Household’s Agricultural Vulnerability to Climate Induced Disasters: A Case on South-west Coastal Bangladesh

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Household’s Agricultural Vulnerability to Climate Induced Disasters: A Case on South-west Coastal Bangladesh

Abstract

Climatic events have a significant impact on south-western coastal agriculture in Bangladesh. The purpose of this study was to assess household’s agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters and to identify the sub-indicators of adaptive capacity that determine the agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters of south-western coastal households in Bangladesh. The vulnerability has been calculated by taking the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) concept through an Agricultural Vulnerability Index (AVI). Then, the ordered logit model has been employed to identify the key sub-indicators of adaptive capacity that determine the agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters. A survey of 346 household heads from the two villages (181 household’s head from Sutarkhali and 165 household’s head from Nalian) of Sutarkhali Union of Dacope Upazila under Khulna District has been used in this study. Findings reveal that the mean score of Sutarkhali is 0.703 (high) for exposure, 0.762 (high) for sensitivity, 0.397 (low) for adaptive capacity and finally, the AVI is 0.689 (high). In the same fashion, Nalian has an average score of 0.658 (high) for exposure, 0.681 (high) for sensitivity, 0.410 (low) for adaptive capacity, and finally 0.643 (high) for the AVI. Non-farm employment, ownership of livestock, access to irrigation pump, improved crop diversification/saline tolerant High Yielding Variety (HYV) crops, and access to farm credit have been found statistically significant sub-indicators of adaptive capacity that determine the agricultural vulnerability of both study sites. Finally, it is recommended that the intervention required for coastal adaptation of agriculture should be initiated by respective authorities.

Key words: Climate-induced disasters, agricultural vulnerability index, coastal adaptation, south-western coastal Bangladesh

1. Introduction

A number of studies have been used to understand the concept of vulnerability to climate disasters in the different fields of society. The aspect cannot be easily applied because so many issues associated with its events and the effects (Adger et al., 2005; Cardona, 2013; Nelson et al., 2010; o’Brien et al., 2004). Generally, there are two elements related to the vulnerability to climate disasters: consequence as an incidence of an extreme event, which can be recognized as climatically extreme sensitivity (e.g. crop failure, land fertility loss, salinity on land) and the community’s resilience to the event (e.g. physical and economic resources, adaptation mechanisms) (Luers et al., 2003; Nelson et al., 2010). However, the widespread impact of climatic disasters especially throughout the agricultural sector has become more and more severe over time. The disasters associated with climate variables such as coastal flooding, cyclones, river erosions, and tidal surge with increasing severity have an impact on the agricultural industry throughout the significant decrease of agriculture production, enhancing crop failure, and increasing farmed animals overall survival (Harvey et al., 2014; Morton, 2007). A wide range of natural and biological mechanisms which drive productivities in agricultural systems, land management and forestry are significantly impacted by inter-annual, monthly and regularly distribution of climate parameters e.g. temperature, radiation, precipitation, water-vapor pressure in the atmosphere and the wind (Easterling et al., 2007). The effects of this climatic variability on agriculture seem to be the most detrimental site. For instance, conventional extreme weather effects of climate change endanger the survival of the people who rely on agriculture (Rosenzweig et al., 2014; Zhai & Juzhong, 2009). Due to climate fluctuations, agricultural production and productivity adjustments are significantly segregated across the various areas of the globe (Lipper et al., 2014).

As agriculture is one of the most climate-infected areas, attempts to highlight and evaluate the overall level of agricultural vulnerability are taken by producing comparative variables focusing on the numerous parameter of vulnerability, the exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity of agroecological systems (Neset et al., 2019). In fact, several literature studies (Acheampong et al., 2014; Aleksandrova et al., 2016; Ghetibouo et al., 2010; Islam et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015; Monterroso et al., 2014; Sujakhu et al., 2018; Wirén et al., 2015) took place across a multitude of dimensions covering various agriculture, such as farming, livestock, fisheries, and forestry. These studies were mainly aimed at helping decision-makers to detect ‘access points’ in prioritization of adaptation capital, raising awareness about climatic risk and uncertainty, monitoring the implications of adaptation strategies and understanding limitations of the social and environmental scheme that contributes greatly to vulnerability. Overall, the majority of all these researches indicate ‘a brief look’ on the vulnerability of agricultural systems by incorporation of some frequently used determinants.

However, Bangladesh is regarded as an agrarian-economy dependent growing nation (Nasim et al., 2019) where agricultural households, specifically in the coastal region (Chen & Mueller, 2018; Chowdhury et al., 2012; Hoque et al., 2019; MoA, 2013; Shamsuddoha & Chowdhury, 2007; Younus, 2017; Younus & Kabir, 2018),
has become increasingly vulnerable with increasing climatic fluctuations and severe weather occurrences (coastal flooding, tidal storm, cyclone, etc.), with the agricultural devastation (salinization, water shortage, and soil degradation), throughout the timespan (Hoque et al., 2019; Khanom, 2016). For instance, the very last two massive-cyclone occasions, namely, Sidr and Aila, took place in 2007 and 2009, triggering a great number of human deaths. They have led to failure in the agricultural sector, livestock farming, and resources. They also have a deterioration in economic and environmental functions (Shamsuddoha & Chowdhury, 2007; Younus, 2017). In the meantime, approximately 63% of the coastal arable land territory is hampered by varying levels of soil salinity due to these climate disasters (Hoque et al., 2019; MoA, 2013). Nevertheless, adjusting to an increasing rate of climate induced disasters have become the greatest problem, contributing to a growing demand for better expanded mitigation options, in order to protect coastal people's agricultural properties and resources, and to extrapolate more changing climate in the long term (Brown et al., 2018; Quader et al., 2017; Younus & Kabir, 2018). Therefore, it is extremely important that agricultural vulnerability to climate disasters is assessed to develop and apply intended adaptation policies as well as to characterize major concern sections for agricultural improvement.

Until now, household’s agricultural vulnerability analysis studies, particularly in the south-west coastal region of Bangladesh, have not been extensively or adequately characterized. Though there is a substantial number of vulnerability studies (Ahsan & Warner, 2014; Bhiuiyan et al., 2017; Hoque et al., 2019; Islam et al., 2014; Islam et al., 2013; Mullick et al., 2019; Rabby et al., 2019; Rakib et al., 2019; Uddin et al., 2019; Younus, 2017; Younus & Kabir, 2018) have found but there is hardly a single study to assess the agricultural vulnerability of household’s to climate-induced disasters in the south-western coastal Bangladesh. Therefore, this study was focused on assessing agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters of south-west coastal Bangladesh using agricultural vulnerability indicators under the umbrella of climate-induced disasters vulnerability components of exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity which have been widely used and recognized by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and recent studies on climate change. This study has also identified indicators of adaptive capacity that determine the agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters of south-western coastal households in Bangladesh which has also not been assessed by any previous studies in Bangladesh. Further, this analysis has made it easier to understand the agricultural vulnerability of the household’s regionally in south-western coastal Bangladesh.

2. Conceptualization of Vulnerability

The basic principle of vulnerability contains a series of concepts aligned with the various phases in which the assessment of the agricultural vulnerability to climate disasters has allowed to take (Hoque et al., 2019). The vulnerability has been connected to or linked with abstract ideas such as perseverance, sensitivity, ability to adapt, destructiveness, and potential danger (Li et al., 2016). It is clear that there have been no common vulnerability theoretical underpinnings in the same situation (Füssel, 2007). This study has incorporated the basic idea of vulnerability assessment using the IPCC indicators. Vulnerability is defined as “the extent to which the agricultural system of a household is vulnerable or unable to comply with the consequences of climate disasters” (Parry et al., 2007). We, therefore, have used a range of 0 to 1 for developing the agricultural vulnerability index where 0 indicates least vulnerability and 1 indicates higher vulnerability. The assessment for the agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters has been summarized through three indicators (see Table 1 for details): (a) exposure (the extent of climatic stressful events); (b) sensitivity (agriculture system that has been negatively affected or is susceptible to climatic stimuli); and (c) adaptive capacity (efficiency of households to adapt with climate disasters, address the impacts and seize opportunities).

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Study Sites

A quantitative approach has been adopted to ascertain how local socio-economic factors and bio-physical influences of climate-induced disasters which are responsible for agricultural vulnerability. A multi-stage sampling technique was used to identify the study sites. First of all, we have placed the spatial emphasis on Dacope Upazila (sub-district) under Khulna district (South-west coastal region) of Bangladesh. Locating on the South-eastern part of Khulna district, this Upazila covers an area of around 991 km² including a forestry conservation area of 494.69 km². In 1906, Dacope has been established as a Thana (kind of sub-district), which later became an Upazila in 1983. This Upazila is comprised of one paurashava, nine wards, fifteen mahallas, nine unions, twenty-six inhabited mauzas, and ninety-seven villages (Statistics, 2013). This region contains a flat land with a natural land slope bounded by the Sundarbans (the world’s largest mangrove forest) and the Bay of Bengal from the south-west and the south directions, accordingly. This is an unripe deltaic slope where the length of the belt rarely reaches above the height of the sea level. The rivers in this Upazila are the basic flow stream. Therefore, the rivers e.g. Pasur, Shibsa, Manki, Bhadra have a substantial influence on both surface and groundwater quality due to natural tidal movement (Parishad, 2005). Being with the coastal belt, the study
region frequently faces different disasters like cyclones, tidal surges, heavy rainfall, river erosion, etc. Moreover, two back-to-back destructive cyclones: Sidr in 2007 and Aila in 2009 have subsequently impacted the area. Finally, we selected two villages including Surtarkhali and Nalian, randomly, under the Surtarkhali union of the Upazila as the study sites.

### 3.2 Vulnerability Indicators

Exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity are the key elements to determine vulnerability to climate variation and change (Parry et al., 2007). In this study, exposure refers to the occurrences, intensities, and magnitudes of climate-induced disasters and positions of the agricultural land from the river to which agriculture-based households systems are susceptible (McCarthy et al., 2001). Exposure indicators that have selected for the two study sites characterize the position of agricultural land from the river; occurrences, intensities and magnitude of climate-induced hazards in the study sites; and standard deviation of past 15 years temperature and precipitation in Khulna district.

Sensitivity is the extent to which a system of households or communities is negatively affected or immune to climate stimuli (Parry et al., 2007). In this study, sensitivity sub-indicators have included reduction of irrigation water availability; salinity severity on arable land; irrigation potential loss of cultivable land; agricultural properties loss; agricultural production trend loss; cropping intensity loss; income loss from agriculture; and food security loss to climate-related hazards over the last 15 years in the study sites.

We define adaptive capacity as the household’s capability or potential to respond to climate-induced catastrophe as well as to cope with its consequences and to seize opportunities (McCarthy et al., 2001). In this study, the adaptive capacity of a household has been taken as annual savings, formal education, high household size, non-farm employment, ownership of livestock, agrochemical/fertilizer supply, improved seeds supply, access to irrigation pump, gardening with mangrove trees improved crop diversification/saline tolerant High Yielding Variety (HYV) crops, access to large farm size, access to farm credit, membership in Non-government Organizations (NGOs)/Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and share of embankments/dams around the farmland.

### Table 1: Major vulnerability indicators, sub-components and hypothesized functional relationship comprising for agricultural vulnerability index (AVI) developed for two villages of Dacope upazila.

| Vulnerability Indicators | Sub-indicators | Unit of Measurement | Adapted source | Hypothesized Relationship |
|--------------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| **Exposure**             | Position of agricultural land from the river | Dummy; 1= near, 0= far away | Developed for the purpose of questionnaire (Hoque et al., 2019; Sujakhu et al., 2018) | Higher value reflects higher exposure. Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Standard deviation of annual rainfall | Number (Last 15 years) | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Standard deviation of annual temperature | Number (Last 15 years) | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Occurrences of river erosion | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Higher intensity of tidal surge | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
| **Sensitivity**          | Reduction of irrigation water availability | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Developed for the purpose of questionnaire (Hoque et al., 2019; Pandey et al., 2015; Tessema & Simane, 2019) | Higher value reflects higher sensitivity. Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Salinity severity on arable land | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Irrigation potential loss of cultivable land | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Agricultural properties loss | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Agricultural production trend loss | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Cropping intensity loss | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Income loss from agriculture | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Food security loss | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
| **Adaptive Capacity**    | Annual savings | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Developed for the purpose of questionnaire (Hoque et al., 2019; Tessema & Simane, 2019) | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Formal education | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | High household size | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Non-farm employment | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Ownership of livestock | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Agrochemical/Fertilizer supply | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Improved seeds supply | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Access to irrigation pump | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Gardening with mangrove trees | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Improved crop diversification/HYV crops | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Access to large farm size | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Access to farm credit | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Membership in NGOs/CBOs | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |
|                          | Share of embankments/dams | Dummy; 1= yes, 0= no | Lower value reflects lower adaptive capacity. Lower adaptive capacity = Higher Agricultural Vulnerability |

### 3.3 Data Collection and Sample Size Determination

Both primary and secondary data have been used in this study. Primary data have been collected through a structured interview schedule from the households of both study sites in the period between January and May, 2019. The interview schedule has been approved by the supervisors of the study and the thesis review committee. A group of trained data enumerators have collected the data. Households have been selected using
systematic random sampling with an interval of every 10th household from the starting point. We have used the corresponding widely used formula for determining the sample size (Naing et al., 2006):

\[
n = \frac{Z^2 P (1 - P)}{d^2}
\]

\[
n' = \frac{NZ^2 P (1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + Z^2 P (1 - P)}
\]

Where \( n \) = Sample size; \( n' \) = Sample size with finite population correction; \( Z \) = The standard normal deviate, corresponding to a significance criterion of 0.05 (95%) = 1.96; \( d \) = Margin of error, we will tolerate which is ±0.05; \( P \) = Incidence rate or proportion predicted, corresponding to a significance criterion of 0.5 (50%) and \( N \) = Total population, we have included total 3451 households including 1810 households from Sutarkhali and 1641 households from Nalian (Statistics, 2013).

\[
n = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times 0.5 (1 - 0.5)}{0.05^2} = 384.2
\]

\[
n' = \frac{3451 \times (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 (1 - 0.5)}{(0.05)^2(3451 - 1) + (1.96)^2 \times 0.5 (1 - 0.5)} = 345.8 \approx 346
\]

Thus, we have enrolled 346 households head from the two villages of Sutarkhali union. To reduce the variance, we have used stratified sampling for data collection including 181 households head from Sutarkhali and 165 households head from Nalian. Participants who were not willing to participate, have been excluded from this study. Secondary data has been used in this study for calculating the standard deviation of the last 15 years temperature and precipitation in the Khulna district. We have extracted this data from the Bangladesh Meteorological Department (BMD) of Khulna.

### 3.4 Development of the Agricultural Vulnerability Index

A composite vulnerability index has been developed for each study site through the determination of exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity. This method calculates a vulnerability index for a set of indicators using an aggregated mean. By averaging the sub-indicators score within each indicator, Equation (1) has been taken into account to determine each indicator score (exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity).

\[
DO_i = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(SIS)_k}{k}
\]

Where \( DO_i \) is the indicator-scores (exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity) of vulnerability index ‘i’, which is the average of all sub-indicators within each indicator (here \( SIS_k \) is the score of each sub-indicator within the concerned indicator and \( k \) is the total number of sub-indicators within the concerned indicator that have been indicated in Table 1). After the calculation of the “Exposure”, “Sensitivity” and “Adaptive Capacity” scores, Equation (2) has been used to calculate the agricultural vulnerability index as like as (Inostroza et al., 2016).

\[
AVI_i = \frac{E + S + (1 - AC)}{3}
\]

Where \( AVI_i \), E, S and AC represent the agricultural vulnerability index, exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity of each study site , respectively. The analysis has been conducted by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0) and Microsoft Excel (Version 2013).

### 3.5 Vulnerability Analysis

Finally, we have used a ordered logit model (Tsue et al., 2014) with a view to identifying the sub-indicators of adaptive capacity that determine the agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters for both study sites. It is a regression model with ordinal dependent variables that are “low”, “medium”, and “high” and used to see how the responses to other questions can predict or determine the ordinal outcomes (Fullerton, 2009). Here, with the categorized dependent variable, the model had been stated as:

\[
Pr (Y \leq j) = \ln \left( \frac{1 - 3Pr (Y \leq j|X)}{3Pr (Y \leq j|X)} \right) = \alpha + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \ldots + \beta_{14}X_{14}
\]

Where, Y = Agricultural vulnerability to climate induced disasters for each household of each study site (which is categorized into 3: low = 0, medium = 1 and high = 2); \( \alpha \) = threshold; \( \beta_1-\beta_{14} \) = estimated parameters; \( X_i \) are the sub-indicators of adaptive capacity. Agricultural vulnerability classes for each household have been regressed as outcome variables which have also been calculated by using Equation (1) and Equation (2). At the same time, the sub-indicators of adaptive capacity have been regressed as explanatory variables. The analysis has been performed on STATA (Windows Version 13.0). By considering p-value < 0.05 as statistical significance, the analysis has been conducted.
4. Results and Discussion

The analysis of agricultural vulnerability is disclosed in two segments for both study sites. The first segment is concerned with determining the different vulnerability measurements with estimates of AVI through the indicators and sub-indicators (Table 2) and the second deals with estimating different adaptive capacity determinants of agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters through ordered logistic regression (Table 3).

4.1 Exposure

Households differ from exposure (Coulibaly et al., 2015; Pachauri et al., 2014; Sujakhu et al., 2018), but due to a lack of absolute data, the inclusion of climate variability data is very difficult. We, therefore, have extracted community level data for rainfall and temperature during the last 15 years from the BMD of Khulna. However, for each household, we have obtained data for the distance of agricultural land from the river and intensity and occurrences of climate-induced hazards as exposure. In total six sub-indicators have been used to evaluate the household’s “exposure” position. The sub-indicators of exposure include the position of agricultural land from the river, the standard deviation of rainfall, the standard deviation of temperature, the intensity of cyclone and tidal surge, and the occurrences of river erosion. The substantial hazards in the surveyed site have been found cyclone, river erosion, and tidal surge with varying intensities, magnitudes, and impacts on agricultural production (Table 2).

The analysis has found that the overall mean exposure for Sutarkhali and Nalian is 0.703 and 0.658 respectively, which is considered to have higher agricultural vulnerability exposure for both study sites (Mean Score> 0.640). Households have disclosed the necessity of pre-monsoon precipitation to ascertain the season of harvesting. Most households’ farmland have been based on the harvesting rainwater during the monsoon season, and the significantly reduced precipitation rate could affect households by impacting agriculture more (Sujakhu et al., 2016; Sujakhu et al., 2018). Extreme cyclone strength with a tidal wave induces large-scale flooding (Islam et al., 2015) and damages crops and land in large areas (Hoque et al., 2019; Rahman, 2010), leading to saline intrusion (Hoque et al., 2019) and water shortages (Sujakhu et al., 2018) that are regarded as a major problem as an irrigation system. Extreme cyclone magnitude has been identified in 2007 and 2009 with higher tidal surges and coastal flooding in the coastal region of Bangladesh (Islam et al., 2015; Shahid, 2012). The threat of cyclone and the tidal surge has strongly felt by agriculture farmers. Besides, the position of agricultural land within or nearby the river and frequent occurrences of riverbank erosion have also been exposed a higher threat to livelihood (Hoque et al., 2019) as well as the agriculture sectors in both study sites. Taken broadly (Table 2), it could be noted that location and distance of farmland from the river, climatic hazards, and climate variability for all households are more or less common in both study sites which ultimately leads to a higher or lower vulnerability. Climate-induced events has been exacerbated the exposure and vulnerability of the areas to water shortages, saline severity, dropping irrigation potential, crop production loss, properties loss, and food scarcity. More unpredictable climatic hazards with climate variation might worsen the current agricultural risks.

4.2 Sensitivity

Agricultural sensitivity refers to the probability of impacts of climate-induced disasters on the agricultural sector (Hoque et al., 2019). Findings (Table 2) reveal that eight variables have been used to analyze the “sensitivity” of the households for both areas. This analysis reveals that relative sensitivity in both regions are 0.762 in Sutarkhali and 0.681 in Nalian, and that agricultural sensitivity to climate-induced disasters would consider high in both study sites (Mean Score> 0.640). In both study sites, the greater agricultural vulnerability of vulnerable households has been caused by higher salinity and decreasing crop production trend and cropping intensity. In the last 15 years, due to cyclone Sidr and Aila and other climate-related hazards, salinity intrusion through the coastal flooding due to cyclone and tidal surge, sea-level rise, and river erosion have been reported by respondents of both study sites which decreased the irrigation water availability, irrigation potential of the land, crop production, and cropping intensity in both study sites. Moreover, land owned by highly vulnerable households could be subject to salinity intrusion and other risks from climate-induced disasters. Most of the household’s do not irrigate land, loss crop production, loss cropping intensity, and loss agricultural income due to greater risks of saline water intrusion and irrigation water scarcity (Islam et al., 2015; Pandey & Jha, 2012; Sujakhu et al., 2018).

Agricultural system in the both study sites has also faced considerable challenges due to the notable changes in the frequency and intensity of events linked to climate during the last decades. Climate-induced disasters could affect crop growth, food safety, farming, and fish farming and severely damage the forestry sector. Besides, the livelihoods and food safety of small-scale farmers have been threatened by disasters and the number of people in need of food assistance was increased after disasters, especially when vulnerable populations are affected (Conforti et al., 2018; Islam et al., 2015).
4.3 Adaptive Capacity

A total of fourteen variables (Table 2) have been used to evaluate “adaptive capacity” status. The results demonstrate that the average adaptive capacity index is 0.397 in Sutarkhali and 0.410 in Nalian, which suggests that the adaptive capacity of agricultural households to climate-induced disasters is low in both study sites (Mean Score< 0.540). However, higher annual savings of the households have a positive influence in order to overcome unprecedented situations related to climate-induced extreme events (Piya et al., 2016). Results indicate that most households with lower annual savings in the two study sites could not raise their agricultural and subsistence investments with greater vulnerability. Although they make an attempt to increase their annual savings through the cultivation and selling of mangrove trees, the increasing intensity and magnitude of climate hazards like cyclones Sidr and Aila with tidal surge and coastal flooding in Bangladesh during 2007 and 2009 (Islam et al., 2015) nevertheless have exhausted their savings.

Households with less-educated heads and small household sizes are at higher risk, indicating that education and lower household size have decreased their capacity to deal with the climate risks. The literature shows that households with illiterate heads and lower size with less economically active members are more fragile and less resilient than households with literate heads and more economically active person (Nadeem et al., 2009; Opiyo et al., 2014). Results depict that absence of households’ head education have increased the agricultural vulnerability of the households by limiting their capacity to deal with extreme events and access to agricultural resources and mechanisms in both study sites whereas Sutarkhali is highly vulnerable to the absence of high household size with less economically active members in the households. Households with a greater proportion of non-farming total income are less vulnerable to climate-driven disasters in agriculture. In general, the moderate percentage of non-agriculture income have achieved in most of the households in both study sites as like as (Sujakhu et al., 2016).

Agrochemical/fertilizer supply, improved seeds supply with crop diversification or saline tolerant HYV crops, and access to irrigation pumps have been identified as major sub-indicators of adaptive capacity that determine vulnerability in previous studies (Tsue et al., 2014; Wiréhn et al., 2015). Similarly, this study has identified the lower access to improved seeds, lower access to crop diversification or saline tolerant HYV crops, and lower access to irrigation pumps in both study sites. Although agrochemical/fertilizer supply has been found at a moderate level in Nalian, there is a lack of supplies in Sutarkhali. Social engagement with strong institutional power and improved infrastructure sharing has improved the adaptive capacity (Pandey & Jha, 2012; Smit & Wandel, 2006). The results demonstrate that households with lower access to large farm size and farm credit are agriculturally vulnerable to climate-induced disasters in both study sites. Comparably, membership in CBOs/NGOs and share of embankments/dams around agricultural land have found moderate to higher access in both study sites.

Table 2: Indexed dimensions of vulnerability and sub-components for assessing agricultural vulnerability

| Vulnerability Indicators | Sub-indicators | Sub-indicators Score | Vulnerability Indicators Score |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Exposure                 | Position of agricultural land from the river | 0.61 | 0.55 |
|                          | Standard deviation of annual rainfall | 1.00 | 1.00 |
|                          | Standard deviation of annual temperature | 0.43 | 0.43 |
|                          | Higher intensity of cyclone | 0.78 | 0.76 |
|                          | Occurrences of river erosion | 0.75 | 0.62 |
|                          | Higher intensity of tidal surge | 0.65 | 0.59 |
| Sensitivity              | Reduction of irrigation water availability | 0.73 | 0.70 |
|                          | Salinity severity on arable land | 0.78 | 0.82 |
|                          | Irrigation potential loss of cultivable land | 0.80 | 0.77 |
|                          | Agricultural properties loss | 0.62 | 0.57 |
|                          | Agricultural production trend loss | 0.81 | 0.74 |
|                          | Cropping intensity loss | 0.91 | 0.82 |
|                          | Income loss from agriculture | 0.69 | 0.59 |
|                          | Food security loss | 0.45 | 0.44 |
| Adaptive Capacity        | Annual savings | 0.40 | 0.43 |
|                          | Formal education | 0.38 | 0.40 |
|                          | High household size | 0.38 | 0.56 |
|                          | Non-farm employment | 0.64 | 0.59 |
|                          | Ownership of livestock | 0.27 | 0.18 |
|                          | Agrochemical/Fertilizer supply | 0.33 | 0.48 |
|                          | Improved seeds supply | 0.31 | 0.28 |
|                          | Access to irrigation pump | 0.26 | 0.19 |
|                          | Gardening with mangrove trees | 0.64 | 0.65 |
|                          | Improved crop diversification/HYV crops | 0.27 | 0.24 |
|                          | Access to large farm size | 0.31 | 0.21 |
|                          | Access to farm credit | 0.40 | 0.39 |
studies have also found the benefits of climate-resilient seeds (Cacho et al., 2020; Tessema & Simane, 2019). The higher agricultural vulnerability has been found in Sutarkhali as a result of a lack of improved seed supply, whereas, lower household size (p<0.01), no access to agrochemical/fertilizer supply (p<0.01), and no membership in NGOs/CBOs (p<0.01) have been reported statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability of the households in both sites. Moreover, no access to improved seed supply (p<0.05) and no share of embankments/dams (p<0.01) have been recorded statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability for the households of Sutarkhali, whereas, lower household size (p<0.01), no access to irrigation pumps are extremely significant (p<0.01) for the two study sites. At the same time, no improved crop diversification/HYV crops have been found statistically significant (p<0.05) for both study sites. Similarly, no access to large farm size has been also statistically significant (p<0.01 to p<0.05) for both study sites. These five sub-indicators of adaptive capacity have played an important role in determining the agricultural vulnerability of the households in both sites. Moreover, no access to improved seed supply (p<0.05) and no share of embankments/dams (p<0.01) have been recorded statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability for the households of Sutarkhali, whereas, lower household size (p<0.01), no access to agrochemical/fertilizer supply (p<0.01), and no membership in NGOs/CBOs (p<0.01) have been reported statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability for the households of Nalian.

Access to non-agricultural income is viewed as a risk reduction approach as well as a post-crisis coping approach (Heitzmann et al., 2002). Households in our study sites have poor adaptation potential due to a lack of involvement in alternatives subsistence alternatives including no access to non-farm income. This result is consistent with the previous study by (Sujakhu et al., 2018). Parallely, livestock has an impact on the household’s vulnerability levels, leading them to transition from low to moderate or high (Nkondze et al., 2014). Such finding is quite similar to this study. Meanwhile, smallholder farmers in Dhading, Nepal, are less vulnerable after integrating livestock domestication with crop production. Ownership of livestock is essential for this type of integration (Panthi et al., 2016; Sujakhu et al., 2018). In comparison to conventional varieties crops and cultivated high yield varieties are related to the improved crop variety class (Evenson & Gollin, 2002). The adoption of no high yield crop diversity and no access to irrigation pumps had been described as the critical factors of low adaptive capacity to assess agricultural livelihood vulnerability to climate change in coastal Bangladesh. Variation of improved crop variety and irrigation pumps have influenced the adaptive capacity and resulted in a differential level of vulnerability to climate change (Hoque et al., 2019). Reported observations are similar to our study results for both study sites on access irrigation pumps and improved crop diversification or saline tolerant HYV crops. A logistic regression model has been used to illustrate the major determinants of the vulnerability of farming households to environmental degradation in Nigeria which has found access to credit, land fragmentation, and land tenure security as the major determinants (Tsue et al., 2014). Such result is close to our findings concerning no access to farm credit in both study sites.

Seeds that are resistant to climate change can boost rates by up to 25% relative to current rates with contemporary seeds by 2050 under the climatic variations projected in Africa (Islam et al., 2016). The previous studies have also found the benefits of climate-resilient seeds (Cacho et al., 2020; Tessema & Simane, 2019). The higher agricultural vulnerability has been found in Sutarkhali as a result of a lack of improved seed supply, which is similar to a prior research on smallholder farmer vulnerability to climatic variability and change. In addition, agriculture will rely heavily on embankment farming as a viable approach (Islam et al., 2015), where agricultural vulnerability to no sharing of embankments/dams around the farmland has been found significant in our study results in Sutarkhali.

The key drivers of poverty in Nigeria included household size, female-headed households, and agricultural activities solely, according to a logistic regression model (Edoumiekumo et al., 2013). In terms of household size, that report reflects our findings in the Nalian. Moreover, better use of farming technologies such as better fertilizer application can be related to the significant average increases in productivity per hectare of the wetland agro-ecological system in the agriculture portfolio (Tessema & Simane, 2019), whereas in our study in Nalian, agricultural vulnerability to a lack of agrochemical/fertilizer supply has been demonstrated to be significant. Another significant attribute that influences the community’s or household’s vulnerability is the social network. Limited engagement in leadership selection, low membership in community-based organizations, least farming experience, and the largest number of non-working days per month are all factors contributing to the lowland

Mean Score < 0.540 = Low
Mean Score 0.540 - 0.640 = Medium
Mean Score > 0.640 = High
Source: Field Survey, 2019

4.4 Vulnerability

Overall, the agricultural vulnerability index score of Sutarkhali (0.689) and Nalian (0.643) (Table 2) indicates that the households are highly vulnerable to climate-induced disasters (Mean Score> 0.640) in both study sites. The results of ordered logistic regression (Table 3) elucidate that various sub-indicators of adaptive capacity have been used to assess the prevalence of agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters at both sites of the study. In total, five sub-indicators have been noted statistically significant (p<0.01 to p<0.05) for both study sites. The ordered regression analysis exhibits that no access to non-farm employment, no ownership of live stocks, and no access to irrigation pumps are extremely significant (p<0.01) for the two study sites. At the same time, no improved crop diversification/HYV crops have been found statistically significant (p<0.05) for both study sites. Similarly, no access to large farm size has been also statistically significant (p<0.01 to p<0.05) for both study sites. These five sub-indicators of adaptive capacity have played an important role in determining the agricultural vulnerability of the households in both sites. Moreover, no access to improved seed supply (p<0.05) and no share of embankments/dams (p<0.01) have been recorded statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability for the households of Sutarkhali, whereas, lower household size (p<0.01), no access to agrochemical/fertilizer supply (p<0.01), and no membership in NGOs/CBOs (p<0.01) have been reported statistically significant determinants of agricultural vulnerability for the households of Nalian.

Access to non-agricultural income is viewed as a risk reduction approach as well as a post-crisis coping approach (Heitzmann et al., 2002). Households in our study sites have poor adaptation potential due to a lack of involvement in alternatives subsistence alternatives including no access to non-farm income. This result is consistent with the previous study by (Sujakhu et al., 2018). Parallely, livestock has an impact on the household’s vulnerability levels, leading them to transition from low to moderate or high (Nkondze et al., 2014). Such finding is quite similar to this study. Meanwhile, smallholder farmers in Dhading, Nepal, are less vulnerable after integrating livestock domestication with crop production. Ownership of livestock is essential for this type of integration (Panthi et al., 2016; Sujakhu et al., 2018). In comparison to conventional varieties crops and cultivated high yield varieties are related to the improved crop variety class (Evenson & Gollin, 2002). The adoption of no high yield crop diversity and no access to irrigation pumps had been described as the critical factors of low adaptive capacity to assess agricultural livelihood vulnerability to climate change in coastal Bangladesh. Variation of improved crop variety and irrigation pumps have influenced the adaptive capacity and resulted in a differential level of vulnerability to climate change (Hoque et al., 2019). Reported observations are similar to our study results for both study sites on access irrigation pumps and improved crop diversification or saline tolerant HYV crops. A logistic regression model has been used to illustrate the major determinants of the vulnerability of farming households to environmental degradation in Nigeria which has found access to credit, land fragmentation, and land tenure security as the major determinants (Tsue et al., 2014). Such result is close to our findings concerning no access to farm credit in both study sites.

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agro-ecological system’s increased vulnerability in Ethiopia (Tessema & Simane, 2019). That study also supports our results in the Nalian regarding membership in NGOs/CBOs.

Table 3: Determinants of vulnerability classes in the households (Highlighted variables were significant at both study sites)

| Explanatory Variables                  | Sutarkhali       | Nalian        |
|----------------------------------------|------------------|---------------|
|                                        | Coef. | OR   | p-value | Coef. | OR   | p-value |
| Annual savings                         |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.71  | 2.04 | 0.082   | 0.99  | 2.69 | 0.067   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Formal education                       |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.38  | 1.47 | 0.360   | 1.00  | 2.72 | 0.068   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| High household size                    |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.56  | 1.75 | 0.178   | 1.39  | 4.04 | 0.008** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Non-farm employment                    |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.78  | 5.94 | <0.001**| 1.59  | 4.94 | 0.006** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Ownership of livestock                 |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.96  | 7.11 | <0.001**| 2.30  | 10.07| 0.002** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Agrochemical/Fertilizer supply         |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.83  | 2.30 | 0.072   | 1.89  | 6.63 | 0.001** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Improved seeds supply                  |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.07  | 2.92 | 0.022*  | 1.17  | 3.23 | 0.068   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Access to irrigation pump              |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.70  | 5.52 | 0.002** | 2.29  | 9.88 | 0.002** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Planting mangrove trees                |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.73  | 2.09 | 0.093   | 0.93  | 2.55 | 0.111   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Improved crop diversification/ HYV crops|       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.13  | 3.11 | 0.027*  | 1.28  | 3.61 | 0.046   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Access to large farm size              |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.01  | 2.75 | 0.067   | 1.26  | 3.54 | 0.078   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Access to farm credit                  |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.09  | 2.98 | 0.035*  | 1.90  | 6.73 | 0.002** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Membership in NGOs/CBOs                |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 0.75  | 2.11 | 0.079   | 2.02  | 7.59 | 0.001** |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Share of embankments/dams              |       |      |         |       |      |         |
| Yes (Ref.)                             | 1.50  | 4.50 | 0.001** | 0.90  | 2.46 | 0.110   |
| No                                     |       |      |         |       |      |         |

(Coeff.: Coefficient; OR: Odd Ratio; Ref: Reference; ** p<0.01; * p<0.05)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The agricultural vulnerability of the households to climate-induced disasters has been assessed through the use of a composite vulnerability index and quantitative methodologies. Particularly, contextual and location suitable exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity indicators have been used. At the same time, numerous adaptive capacity sub-indicators have been found significant that determine the household’s agricultural vulnerability in both study sites. Non-farm employment, ownership of livestock, access to irrigation pump, improved crop diversification/ saline tolerant HYV crops, and access to farm credit are the main predictors of agricultural vulnerability especially in light of socio-economic and spatial disparities. Throughout the two villages and perhaps in other coastal regions, the determinants that have been outlined in this research might assist to develop the proper adaptation strategies to the household’s agricultural vulnerability to climate-induced disasters in south-western coastal Bangladesh.
However, depending on research results and respondents demand, this study recommends that the administration interference should be strengthened:

*Intensive handling of irrigation water.* In order to support farmers’ access to irrigations water for crop production facilities, the respective authority should prioritize adequate water management and access to irrigation pump.

*Improved seed supply, crop diversification and saline tolerant high yielding variety crops.* To increase cultivation output and cropping intensity, the concerned entities should concentrate on cultivation diversification through the introduction and production of more improved seeds as well as high-yielding saline tolerant crop varieties.

**Data availability**

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon request.

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**Conflict of interest**

No.

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**Ethical considerations**

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