. Native reforestation, after an initial pulse from 1986 to 1996, has fluctuated around a relatively constant overall area (figure 4), with widespread clearing and regrowth occurring across the landscape (5–10% turnover in regrowth per year; figure S4). Young native reforestation, lacking legal protection, had high rates of clearing indicative of clearing of natural regeneration rather
than young tree plantations (figure S5). Older reforestation
>15 years in age had intermediate rates of clearing in
comparison to mature forest (figure S5). Older reforestation
may include native tree plantations, but visual inspection of
aerial imagery revealed that tree plantations were rare in 1986
when the older native reforestation originated (>20 years).

Conversion of forest regrowth to cropland was largely
one-way: we observed that cropland was one third as likely as
pasture to revert to native reforestation over our time period.
Just 4% of cropland areas were abandoned or converted to
reforestation compared to 11.6% of pastures over our time
period.

4. Discussion

These results suggest that the deforestation ban did not
completely halt mature forest loss after 1996, but was
associated with a ∼50% decline in the rate of mature forest
conversion (figure 3). Although we cannot say with certainty
that the land cover changes following the ban were caused by
it, the ban and accompanying forest protection PES
coincide with the rapid decline in mature forest loss after
1996. This reduction in deforestation occurred while regional
population grew (2–8% yr⁻¹; [52, 53]) and export-oriented
agricultural pressure increased. Whether the reduction would
have occurred without the ban is not possible to know.
However, Morse et al [37] found that 40% of interviewed
farmers in 2004 reported that they would have cleared
forest in the absence of forest protection policies, suggesting
that the policies were effective in reducing deforestation
rates. Gross deforestation rates elsewhere in Latin America
were high from 2001 to 2010 (>5% a year, [54]). Net
deforestation (reforestation–deforestation) in Latin America
was steady during the 1990–2010 period, declining slightly
in Central America (∼1.49 for 1990–2000 to −1.13% for
2000–2010) and staying steady in South America (−0.45% to
−0.41%) [55].

The deforestation ban may have promoted land-sparing
by preventing forest clearing for export-oriented cropland;
regional agricultural production rose while forest loss
declined. From 1996 to 2011, the per cent of land area in
pasture stayed relatively steady, while cropland tripled from
4.5% to 13.3% of total land area in the study region (figure 4).
Despite the expansion in cropland, the proportion of cropland
derived from mature forest conversion was 16.4% pre-ban
and <3.1% post-ban (figure 6). The establishment of forest
protection policies was associated with a switch by intensive
agriculture between ‘land-hungry’ (forest-demanding) and
‘land-sparing’ (forest-avoiding) expansion.

It is possible that clearing patterns were affected by a
strong preference for already-cleared areas by export-oriented
cultivators and/or by the change from banana to pineapple
dominance. The rapid expansion of pineapple post-ban may
be attributable to a preference for pineapple to expand onto
low-fertility and non-forest lands (figure 5, figure S6), but
both pineapple and banana cultivators appeared to respond
to the ban by decreasing their likelihood of expansion
into mature forests (figure 5). The substantial clearing of
mature forest for banana prior to the ban, despite available
pasture (figures 5 and 6, figure S6), implies that export
cultivators readily clear mature forest when soils are suitable
or when required for establishing large-scale plantations. This
phenomenon has been observed in numerous other tropical
regions [10–12, 15, 56]. In this study region, extensive mature
forest persists on flat, well-drained soils (figure S6); the
extent of forest suitable for cropland is comparable to the
area currently under banana and pineapple cultivation. Some
clearing of mature forest for pineapple and banana occurred
after 1996 and clearing of native reforestation for crops
increased post-ban (figures 5 and 6), indicating that cropland
expansion in forest habitats was common but re-directed by
the ban away from mature forest.

Continued conversion of mature forest to pasture might
result from cropland expansion displacing pasture to other
areas. If we assume complete displacement of pasture to
elsewhere in the study area, we estimate that at most
10–50% of deforestation to pasture resulted from cropland
expansion in the years 1986–2005. After 2005, 100%
displacement is possible because cropland expansion on
pasture exceeded deforestation, which was at a historical
low (figure 3). We cannot rule out the possibility that
displacement of deforestation occurred inside and outside our
region [31, 34]. Costa Rica has increasingly displaced wood
consumption internationally since the late 1980s [34]; roughly
three-quarters of post-ban wood imports came from temperate
countries [34, 40].

Regrowth turnover and declining pasture area indicate
that pressure on available land rose after 1996, but we did
not observe the expected post-ban decline in the area of forest
regrowth. This may result from the selective abandonment of
pastures that are less suitable for crops and/or the success
of reforestation PES. Natural regeneration of pasture in this
landscape has historically been quite dynamic [57]. Young
falls have been cleared quickly since 1996, a pattern
attributed to farmers’ reluctance to allow land to approach
the successional stage which meets the legal definition of
forest [37, 58]. In this sense the 1996 Forest Law created
a perverse incentive to clear regrowth [58]. In our study,
valuable cropland was one third as likely as pasture to be
allowed to revert to forest, which is consistent with forest
transition theory on fertile soils [59]. But despite the inclusion
of older secondary forests in the 1996 law, even older native
reforestation had higher rates of clearing than mature forest
(figure S5) [37, 39]. The short rotation and decline in pasture
falls, a ‘land-sharing’ production system, may have been
exacerbated by the increased pressure on land engendered by
policies favoring a ‘land-sparing’ expansion.

The high turnover rate of native reforestation and steady
loss of legally protected forest after 1996 imply a continuing
decline in biodiversity mature forest and a modest gain in
net forest cover through forest regrowth, rather than rapid
deforestation. Similarly, in China’s Yunnan region, net forest
cover stabilized and mature forest declined despite partial
land-use restrictions [29]. Our results suggest that forest
protection efforts in northern Costa Rica slowed mature
forest loss and succeeded in re-directing expansion of
export-oriented cropland to areas outside mature forest. Our study parallels recent observations in Brazil, where a soy deforestation moratorium in Mato Grosso was associated with increased soy production and a drop in deforestation [35]. This indicates that it is possible for mandated forest protection outside parks to maintain forest cover without negatively affecting agricultural production. While we could not determine whether the deforestation ban or PES was primarily responsible in northern Costa Rica, their combined potential effect on deforestation over time was large (~50%). In comparison, a recent study estimated that Costa Rican protected areas reduced deforestation by only 9% between 1960 and 1997 [18].

It should be noted, however, that intensive agriculture expanded into a number of natural habitats other than legally protected forests, including native reforestation (figure 6) and wetlands [71]. Future policies should be careful to delineate all habitats that merit legal protection. In addition, the expansion of crops in close proximity to forests may have negative ecological impacts in this critical corridor region, surrounding remnant forest patches with a harsh matrix that may lower forest connectivity and ecosystem health over the long-term [60–63]. Pineapple and banana production in Costa Rica depends on extremely high applications of fertilizer and toxic pesticides [47, 64]. In Costa Rica these agro-chemicals have degraded water quality and disrupted downstream ecosystems [47, 63], and contaminated montane forests with pesticides [65].

Potential generalities that merit further investigation emerge from this study. First, deforestation bans may result in more effective protection of mature forest than older forest regrowth; this may result from the relative ease of clearing and/or farmer bias against losing land to regrowth [37]. Second, cropland expansion may ‘harden’ pastoral tropical landscapes by reducing the likelihood of reforestation to connect forest remnants [66]. Finally, deforestation bans may be more effective in restricting clearing for large-scale intensive agriculture than for less intensive agriculture such as pasture. The export-oriented banana and pineapple producers in northern Costa Rica may be more sensitive to potential boycotts and the tarnishing of their brands than smaller domestic cattle producers [67–70]. The success of the soy deforestation moratorium in Brazil shows that large producers can and do respond to socio-political pressures [35]. If large export cultivators are indeed more responsive to bans on forest clearing, future implementation of bans should focus on a suite of mechanisms that incentivize large- and small-scale farmers to reduce deforestation. Comprehensive forest protection policies may be a potential tool to promote land-sparing in regions undergoing deforestation for intensive agriculture.

Acknowledgments

This letter benefited greatly from the comments of two anonymous reviewers, and was also improved by constructive criticism from Meha Jain and Victor Gutierrez-Velez. Field research was made possible by logistical support provided by FUNDECOR and the staff at the Organization for Tropical Studies La Selva Biological Station, and we would like to thank Jose Miranda, Marvin Paniagua, and Mauricio Gaitan for assistance in the field. We thank CENAT, Amanda Wendt, and Carlos Andres Campos for providing geospatial data on Costa Rica and would like to express our appreciation to Bonnie Tice and Sue Pirkle. This work was funded by National Aeronautics and Space Administration Earth System Science Fellowship NNX10AP49H, the ASPRS Ta Liang Memorial Award, The Earth Institute, and the Columbia Institute of Latin American Studies.

References

expense of forests in the Peruvian Amazon Environ. Res. Lett. 6 044029


[34] Daniels A E, Bagstad K, Esposito V, Moularta A and Rodriguez C M 2010 Understanding the impacts of Costa Rica’s PES: Are we asking the right questions? Ecol. Econ. 69 2116–26


[41] Anon 1996 Ley Forestal, No. 7575 (San José: Gobierno de la República de Costa Rica)


[53] Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos 2011 X Censo Nacional de Población y VI de Vivienda 2011: Resultados Generales (San José: Gobierno de la República de Costa Rica)


[64] Bellamy A S 2012 Banana production systems: identification of alternative systems for more sustainable production AMBIO 42 334–43


[71] Fagan M E 2012 personal observation