

1 **How should conservationists respond to pesticides as a driver of biodiversity**
2 **loss in agroecosystems?**

3

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36

37 **Abstract**

38

39 Conservation biologists should seek to work with those involved in sustainable agriculture and rural
40 development in expanded integrated approaches to reduce pesticide harm to humans, biodiversity
41 and environmental services. Despite new evidence, conservation organisations have tended not to
42 fully recognize the impacts of pesticides on biodiversity, and current conservation strategies pay
43 little heed to addressing this threat. A comprehensive suite of strategies are required to reduce and
44 rationalize pesticide use and mitigate risks to species conservation. This paper proposes six steps for
45 conservationists to address pesticide problems: (1) revisit the *land sparing versus land sharing*
46 debate and include the external impacts of agriculture as vital components in systematic
47 conservation planning; (2) redefine narratives on *intensive* agriculture and support emerging forms
48 of sustainable intensification; (3) focus and inform on improved delivery mechanisms and
49 monitoring legal use to achieve better pesticide targeting and a major reduction in volumes used; (4)
50 support efforts to reduce wastage and inefficiency in the food system by promoting technical
51 changes and informed consumer choice; (5) design and encourage resilient temperate and tropical
52 landscapes that minimise pesticide contamination on farms and at landscape scale; and (6) develop
53 comprehensive policy responses to promote both better alternatives to synthetic pesticides and
54 limit the use of the most harmful pesticides.

55

56 **Keywords:** biodiversity, food wastage, conservation planning, systemic pesticides, pollinators,
57 sustainable agriculture.

58

59 **Introduction: Re-emergence of an under-estimated driver of biodiversity loss**

60

61 The last two decades have seen growing concern that many pesticides, particularly the insecticides
62 known as neonicotinoids, are harming pollinators such as domesticated and wild bees (Goulson et
63 al., 2015). Evidence has emerged that ecological damage may extend far beyond bees. In 2015 the
64 IUCN report *Worldwide Integrated Assessment of the Impacts of Systemic Pesticides on Biodiversity
65 and Ecosystems* (van Lexmond et al., 2015), authored by 29 independent scientists, synthesised over
66 a thousand peer reviewed studies and concluded that systemic pesticides have serious negative
67 impacts on pollinators and other terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates, amphibians and birds, and on
68 ecosystem functioning and services (Chagnon et al., 2015). Soon afterwards, the European
69 Academies Environmental Science Council published another comprehensive review reaching
70 broadly similar conclusions (EASAC, 2015).

71

72 In 2016, the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity (IPBES) published the results
73 of a two-year study on pollinators. IPBES estimated the annual value of crops directly affected by
74 pollinators as US\$235-577 billion, and that over 40 per cent of invertebrate pollinators were facing
75 extinction, with neonicotinoid pesticides among the important factors threatening pollinators
76 worldwide (IPBES, 2016).

77

78 These findings highlight wider concerns that the adverse environmental impacts of pesticides (which
79 include insecticides, molluscicides, herbicides and fungicides) have tended to be under-estimated,
80 particularly in the tropics, (Constantini, 2015), as have the substantial external economic costs of
81 pesticides worldwide to both human health and ecosystem services (Pretty and Bharucha, 2015).

82 Evidence has been building of serious biodiversity declines (Mason et al., 2013) caused by a range of
83 insecticides (Luzardo et al., 2014) and herbicides (Chiron, 2014) often acting in combination with
84 other stressors (Goulson et al., 2015). Pesticides with long half lives, the occurrence of spray drift or

85 a combination of both can also adversely impact biodiversity in protected areas (Martín-López et al.,
86 2011).

87

88 The joint work of IUCN, EASAC and IPBES help to explain why biodiversity continues to decline in
89 modern farmed landscapes, even in Europe where habitat loss and poaching pressure have largely
90 been halted, and where there is considerable investment in agri-environment schemes intended to
91 increase biodiversity (Donald et al., 2006). Negative impacts of pesticides on non-target organisms
92 have important economic considerations, for example, by contributing to the global decline of
93 pollinators (Goulson et al., 2015). In parts of China, farmers are now pollinating plants by hand in
94 order to provide a surrogate for the loss of pollination ecosystem services (Partap and Ya, 2012).

95

96 Until recently there has been a tendency for many conservation practitioners to assume that the
97 most serious pesticide problems have been addressed with the banning of most organochloride and
98 organophosphate insecticides. For example, while pesticides were a constant feature of resolutions
99 at IUCN's World Conservation Congress until 1990, they virtually disappeared for 20 years until the
100 formation of the task force on systemic pesticides in 2012 (www.tfsp.info), which advises the IUCN
101 Commissions on Ecosystem Management (CEM) and Species Survival (SSC). Annual horizon scans of
102 conservation biology priorities have not mentioned pesticides for over ten years (e.g. Sutherland et
103 al, 2015), nor did a survey of 100 pressing questions for conservation biologists (Sutherland, 2009)
104 and work on pesticides by agricultural scientists does not generally focus on impacts on wild
105 biodiversity (Pretty and Bharucha, 2015). Historic impacts of organochlorine and organophosphate
106 pesticides are acknowledged, but impacted species mostly recovered following the ban on pesticide
107 compounds such as DDT (e.g., Ambrose et al., 2016). Continued biodiversity loss has been linked
108 more generally to resource-intensive models of development and consumption, invasive species,
109 nitrogen pollution, and climate change (Butchart et al., 2012); where agriculture is highlighted the
110 focus tends to be on land use change and general intensification (Maxwell et al., 2016). Whilst

111 recognizing the critical importance of all these factors, we argue that the role of pesticides in driving
112 biodiversity loss also deserves renewed emphasis, quantification and amelioration.

113

114 One common response to scientific evidence of serious ecological impacts from a pesticide is to
115 consider a ban. However, there are considerable challenges to achieving this; the agrochemical
116 industry is influential and well-organised to argue for the role of pesticides to protect crops against
117 pests, diseases and weeds. The European Union's initial two year restrictions on using some systemic
118 pesticides on plants that bees are likely to visit reached a stalemate in the European Parliament,
119 resulting in the European Commission exercising its right, and imposing a restriction. Pesticide
120 manufacturers challenged the decision in court and some governments remain openly critical of the
121 Commission's decision (McGrath, 2014). Many farmers perceive themselves to be reliant to varying
122 extents on currently available pesticides and restrictions need to be aligned with effective and
123 practicable alternatives. Moreover, agroecological alternatives such as Integrated Pest Management
124 are knowledge-intensive, and need effective extension and support services to mobilize new
125 techniques, train farmers and provide ongoing support (Pretty and Bharucha 2015).

126

127 Many compounds have been used for years after serious health and environmental problems were
128 identified, particularly in developing countries (e.g. Sherwood and Parades, 2014). Continued efforts
129 to ban certain active ingredients, strengthen regulatory frameworks and improve the application of
130 existing laws are important. But while withdrawal of compounds that pose the highest risk is one
131 solution, efforts to address all pesticide externalities need to be situated within a wider strategic
132 framework for biodiversity conservation, not least to avoid this scenario being re-enacted into the
133 future with new generations of pesticides. We suggest six strategies that conservationists should
134 consider to address biodiversity loss from pesticides. None of these steps are new. However, some
135 have been largely ignored by the conservation community, while others have been subject to
136 intense debate, which is influenced by a renewed focus on pesticide risks.

137

138 **1. Revisit the *sharing versus sparing* debate**

139

140 New evidence of pesticide impacts puts a fresh slant on a continuing debate. Rising human
141 populations and changing consumption patterns mean that natural ecosystems will likely continue
142 to be converted to agriculture (Harvey and Pilgrim, 2010). Conservation biologists disagree about the
143 best way to respond. Some argue for *land sparing*, where agriculture is intensified and concentrated
144 into as small an area as possible, leaving maximum space for conservation, while others argue for
145 *land sharing*, de-intensifying agriculture, or intensifying production through more environmentally
146 benign approaches (Bommarco et al., 2013), to increase biodiversity on farmland and reduce
147 impacts on non-farmed areas (Fischer et al., 2008). A variety of shades of opinion exist between;
148 most land sparing advocates stress the need to minimise detrimental off-farm impacts and there are
149 many efforts to find an optimal mix between sharing and sparing (e.g., Kremen, 2015).

150

151 The land sparing argument assumes that land not used for agriculture is generally unaffected by
152 agriculture and that intensification reduces the need for more land to be converted to agriculture.
153 But the offsite impacts of agriculture, as evidenced by data on systemic pesticides, have now been
154 recognised as greater than often assumed, and the impacts of pesticides on non-target species
155 shown to be influenced by landscape context (Park et al., 2015). Research also suggests that
156 intensification does not necessarily reduce the area under agriculture, or even slow the rate of
157 agricultural expansion, particularly if there are strong market drivers (Byerlee et al., 2014). While
158 new understanding of pesticide impacts does not provide a decisive answer to the sharing or sparing
159 debate, future discussions need to recognise that agricultural impacts extend beyond land clearing
160 (Matson and Vitousek, 2006); failure to do so has contributed to the current crisis. Greater efforts
161 are needed to mitigate offsite impacts as factors in systematic conservation planning, developing
162 new tools to help if necessary.

163

164 **2. Redefine what *intensive* means in agriculture and support and fund emerging forms of**
165 **sustainable agriculture**

166

167 Pretty and Bharucha (2015) calculate that 50 per cent of all pesticides are not necessary for
168 agricultural benefit (drawing on data from 85 projects in 24 countries). The sharing or sparing debate
169 focuses on distinguishing “intensive” from “extensive”, whereas the real issues should be about
170 types of intensification (Tscharntke et al. 2012). A variety of agroecologically-based intensification
171 strategies allow for ‘wildlife friendly’ farming, particularly for smallholders in developing countries
172 who experience declines in biodiversity and food security (Pretty and Bharucha 2014).

173

174 The concept of “sustainable intensification” is gaining traction (Pretty and Bharucha, 2014), including
175 application of Integrated Pest Management (IPM) approaches on many millions of farms. In 2009 the
176 European Parliament introduced a directive (2009/128/EC) for achieving sustainable pesticide use,
177 which provides a comprehensive framework for reducing pesticide use and obliges Member States
178 to encourage farmers to adopt IPM or organic methods, including through provision of capacity
179 building material (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/en/ALL/?uri=CELEX:32009L0128>). Evidence
180 on IPM shows that higher yields can be achieved with reductions in pesticide use (Pretty and
181 Bharucha, 2015), intra-specific crop diversity can be used to manage pests (e.g., Bommarco et al.
182 2013, Ssekandi et al. 2016), and efficient agriculture does not require the adoption of large-scale
183 monocultures (Mulumba et al., 2012). Resource-conserving agriculture can be highly efficient, as can
184 small-scale, labour-intensive, lower external-input farming systems, frequently leading to higher
185 yields than conventional systems (Pretty, 2008). Yet, there is comparatively little investment in
186 research into lower external-input systems, and they remain undervalued. This is due in part to
187 opposition from vested interests and poor understanding of comparative externalities and the
188 productivity of small farms, leading to lack of support in trade and agricultural policies (De Schutter

189 and Vanloqueran, 2011). Calculations of agricultural efficiency that include net nutritional benefits,
190 offsite impacts and water/energy use, alongside productivity per area, will give a clearer picture of
191 costs and benefits. Extension approaches such as Farmer Field Schools, promoting education, co-
192 learning and experiential learning can help to reduce wasteful and unnecessary use of pesticides
193 (Waddington et al, 2014).

194

195 Organic agriculture is a concrete example of sustainable intensification. There are already over 43
196 million hectares of organic agriculture production worldwide, with a further 35 million hectares of
197 natural or semi-natural areas used for collection of “wild” organically certified products such as
198 honey and some herbs (Willer and Lernoud, 2015). Global sales of organic produce were already
199 worth USD 72 billion in 2013 and are predicted to double that by 2018 (Reaganold and Wachter,
200 2016). Organic farming focuses on sustainability; reducing soil loss and boosting soil organic matter,
201 increasing on-farm biodiversity and using less energy (Gomiero et al., 2011). A recent meta-analysis
202 shows that in some conditions organic agriculture comes close to matching conventional agriculture
203 in terms of yields, while in other cases at present it does not (Seufert et al, 2012). Until recently,
204 organic agriculture has tended to work with single crop varieties, managing the agronomic system
205 around them, rather than using diverse crop varieties within an organic system; as greater crop
206 varietal diversity is slowly introduced this is also to some extent substituting for pesticides, further
207 increasing the efficiency of the system (Jarvis et al., 2016).

208

209 Conservationists need to understand and support lower external input, high diversity farming,
210 integrating such approaches into landscape-scale conservation and promoting them to policy-
211 makers.

212

213 **3. Focus on improved delivery mechanisms, rationalisation and efficient, legal use of pesticides**

214

215 The impacts of pesticides are magnified because many farmers use them inefficiently (Skevas and
216 Lansink, 2014); without understanding side effects (Banerjee et al., 2014); becoming “locked in” to
217 an increasing cycle of use (Wilson and Tisdell, 2001); and continuing to use banned products (Ruiz-
218 Suárez et al., 2015). Further, much spray technology remains relatively crude, resulting in both drift
219 and wastage through release of large droplets. Sprayer technology, spraying processes (height and
220 angle) and droplet characteristics all influence the chances of spray drift occurring (Al Heidary et al.,
221 2014). Improved technologies and methods can dramatically reduce pesticide volumes (e.g., Zhao et
222 al., 2014) and drift to natural habitats, and thus off-site impacts and total toxic load. Improved
223 spraying efficiencies also benefit farmer’s incomes. Yet despite technical improvements going back
224 decades, uptake remains low (Matthews, 2014).

225

226 Public funding for research has been reduced, on the basis that pesticide companies should pay.
227 Sales of pesticides continue to rise (Pretty and Bhanrucha, 2015), demonstrating a successful
228 market, and companies have little incentive to invest in systems that would reduce their sales. There
229 is nonetheless an urgent need for an international initiative to increase pesticide efficiency and
230 rationalize use: assembling existing knowledge, providing effective capacity building, commissioning
231 new research and addressing legal loopholes that foster deliberate misuse (Centner, 2014). A key
232 element in this is improvement in the equipment for applying chemicals and adequate training in
233 their use. Such efforts needs to be coordinated with, but remain independent from, businesses
234 involved in manufacturing and distributing pesticides.

235

236 It is also unclear whether all pesticide applications are necessary; farmers often rely heavily on
237 advice from agrochemical companies or their agents, frequently because independent advice is not
238 available to them (Brooks et al., 2015). As an example, the US Environmental Protection Agency
239 concluded in 2014 that applications of neonicotinoid seed dressings to soya bean provide “limited to
240 no benefit”, yet they were being widely used at a cost to farmers of \$176 million per annum

241 (calculated from EPA, 2014). Other long-term studies published recently suggest that past and
242 current applications of insecticides to maize in Italy and elsewhere in Europe are often unnecessary
243 and unprofitable (Furlan et al., 2016a, 2016b). There is nonetheless little publicly available research
244 demonstrating the cost-effectiveness of most pesticide applications. If unnecessary applications
245 could be identified and excluded, this would provide an immediate benefit to farmers, consumers
246 and the environment (Brooks et al., 2015).

247

248 Outside of the agrochemical industry, conservation organisations could help by exposing illegal use,
249 and lobbying for more effective legal controls, more effective equipment that reduces negative
250 effects, investment into independent research looking at both more efficient and rationalized
251 pesticide use, and sustainable alternatives.

252

253 **4. Support efforts to reduce wastage and inefficiency in the food system**

254

255 Another way of reducing pesticide use is to reduce the volume of food produced. Consumption of
256 food, fuel, fibre and feed continues to rise globally. High consumption is exacerbated by food waste,
257 with estimates varying from a third to half of all food wasted globally (Bajželj et al. 2014). This over-
258 consumption has knock-on effects on requirements for land, water, energy and pesticide
259 compounds. Consumption of intensively-raised meat is critically important because of the
260 inefficiencies involved, and the large areas of intensively grown crops such as soya needed to
261 provide feed (Foresight, 2011), which increases net pesticide usage. Even a slight reduction in
262 average meat consumption would have a wide range of beneficial impacts in terms of environment
263 and food security (McMichael et al. 2007), including a reduction in pesticide use. There are a variety
264 of alternative livestock systems that are low-impact, particularly grass-fed management intensive
265 rotational grazing systems (Pretty and Bharucha, 2014).

266

267 Analysts point to the resource-impossibility of the global population consuming at industrialized
268 country levels of diet and food waste, and the importance of reducing both waste and intensively-
269 reared meat consumption (Dogliotti et al., 2014). Many larger conservation organisations have so far
270 remained timid about tackling consumption, and the role pesticides, antibiotics and hormones play
271 in intensive meat-systems (Sumpter and Johnson, 2005). But alliances among conservation, health,
272 social welfare and development bodies, aimed at increased efficiency of food use and improved
273 diets, would simultaneously provide major gains for both food security and biodiversity
274 conservation.

275

276 **5. Support the design of resilient temperate and tropical landscapes**

277

278 Conservation organizations have a role to play in supporting planning processes that take better
279 account of contamination pathways, sensitive habitats, species-rich areas and human communities
280 could help to contain and limit contamination from pesticides. This includes maintaining a diversity
281 of farmed and natural areas; addressing agricultural impacts (of agrochemicals, water use and land
282 erosion) within broad-scale conservation planning; increasing crop varietal diversity and avoiding
283 large-scale planting of single crop cultivars; and promoting on-farm efforts to reduce impacts on
284 biodiversity including by maintaining diversity of farmed components (Jarvis et al., 2011). Effective
285 buffering of sprayed areas can, for instance, reduce impacts on the environment and biodiversity
286 (Aguilar et al., 2015).

287

288 Whilst the significance of the agricultural matrix is well understood in temperate regions, in many
289 subtropical and tropical countries the introduction of large-scale agriculture is a relatively recent
290 phenomenon (Attwood et al., 2009). Here, conservation strategies have so far focused largely on
291 prevention of land clearing. In recent years there has been an increasing recognition of the influence
292 of the agricultural matrix in frontier agricultural regions in driving ecological processes such as

293 landscape permeability (Kennedy et al., 2011), the utilisation of agricultural habitats in subtropical
294 and tropical countries by a range of threatened species (Wright et al., 2012); and the impacts of
295 agricultural intensification on remaining natural habitats. Landscape approaches are therefore
296 needed in both tropical and temperate environments.

297

298 The relative importance of landscape or site-scale approaches differs among groups, with for
299 example sessile plants more responsive to site scale actions while mobile vertebrates require greater
300 landscape complexity (Gonthier et al., 2014). Nonetheless, the basic techniques are already
301 understood; the task now is to introduce them into farming as a matter of course, rather than as
302 exceptional, voluntary practice.

303

304 **6. Develop comprehensive policy responses.**

305

306 The assumption that pesticides are no longer a primary conservation problem can no longer be
307 justified. A global policy for pesticide reduction and more efficient and safer use is an urgent
308 conservation priority; and should be coordinated by an agency with international reach, such as
309 IUCN, CBD or UNEP, with involvement of a wide range of stakeholders. It is now an imperative for
310 independent conservation and development organisations, donor agencies and international
311 institutions to drive the innovations for development of sustainable production systems that will
312 help deliver the Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. goal 12.4). This should include the withdrawal
313 of the most harmful pesticides and a radical, evidence-based reduction in application volumes of the
314 remainder. Bringing such thinking into mainstream conservation policy is now an urgent priority: it
315 will benefit biodiversity as well as farmers and consumers.

316

317

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321

322

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