

1 **LAND USE PLANNING**

2
3 **Title** Assessing the economic marginality of agricultural lands in Italy to support land
4 use planning
5 **Article type** Full Length Article
6

7 **Abstract**

8

9 Agricultural marginality is a multifaceted issue, being related to place-specific
10 socioeconomic contexts and highly-variable technological conditions. The coexistence of
11 different classification systems of these variables makes hard any attempt to have a
12 general definition of agricultural marginality. Moreover, the spatially explicit
13 identification of marginal lands is still challenging mostly due to the lack of reliable data
14 sources at both country and regional scale. Accordingly, this paper evaluates the degree of
15 economic marginality of agricultural land, using Italy as a representative case study for
16 southern Europe. A spatial analysis of farmland profitability and constraints for
17 agricultural activities (topography and biodiversity conservation) is proposed to identify
18 three classes of agricultural land, namely 'unsuitable', 'supramarginal' and 'marginal'
19 lands. Results show that almost 39% of agricultural land in Italy can be classified as
20 'marginal'; its spatial distribution and characteristics are also analyzed and discussed in
21 relation to different background conditions. The proposed approach provides a valuable
22 methodology supporting land-use planning and decision-making under restricted geo-
23 spatial data availability.

24

25 **Keywords:** Land values; Farmland profitability; Land abandonment; Economic
26 marginality.

27

28 **1 Introduction**

29 Although the notion of “marginal land” is frequently used by policy makers, practitioners
30 and researchers, there is not a common, clear and unambiguous definition of marginality
31 (e.g. Dauber et al., 2012). Marginal lands are sometimes intended as a synonym for
32 unused, degraded, abandoned, under-used, fallow and free land, often stimulating an
33 animated linguistic debate and possible misunderstanding (Shortall, 2013). As a matter of
34 fact, the definition of marginal land varies according to the aim for which this term is used
35 and to the given background context to which it is operationally applied (Edrisi and
36 Abhilash, 2016).

37 There are at least two groups of definitions for 'marginal land': those related to biophysical
38 aspects and those based on socioeconomic conditions which turn out to be constraints for
39 agricultural activity (e.g., Edrisi and Abhilash, 2016). Looking at the biophysical aspects,
40 marginal land features poor and badly drained soils, restricted nutrient and water
41 availability and steep slopes, affecting (more or less intensively) the overall productivity
42 level (Lewis and Kelly, 2014). This notion is consistent with what was proposed by
43 Peterson and Galbraith (1932), which define marginal lands as the “margins of
44 cultivation”, where revenues are equal to (or lower than) the costs of production.
45 Additional definitions have been provided by Rabbinge (1993) and Van Orshoven et al.
46 (2013), respectively based on crop growth and biophysical constraints for agriculture.

47 Land capability has also been used by earlier studies to identify and characterize marginal
48 lands (Lewis and Kelly, 2014). FAO and UNEP (2010) have classified land supporting a
49 yield of up to 40 percent of its crop potential as marginal. This implies a crop-specific
50 definition of marginality. In addition, the distinctiveness of marginal land from degraded
51 land was emphasized, the latter specifically referring to land/soil degradation phenomena
52 (Salvati and Zitti, 2005) defined as “(...) any decline in ecosystem function and services
53 over an extended period (...)” (MEA, 2005).

54 From a socioeconomic perspective, marginal lands are considered areas where “cost-
55 effective production is not possible under given conditions, cultivation techniques,
56 agriculture policies as well as macro-economic and legal settings” (Dauber et al., 2012).
57 More precisely, earlier studies have provided a rigorous definition referring to the notion
58 of 'economic sub-marginality' (Cullen and Pretes, 2000) with the aim to outline areas with
59 serious problems of profitability (Cullen and Pretes, 2000; Monti and Cosentino, 2015):
60 submarginal economic land resources would require a substantially higher commodity
61 prices or a major cost-reducing advance in technology and management practices to reach
62 a condition of economic viability. Economically marginal lands are in fact defined by
63 Turley et al. (2010) as “less productive land closer to the break-even economic margin”.

64 Under both biophysical and socioeconomic criteria agricultural marginality is a dynamic
65 condition depending on the considered crop, the technological level and the specific
66 background conditions (e.g. market accessibility, management practices, prices and
67 producers' market power) in a given area (Soldatos, 2015). Therefore, land classified as
68 marginal in a given place or time might be considered as non-marginal in different spatio-

69 temporal conditions (Allen et al., 2016; Edrisi and Abhilash, 2016; Lewis and Kelly, 2014).
70 Hence, a current non-marginal land could be classified as marginal (and vice versa),
71 depending on e.g. commodity prices, market choices, planning regulations and technology
72 development. Based on these premises, the concept of 'marginality' is intuitively referred
73 to transitions from unproductive (unused) to productive (used) land, or from sub-
74 marginal to supra-marginal land along spatially-varying background conditions.

75 A definition of marginal lands based on three marginality classes has been provided by
76 Shortall (2013), who discriminates between lands unsuitable for food production,
77 ambiguous (lower quality) lands, and economically-marginal lands. The latter class is
78 particularly relevant in order to predict future destination of marginal land, including, for
79 instance, land abandonment and multiple options for a cultivation shift to crop suitable for
80 bioenergy production (Russi, 2008). A low soil production level is reflective of land where
81 significant changes in allocation and use are most likely to be observed.

82 Among the others, there is a rising interest around marginal land potentially available for
83 bioenergy production, minimizing - as much as possible - the competition between food
84 and non-food land-uses. In this context, identifying and characterizing marginal land
85 according to its best potential in relation to the competitive use for food *vs* bioenergy
86 production, contribute to design policies that may prevent indirect land-use changes
87 (Kluts et al., 2017; Soldatos, 2015). These issues are relevant in Europe, and especially in
88 southern European countries like Italy, where (i) land abandonment is particularly
89 relevant and increasing over time in the last decade (Pagliarella et al., 2016), (ii) national
90 harmonized datasets or maps identifying and classifying marginal land are still missing or

91 covering only small areas of the country (Allen et al., 2016), (iii) assessment of marginal
92 land could effectively support the implementation of policy strategies such as those on the
93 “Less Favored Areas” for the allocation of CAP-RDP (Common Agricultural Policy-Rural
94 Development Policy) incentives, or on the bio-based economy policy of the EU (i.e., the
95 Renewable Energy Directive (2009/28/EC)).

96 Lewis and Kelly (2014) have described the evolution of marginal land evaluation under
97 continuous improvement in Geographical Information Systems (GIS) and remote sensing
98 techniques, which also allow spatially-explicit identification of land characteristics and
99 estimation of the potential supply of woody biomass (i.e., in Italy, Maesano et al., 2014).

100 Land suitability for biomass production was also investigated through comprehensive
101 approaches based on multiple working hypotheses, criteria and thresholds (Lasserre et al.,
102 2011), at local scale. Particularly, Lewis and Kelly (2014) find differences depending on the
103 scale of application and the aim for which the analysis of land marginality was carried out,
104 which in turn affect data availability and the use of specific criteria and thresholds (i.e.,
105 crop specific) hampering data comparability at broader spatial scales (e.g. from regional to
106 country). At the same time, methodological and conceptual constraints to standardized,
107 consistent and reliable approaches to marginal land evaluation have been extensively
108 discussed (Lewis and Kelly, 2014). Accordingly, further research is required to increase
109 reliability and replicability of the proposed operational frameworks (e.g. improving
110 definitions, factors and thresholds used to discriminate among different conditions of land
111 marginality), technical accuracy (e.g. data consistency over time and space, and with the
112 main analysis' objective) and standardization, allowing comparability among empirical

113 studies (Salvati and Zitti, 2011). These improvements will respond to specific demands
114 and needs for which these information are produced.

115 Based on these premises, the present study evaluates the degree of economic marginality
116 of agricultural land in Italy in a spatially-explicit framework. These information are useful
117 to support land use planning (i.e., the assessment of potential land availability for
118 bioenergy production and for other non-food uses of agricultural biomass). We specifically
119 refer to an economic marginality notion using the Average Value of Agricultural Land
120 (AVAL), a detailed, place-specific information collected and updated by the Italian
121 Revenue Agency at provincial level in Italy for any type of farmland (available at
122 <http://www.agenziaentrate.gov.it/wps/content/Nsilib/Nsi/Schede/FabbricatiTerreni/omi/Banche+dati/Valori+agricoli+medi/?page=fabbricatiterrenicitt>). These data are used in any
123 official transaction (e.g. compulsory purchases) as reference land values. AVAL is then an
124 official detailed measure of farmland capital values that in our study, are used as a proxy
125 for land profitability, introducing additional evaluation criteria (i.e. topography and
126 protected areas) which allow for a better characterization of land resources under different
127 regulative and physical constraints. We considered Italy a representative case study for
128 southern Europe offering general remarks in order to make the proposed approach
129 replicable in other contexts with limited availability of large-scale harmonized data.
130 Results are discussed according to the peculiar socioeconomic conditions of the
131 investigated land, highlighting the importance to provide reliable maps and spatially-
132 explicit datasets forming a base to decision-making.

134

135 **2 Methodology**

136 **2.1 Economically-marginal land in Italy**

137 Italian territory presents high climatic, topographic, geological, and ecological variability
138 (Falcucci et al., 2007). Italy extends nearly 300,000 km², mainly dominated by cropland
139 (33% of the national territory) and forests (32%). Urban settlements covers about 7% of the
140 national territory (Pagliarella et al., 2016), one of the highest percentage within the
141 European Union, still increasing despite the demographic shrinkage recently observed in
142 Italy (ISPRA, 2016) and expanding primarily into high productivity agricultural land
143 (Rivieccio et al., 2017). Mountains cover about 28% of the country's area (Sallustio et al.,
144 2014). However, according to the current national legislation framework - originally
145 referring to mountain areas as "less favorable" (and possibly marginal) areas - the formal
146 definition of "mountain" was extended to nearly 59% of the national territory. This formal
147 definition was adopted in order to assign economic incentives and subsidies to candidate
148 rural districts through dedicated development strategies implemented at national and
149 regional scales (Salvati and Carlucci, 2011). More recently, a National program called
150 "National Strategy for Inner Areas" (Lucatelli, 2015) was implemented with the aim to
151 promote permanence of specific population segments in inland, peripheral rural and
152 mountainous districts (the so called "inner areas"), while promoting their socioeconomic
153 development. Even in this case, the concept of inner areas could be somehow referred to
154 that of socioeconomic marginality, but without a specific mention to agricultural land-use.
155 Hence, in this case, the distance from the nearest urban centre with upper functions (a
156 hospital, a secondary school and a train station of national relevance) was used to

157 characterize Italian municipalities: at the end of the selection phase, almost 60% of the
158 country's territory was defined as "inner areas", mostly represented by municipalities in
159 mountain areas and at considerable distance from urban centers.

160

161 **2.2 Recent land-use changes in Italy**

162 The main trajectories of land-use change over the last decades in Italy include: (i) farmland
163 abandonment, (ii) forest (and other natural and semi-natural land) natural expansion and
164 (iii) urbanization. While the latter phenomenon is particularly evident in flat, coastland
165 and most accessible districts (Marchetti et al., 2014), the former two processes are more
166 likely observed in upland and mountainous districts and, more generally, in less favorable
167 areas such as the inner areas, as previously defined. Particularly, from 1990 to 2013 almost
168 1.3 million ha of agricultural lands were lost countrywide: 56% in inner areas (Marchetti et
169 al., 2017), as a consequence of the reduced profitability of mountain agriculture and the
170 following trees encroachment (e.g. Cimini et al., 2013), and 44% in lowland because of
171 urban expansion. These evidences outline the urgent need to implement specific policy
172 strategies aimed at increasing the profitability of mountain agricultural activities, e.g.
173 promoting the shift towards alternative – and more remunerative – productions as well as
174 the diversification of products and services offered by farms, especially small owners. In
175 this sense the negotiation of the new EU Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) for the
176 forthcoming decade, also with the introduction of schemes for the payment for ecosystem
177 services, is a relevant challenge for rural development (Longhitano and Povellato, 2017).

178 In the present study we specifically refer to the notion of 'economically marginal land'
179 (*sensu* Shortall, 2013), intended as a suitable concept for predictive scopes on the future
180 allocation of these lands. With this perspective in mind, we focused on agricultural lands
181 where significant changes are most likely to be observed (i.e. land abandonment) due to
182 their low profitability and the presence of constraints (i.e. legal or topographic)
183 undermining their possible use for new types of production (i.e., bioenergy crops, non-
184 wood forest products).

185

186 **2.3 Data sources and analysis**

187 *2.3.1. Average Value of Agricultural Land and land profitability*

188 According to an earlier study by Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT, 1958), the
189 country's territory was classified into less than 800 Agricultural Homogeneous Districts
190 (the so called "Regioni Agrarie", hereafter AHD). The last version of the AHD was used
191 according to Povellato (1997) and following updates (available at
192 <http://antares.crea.gov.it:8080/mercato-fondario/banca-dati>). Each district was derived
193 from spatial aggregation of a certain number of neighboring municipalities (ranging
194 between 5 and 10), which had been identified as homogeneous for agronomic and
195 environmental characteristics, socioeconomic attributes and topography (Recanatesi et al.,
196 2016). This classification system was established in order to acquire aggregate or
197 disseminate statistical data on agriculture, with regards to the farms' structure, the
198 agricultural incomes and the associated economic values. Despite the time and the
199 occurred modifications, these latter could be still useful and appropriate and are expressed

200 using the so-called Average Value of Agricultural Land (AVAL), which are related to the
201 average profitability of a specific crop in a given AHD. Accordingly, the AVAL is strictly
202 dependent on AHD characteristics and crop type. AVALs are normally used for appraisal
203 of farmlands, and can be adopted as indicators of the spatial variability of the agricultural
204 economic value.

205 The need of a spatially-explicit assessment of land marginality requires conversion of
206 statistical data into geo-spatial databases with the final objective to produce maps. Starting
207 from the map of Italian municipalities, a map of AHDs was created (Figure 1) by assigning
208 a unique numerical code to every AHD. This shapefile map was then overlapped with a
209 CORINE (COoRdination for the INformation on the Environment) Land Cover map
210 (hereafter CLC) dated 2012 and scaled 1:100,000 within a GIS environment (Buttner and
211 Kosztra, 2012; Sambucini et al., 2010). The CLC spatial database represents the more
212 recently full updated land-use/land cover map at the European and national scale,
213 providing high accuracy and a thematic and spatial resolution coherent with the objective
214 of this study. Since this work focused specifically on agricultural land, 14 out of 44 third-
215 level CLC land-use/land cover classes were considered in the following analysis (Table 1).

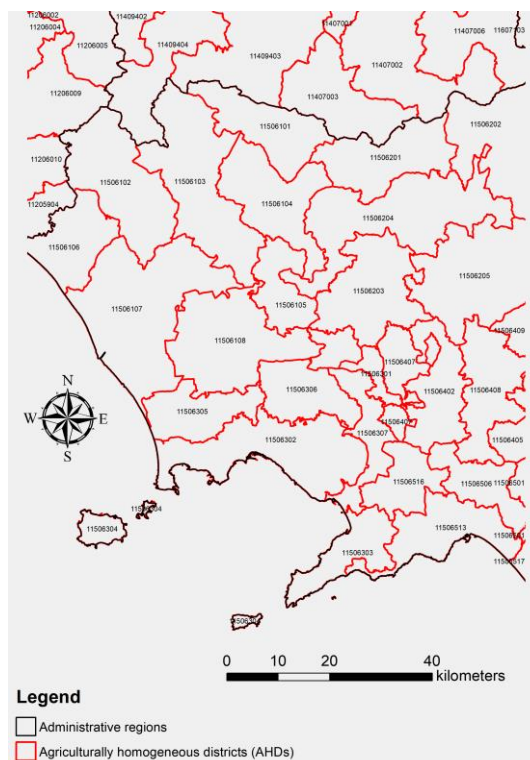
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CLC code	Description
2.1.1.1	<i>Intensive, non-irrigated arable lands</i>
2.1.1.2	<i>Extensive, non-irrigated arable lands</i>
2.1.2	<i>Permanently irrigated arable lands</i>
2.1.3	<i>Rice fields</i>
2.2.1	<i>Vineyards</i>
2.2.2	<i>Fruit trees and berry plantations</i>
2.2.3	<i>Olive groves</i>

2.2.4	<i>Forest plantations</i>
2.3.1	<i>Pastures</i>
2.4.1	<i>Annual crops associated with permanent crops</i>
2.4.2	<i>Complex cultivation patterns</i>
2.4.3	<i>Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation</i>
2.4.4	<i>Agro-forestry areas</i>
3.2.1	<i>Natural grasslands and sparsely vegetated areas</i>

217 Table 1. List of the 14 CLC agricultural classes.

218 The related AHD code was then assigned to each polygon extracted from the general CLC
 219 map. Meanwhile, each crop type belonging to the different AHDs, as well as the related
 220 AVAL, was referred to each CLC class. In case of CLC classes potentially hosting more
 221 than one crop (i.e., 2.4.1., 2.4.2., 2.4.3, 2.4.4. and 3.2.1), the AVAL of the single crops were
 222 averaged to estimate a unique AVAL referable to these promiscuous classes. The single
 223 AVALs referred to the same CLC class were averaged by AHD, producing a land-use
 224 AVAL at the spatial scale of AHD. Finally, the obtained average AVALs were linked to the
 225 AHD map through a join function using the AHD-CLC code as primary key.



227 Figure 1. Detail of the Agriculturally Homogeneous Districts (AHD) map in south-western
228 Italy (scene centered in Naples), showing the unique code assigned to each AHD
229 polygon).

230

231 2.3.2. *Environmental constraints*

232

233 The choice of the physical thresholds used to identify marginal lands is a crucial aspect in
234 land evaluation (i.e. Lewis and Kelly, 2014). In our case, the physical threshold is
235 determined by soil slope, which can strongly hamper agricultural mechanization thus
236 limiting future farm incomes. A physical threshold that excluded slopes higher than 30%
237 was used in this study (Kang et al., 2013). Slope has been calculated from the National
238 DEM with 75 m resolution using the slope function in ArcGIS 10.1 (ESRI, 2014). An
239 additional constraint is determined by the presence of areas officially designated for
240 nature conservation (i.e. Protected Areas, hereafter PAs), intended as a proxy of land with
241 high provisioning of ecosystem services, according to the National Strategy for
242 Biodiversity Protection approved in 2010 and the Renewable Energy Directive 2009/28/EC
243 (EU RED). The official list of PAs (*Elenco Ufficiale delle Aree Naturali Protette*, EUAP; on line
244 at <http://www.minambiente.it/>), regulated by the national Framework Law no. 394/91,
245 includes 871 sites, of which 841 classified as terrestrial PAs. In addition, 2,924 sites
246 belonging to the Natura 2000 Network (in compliance with the “Habitats” and “Birds”
247 European Directives Council Directive 92/43/EEC and Directive 2009/147/EC), extending
248 about 58,200 km² (19% of the country's territory), were added to the EUAP areas (Figure

249 2). Considering the existing overlap among the different sites and PAs categories (e.g. a
250 Natura 2000 site can be included in a national park), the overall Italian network of areas
251 officially designated for nature conservation extends about 65,705 km², of which 36.5%
252 classified as agricultural lands.

253

254 Figure 2. Map of the Protected Areas in Italy (EUAP and Natura 2000 network).

255

256 2.3.3. *Classification of marginal land*

257

258 Once obtained the country-wide maps of AVAL, slope and PAs, a stepwise sequence of
259 land exclusion was used to identify four land classes, as follows: (A) unsuitable
260 agricultural lands: land with slope > 30%, considered unsuitable for agricultural
261 production due to mechanization constraints, namely steepness (Kang et al., 2013). In this
262 case the restrictions to mechanization determine higher production costs (labor costs),
263 limiting the affordability of agricultural activities (Lewis and Kelly, 2014);
264 (B) supramarginal agricultural lands: lands with high profitability for agricultural
265 production (AVAL higher than the mean regional AVAL) and/or nature conservation
266 constraints (land within PA boundaries), being excluded the land category A;
267 (C) marginal agricultural lands: lands with low profitability for agricultural production
268 (AVAL lower than the mean regional AVAL) which will probably imply their future
269 abandonment, being excluded the land categories A and B. In order to better characterize
270 these lands, they were further distinguished into high (< 30% of the mean regional AVAL),

271 intermediate (30-60% of the mean regional AVAL), and low (60-99% of the mean regional
 272 AVAL) marginal agricultural lands.

273

274 **3 Results**

275 The 14 CLC agricultural classes here considered extend 17,549,028 ha with a total AVAL of
 276 about 351 billion € and an average economic value of 20,000 € ha⁻¹, ranging from 5,444 € ha⁻¹
 277 to 48,924 € ha⁻¹ in Aosta valley and Veneto region, respectively (see Table A.1 for further
 278 details on total and mean AVAL per administrative regions). “Intensive, non-irrigated
 279 arable land” class provides the greatest value in terms of both AVAL and surface area
 280 (respectively 56% and 43%). A particularly high contribution in terms of land surface is
 281 also provided by “complex cultivation patterns” (Table 2), “land principally occupied by
 282 agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation”, and “natural grasslands and
 283 sparsely vegetated areas” (12%, 12% and 10%, respectively), while only the former classes
 284 contribute substantially to the overall AVAL (44 billion €). The highest AVALs per land-
 285 use class were found for “Permanently irrigated arable lands”, “Vineyards” and “Fruit
 286 trees and berry plantations” (42,285 € ha⁻¹, 41,906 € ha⁻¹ and 37,204 € ha⁻¹, respectively),
 287 while the lowest values were found for “Natural grasslands and sparsely vegetated areas”,
 288 “Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation”
 289 and “Agro-forestry areas” (3,627 € ha⁻¹, 4,923 € ha⁻¹, 6,239 € ha⁻¹, respectively).

290

3.1 CLC class	Relative contribution to AVAL	Relative contribution to total surface
Intensive, non-irrigated arable lands	55.8%	43.3%

Extensive, non-irrigated arable lands	1.7%	2.9%
Permanently irrigated arable lands	0.5%	0.2%
Rice fields	2.5%	1.7%
Vineyards	6.9%	3.3%
Fruit trees and berry plantations	4.5%	2.4%
Olive groves	7.1%	6.9%
Forest plantations	0.3%	0.3%
Pastures	2.3%	2.4%
Annual crops associated with permanent crops	0.7%	1.2%
Complex cultivation patterns	12.6%	12.5%
Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation	3.0%	12.1%
Agro-forestry areas	0.3%	1.0%
Natural grasslands and sparsely vegetated areas	1.8%	9.9%

291

292 Table 2. Percent contribution of each land-use class to AVAL and total surface area in Italy.

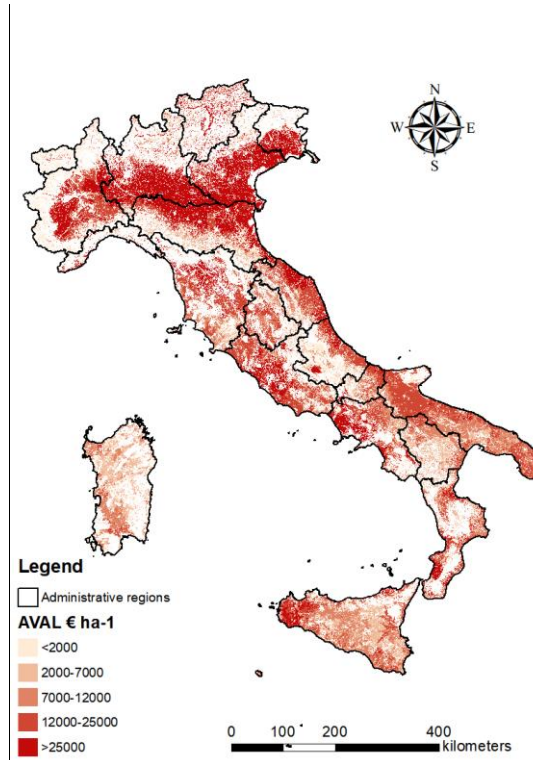
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294 Figure 3 illustrates the spatial distribution of the AVALs in Italy, with the highest values
295 found in Po Valley (Northern Italy) and in the north-western part of Campania. Generally
296 speaking, the highest AVALs are observed in lowlands and sparse districts along the sea
297 coast; conversely, the lowest AVALs are observed in the Alps and Apennines mountains
298 as well as in dry and less productive land in the major islands, Sardinia and Sicily.

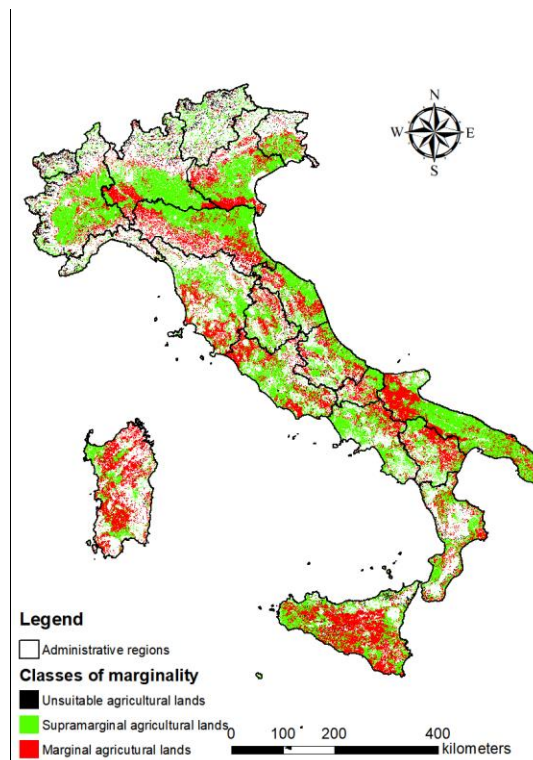
299 The spatial distribution of the AVALs is illustrated in a summary map classifying land
300 into three classes based on the empirical assessment of economic marginality (Figure 4).

301 Unsuitable and supramarginal agricultural lands are mostly located along the Alps and in
302 valleys and plains all over Italy, with a gradual shifting towards marginal conditions
303 along the elevation gradient. Empirical results of this study indicate that nearly 0.87
304 million ha of agricultural lands in Italy are classified as unsuitable while 9.89 million ha as
305 supramarginal. Marginal agricultural lands amount to 6.77 million ha, of which 47% with
306 low marginality, 33% with intermediate marginality and 20% with high marginality

307 conditions (see Table A.2 in Appendices for further details). In absolute terms, Apulia has
 308 the largest extent of supramarginal lands (1.06 million ha), Trentino-South Tyrol of
 309 unsuitable lands (0.16 million ha), and Sicily of marginal lands (1.04 million ha).



310
 311 Figure 3. Spatial distribution of the Average Value of Agricultural Land in Italy.



313 Figure 4. Map showing the spatial distribution of the three land types classifying
314 agricultural land in Italy.

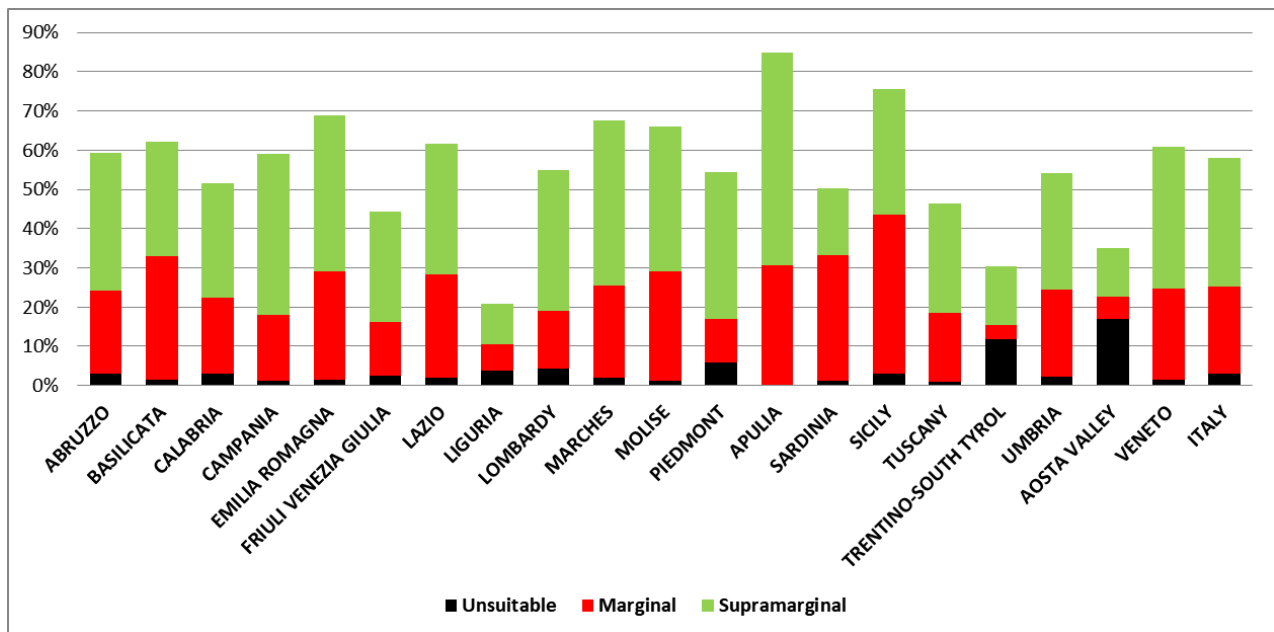
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316 Looking at the relative distribution of the marginality classes within the Italian
317 administrative regions (Figure 5), Aosta valley and Trentino-South Tyrol have the highest
318 percentage of unsuitable lands due to the abundance of steep slopes (48.5% and 38.4%,
319 respectively), while the lowest was observed for Apulia (0.1%). Otherwise, the highest
320 percentage of supramarginal lands were observed in Campania and Piedmont (69.6% and
321 69.1% of total agricultural land, respectively), the lowest in Aosta valley and Sardinia
322 (35.5% and 33.7%, respectively). The highest percentages of marginal agricultural lands are
323 situated in Sardinia, Basilicata and Sicily (64.1%, 50.9% and 53.5% of their agricultural
324 lands, respectively).

325 The highest percentage of land with high marginality was found in Piedmont, where
326 almost 85% of the marginal land showed a high degree of marginality, while the lowest
327 value was observed in Molise and Umbria (0.1% in both cases) (Table A.2 in Appendices).

328 These differences indicate how, in spite of indicators and criteria operating through
329 discrete values/classes/thresholds to define marginal lands (i.e., the AVAL), a variety of
330 background conditions can be found within a country, revealing the importance of
331 classification and indicators using continuous values and scales with the aim to increase
332 effectiveness in land-use planning and decision making.

333



334

335 Figure 5. Percent share of the three classes of economic marginality in total surface area of
 336 Italian administrative regions.

337

338 4 Discussion

339 Although discourses about marginal land have stimulated a thorough scientific and
 340 normative debate at European and national scales at least since the last three decades,
 341 poor spatial data and statistics on the consistency and location of marginal land were
 342 limiting effective analysis and approaches to policy-making, particularly in Italy. The high
 343 subjectivity underlying the economic marginality concept, its definitions and the multiple
 344 indicators and approaches adopted for land evaluation hinder effective comparisons with
 345 other studies, both for Italy and abroad, where, due to the lack of coordinated surveys and
 346 data-gathering activities, no quantitative studies on this topic have been carried out so far
 347 at the national scale (Allen et al., 2016). Abbate et al. (1989) outlined the intrinsic difficulty
 348 in land evaluation due to the inherent differences in operational definitions and lack of

349 reliable data. In their work, they generally referred to marginal lands as “lands with low
350 profitability”, thus more likely prone to land abandonment. Based on this general
351 definition and using socioeconomic data (without a spatial-explicit approach) provided by
352 national agricultural censuses, about 2 million ha of marginal lands were identified, that
353 were extended up to 10 million ha considering lands with a certain “inclination to
354 marginality”, which were represented by hilly lands. Trying to compare these data with
355 our results, unsuitable and highly marginal lands (2.2 million ha) have a similar extension
356 with marginal lands, while extending the 'marginality' concept to all lands having
357 different degrees of marginality, there is a difference of about 2.3 million ha (7.6 million ha
358 in this study, 10 million ha in the former study). This difference can be easily explained
359 considering the vastly different approaches and definitions adopted in the two studies as
360 well as the lost of about 1.4 million ha of agricultural lands occurred from 1990 to now,
361 mostly due to land abandonment (e.g. Pagliarella et al., 2016).

362 From the economic point of view, the land-use class contributing the most to marginal
363 agricultural lands are the “Intensive, non-irrigated arable lands” and the “Land
364 principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation” (3.4 and
365 1.7 million ha, respectively). While the contribution of the latter class remains high even in
366 percent terms (about 78% with respect to the total surface area), the relative contribution of
367 the former class decreases due to the high percentage of supramarginal agricultural lands
368 (about 55% of the class area). The land-use classes with the highest percentages of
369 marginal agricultural lands are the “Agro-forestry areas” and the “Annual crops
370 associated with permanent crops” (82% and 81%, respectively). “Olive groves”, “Fruit

371 trees and berry plantations” and “Vineyards” show the highest percentage of supra-
372 marginality (96%, 94% and 92% of their total surfaces, respectively), mostly due to their
373 high profitability. Surprisingly, only 23% of “Natural grasslands and sparsely vegetated
374 areas” is classified as marginal instead their low AVAL (3,627 € countrywide), due to the
375 large presence of PAs (almost 50% of class area), which drives their classification as
376 supramarginal land, and their location on steep slopes determining unsuitable conditions
377 to farming. Almost 26% of “Natural grasslands and sparsely vegetated areas” is classified
378 as unsuitable, which is the highest percentage of unsuitable agricultural lands observed in
379 Italy, being followed by “Pastures” (14%), reflecting a rural landscape possibly associated
380 with a high rate of land abandonment. Moreover, “Natural grasslands and sparsely
381 vegetated areas” show the highest percentage of lands with high marginality (67% of the
382 marginal lands), followed by “Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant
383 areas of natural vegetation” (60%).

384 Concerning the relationship between marginal districts and protected areas, our results
385 show that agricultural lands within PAs boundaries are less profitable than outside PAs,
386 with an average AVAL of 14,317 € ha⁻¹. Hence, if not considering the PAs existence in these
387 areas, only 24% of their agricultural lands could be considered as supramarginal, with
388 respect to 48% outside PAs. This difference is mostly explained by the larger extent of
389 land-use classes with lower profitability within PAs, such as the “Natural grasslands and
390 sparsely vegetated areas” (37% of the agricultural lands within PAs, 10% outside).
391 Notably, the statistical distribution of the AVAL by land-use class is relatively stable
392 within and outside PAs. The highest difference is found for “Intensive, non-irrigated

393 arable lands”, and specifically for those lands within the boundaries of National Parks,
394 which have almost 43% of the average national AVAL of this land-use class.

395

396 **5 Conclusions**

397 The present study has assessed economically-marginal lands with constraints on
398 biophysical and economic marginality in Italy (Kang et al., 2013), using available
399 information and a simplified methodology addressing data constraints at national scale.
400 Innovation and advantages of our approach deal with the updated provision of statistics
401 and mapping methodologies approaching marginal land classification. Future research
402 has to evaluate the impact of other types of constraints in the assessment of AVAL and
403 considering more complex frameworks in the analysis of marginality (e.g. biophysical
404 marginality considering soil data or specific values linked to high added value production
405 such as wine and oil with a recognized or formal geographical specificity). Our approach
406 could be improved assuming variable conditions of the level of profitability and hence of
407 the AVAL due to e.g. the impacts of CAP reform with a reduced level of agriculture
408 product price support and the effects of Rural Development Programs. Earlier studies
409 (Keenleyside and Tucker, 2010; Renwick et al., 2013) have provided empirical evidence
410 that these ongoing policy reforms will increase the extension of economically-marginal
411 lands in European countries. Renwick et al. (2013) gave special evidence to the hot-spots of
412 land abandonment that will involve Italian mountain areas. By contrast, while there is a
413 general consensus that the EU renewable energy policy may have relevant impacts on
414 increased imports needed in meeting the EU targets for biofuels (Edwards et al., 2010;

415 Özdemir et al., 2009) - highlighting the role of bioenergy for sustainable development and
416 green growth (Goetz et al., 2017) - studies on the potential impact of increased biofuel
417 consumption in reducing land abandonment and economically-marginal lands provide
418 mixed and sometimes contrasting results for both Italy and other EU countries (Banse et
419 al., 2011; Demirbas, 2009; Fischer et al., 2010). This turns out to be particularly relevant in
420 Italy, which till recently has been the first producer of more advanced liquid biofuels in
421 EU (EUROSTAT, 2016), and where a political awareness and interest on these topics is
422 already existent (see the recently approved Decree no. 369 of 16/1/2017). Furthermore, the
423 identification of marginal lands is particularly relevant for the implementation of
424 innovative and sustainable production systems based on the so called “smart-
425 intensification” principles, which turn out in offering a wide range of novel products (i.e.,
426 non-wood forest products, organic foods, short food supply chain) and services (i.e.,
427 structured recreational activities, ecosystem services etc.) (Schröder et al., 2018; Weltin et
428 al., 2018). Hence, even according to Schröder et al. (2018), the detection of hotspots of
429 marginalities represents one of the first steps in order to unlock such lands transforming
430 them into productive lands, thus able to effectively contribute to emerging environmental,
431 societal and economic challenges towards sustainability.

432 Finally, the availability of such data on land marginality is particularly relevant in Italy,
433 where a rising interests on land use strategies and policies to promote their recovery, thus
434 hindering land abandonment, has emerged during last years, as demonstrated, for
435 example, by the establishment of 'land bank' initiatives (i.e., 15 of the 20 Regions have

436 recently established their land banks), or by the constructive introduction of these topics in
437 the political debate and legislation on forestry, agricultural and rural development issues.
438 An improved analysis under different policy scenarios may contribute to define and
439 monitor marginality conditions, justifying the use of regional thresholds and considering
440 land marginality as a relative and spatially-varying concept. Further steps to move
441 technical framework from marginality evaluation to, for example, land availability for
442 bioenergy and other non-food crops include the implementation of a suitability evaluation
443 specific for different bioenergy crops, using spatially-explicit approaches possibly
444 considering e.g. the optimal location of bio-refineries and other geographical constraints.

445

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453

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614

615 **Appendices**

616

617 **Table A.1. Extension, total and mean AVAL for all the 14 CLC classes per administrative regions.**

Administrative region	Surface (ha)	Total AVAL (€)	Average AVAL (€ ha⁻¹)
<i>ABRUZZO</i>	643,128	8,251,351,466	12,830
<i>BASILICATA</i>	627,034	6,789,451,544	10,828
<i>CALABRIA</i>	785,205	11,462,484,440	14,598
<i>CAMPANIA</i>	808,787	14,917,907,511	18,445
<i>EMILIA ROMAGNA</i>	1,522,633	36,087,460,526	23,701
<i>FRIULI VENEZIA GIULIA</i>	348,033	10,031,457,875	28,823
<i>LATIUM</i>	1,060,572	20,798,592,600	19,611
<i>LIGURIA</i>	113,146	1,193,414,805	10,548
<i>LOMBARDY</i>	1,312,520	45,058,709,368	34,330
<i>MARCHE</i>	658,702	11,452,504,854	17,386
<i>MOLISE</i>	293,950	3,544,662,233	12,059
<i>PIEDMONT</i>	1,381,784	25,713,499,119	18,609
<i>APULIA</i>	1,660,024	30,196,868,996	18,191
<i>SARDINIA</i>	1,209,150	10,731,947,150	8,876
<i>SICILY</i>	1,949,088	29,956,961,821	15,370
<i>TUSCANY</i>	1,066,579	18,773,453,391	17,602
<i>TRENTINO-SOUTH TYROL</i>	412,954	4,603,774,085	11,148
<i>UMBRIA</i>	457,382	6,010,384,474	13,141
<i>AOSTA VALLEY</i>	114,363	622,607,977	5,444
<i>VENETO</i>	1,119,843	54,786,750,241	48,924
ITALY	17,549,028	351,016,221,849	20,002

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621 Table A.2. Percent contribution of each marginality class per administrative regions.

ADMINISTRATIVE REGION	Unsuitable agricultural lands	Marginal agricultural lands			Supramarginal agricultural lands
		High marginal lands	Intermediate marginal lands	Low marginal lands	
ABRUZZO	5%	2%	17%	16%	59%
BASILICATA	2%	1%	26%	24%	47%
CALABRIA	6%	3%	19%	16%	57%
CAMPANIA	2%	8%	7%	12%	70%
EMILIA ROMAGNA	2%	18%	5%	17%	58%
FRIULI VENEZIA GIULIA	6%	11%	0%	20%	64%
LAZIO	3%	15%	2%	26%	54%
LIGURIA	18%	0%	31%	0%	50%
LOMBARDY	8%	8%	5%	14%	65%
MARCHES	3%	9%	4%	21%	62%
MOLISE	2%	0%	21%	21%	56%
PIEDMONT	11%	17%	0%	3%	69%
APULIA	0%	1%	10%	25%	64%
SARDINIA	2%	1%	29%	35%	34%
SICILY	4%	7%	31%	15%	42%
TUSCANY	2%	13%	5%	21%	60%
TRENTINO-SOUTH TYROL	38%	2%	10%	0%	49%
UMBRIA	4%	0%	15%	26%	55%
AOSTA VALLEY	49%	3%	0%	13%	36%
VENETO	3%	6%	16%	16%	59%
ITALY	5%	8%	13%	18%	56%

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