

1
2
3 1 **Soil erosion in East Africa: an interdisciplinary approach to realising pastoral land**
4
5 2 **management change**
6

7 3
8
9 4 *William H. Blake*^{1*}, *Anna Rabinovich*², *Maarten Wynants*¹, *Claire Kelly*¹, *Mona Nasser*³,
10 5 *Issakwisa Ngondya*⁴, *Aloyce Patrick*⁴, *Kelvin Mtei*⁴, *Linus Munishi*⁴, *Pascal Boeckx*⁵, *Ana*
11 6 *Navas*⁶, *Hugh G. Smith*⁷, *David Gilvear*¹, *Geoff Wilson*¹, *Neil Roberts*¹, *Patrick Ndakidemi*⁴
12
13
14
15

16 7
17
18 8 *1. School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Plymouth, UK*
19

20 9 *2. School of Psychology, University of Exeter, UK*
21

22 10 *3. Faculty of Ecological Design Thinking, Schumacher College, UK*
23

24 11 *4. Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology, Arusha, Tanzania*
25

26 12 *5. Isotope Bioscience Laboratory – ISOFYS, Ghent University, Gent, Belgium*
27

28 13 *6. Soil and Water Department, Estación Experimental de Aula Dei (EEAD-CSIC), Zaragoza,*
29 14 *Spain*
30

31 15 *7. Landcare Research, Private Bag 11052, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand.*
32
33
34
35
36

37 17 *Corresponding author: william.blake@plymouth.ac.uk*
38
39
40

41 19 **Abstract**
42

43 20 Implementation of socially acceptable and environmentally desirable solutions to soil erosion
44 21 challenges is often limited by (1) fundamental gaps between the evidence bases of different
45 22 disciplines and (2) an implementation gap between science-based recommendations, policy
46 23 makers and practitioners. We present an integrated, interdisciplinary approach to support co-
47 24 design of land management policy tailored to the needs of specific communities and places
48 25 in degraded pastoral land in the East African Rift System. In a northern Tanzanian case
49 26 study site, hydrological and sedimentary evidence shows that, over the past two decades,
50 27 severe drought and increased livestock have reduced grass cover, leading to surface
51 28 crusting, loss of soil aggregate stability, and lower infiltration capacity. Infiltration excess
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 29 overland flow has driven (a) sheet wash erosion, (b) incision along convergence pathways
4
5 30 and livestock tracks, and (c) gully development, leading to increased hydrological
6
7 31 connectivity. Stakeholder interviews in associated sedenterising Maasai communities
8
9 32 identified significant barriers to adoption of soil conservation measures, despite local
10
11 33 awareness of problems. Barriers were rooted in specific pathways of vulnerability, such as a
12
13 34 strong cattle-based cultural identity, weak governance structures, and a lack of resources
14
15 35 and motivation for community action to protect shared land. At the same time, opportunities
16
17 36 for overcoming such barriers exist, through openness to change and appetite for education
18
19 37 and participatory decision-making. Guided by specialist knowledge from natural and social
20
21 38 sciences, we used a participatory approach that enabled practitioners to start co-designing
22
23 39 potential solutions, increasing their sense of efficacy and willingness to change practice. This
24
25 40 approach, tested in East Africa, provides a valuable conceptual model around which other
26
27 41 soil erosion challenges in the Global South might be addressed.
28
29
30
31
32

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44

45 **1.1 Rationale and aim**

46 Every year 12 million hectares of productive land are lost to soil erosion[1] globally and 33%
47 of soils are currently thought to be degraded[2]. The problem of soil erosion and land
48 degradation has traditionally been investigated through a sectoral or disciplinary lens, rather
49 than holistically. In addition, the formulation of policy solutions for achieving sustainable land
50 management has often been detached from those responsible for implementing them on the
51 ground. We argue that it is (1) the *interdisciplinary gap* left between specialist researcher
52 groups, and (2) the *implementation gap* between policy makers and practitioners, that lie at
53 the heart of a collective failure to achieve greater socio-ecological resilience in the face of
54 this environmental challenge. Against this, we aim to outline and demonstrate a field-based
55 approach designed *ab initio* to overcome these two key deficiencies. Interdisciplinary and
56 transdisciplinary research targeting socio-ecological problems is not a new concept, but

1
2
3 57 increasing demand for solutions via this pathway reveals inherent challenges in approaching
4
5 58 and structuring interdisciplinary research processes [3]. The approach we offer here aims to
6
7 59 address specifically the 'interdisciplinary' and 'implementation' gaps that are hampering soil
8
9 60 erosion control in northern Tanzania and the wider East African Rift System (EARS) region,
10
11 61 with relevance to challenges in the wider Global South.
12
13
14 62

15 63 **1.2 Soil erosion and socio-ecological resilience**

16 64 Soil erosion and associated land degradation is a widespread 'wicked problem'[4, 5] for rural
17
18 65 communities undergoing transitions across the Global South, as climate change, population
19
20 66 growth, political upheaval, land tenure change, and migration put unprecedented pressure
21
22 67 on natural resources. Urgent intervention is required to prevent irreversible loss of
23
24 68 ecosystem services as unsustainable land management leads to rates of erosion that
25
26 69 exceed natural soil production. While on-site loss of soil and nutrients threatens food
27
28 70 security[6], pollution of waterways by silt and nutrients impacts water security, and siltation
29
30 71 threatens freshwater biodiversity, tourism and efficiency and lifespan of hydropower dams[7,
31
32 72 8]. Hence, soil erosion has far-reaching implications for the food, water, and energy security
33
34 73 nexus[9] with impacts that span multiple UN Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. SDG 1, 2,
35
36 74 3, 6, 13, 15).
37
38
39 75

40
41 76 Despite decades of research on soil erosion and land degradation[10] the problem has, in
42
43 77 fact, worsened rather than improved, and more communities are being affected than ever
44
45 78 before[11]. This is in part because successful implementation of mitigation measures is
46
47 79 intrinsically linked to socio-cultural, governance and political complexities[12] and
48
49 80 opportunities for livelihood transitions[13]. Often, when these are not taken into account,
50
51 81 insufficient traction is gained to shift systems from unsustainable to sustainable pathways.
52
53 82 While population growth can promote more 'intensive' sustainable agricultural practices
54
55 83 through technological and organisational innovation[14–16] there are many circumstances
56
57 84 where fragile land in combination with weak 'institutions' (e.g. local governance) and
58
59
60

1
2
3 85 historically-inappropriate management policies have led to severe damage to soil resources
4
5 86 following population growth[17, 18]. This is further compounded by socio-cultural lock-ins[19]
6
7 87 where decision-making is constrained within often narrow bands of what is perceived as
8
9 88 possible. Accelerating unsustainable land use change, such as conversion of forest to
10
11 89 agricultural and grazing land[20], is likely to amplify the effect of hydro-climatic drivers of soil
12
13 90 erosion by water with unknown consequences for community resilience and
14
15 91 development[21]. Soil erosion and resulting land degradation are a consequence of both
16
17 92 individual and community land management choices[22, 23] compounded by dynamic
18
19 93 environmental factors which are evolving with climate change[24].
20
21
22 94

23
24 95 Land degradation directly affects community resilience wherein the direction and rate of
25
26 96 response is complex[19]. On-site problems caused by soil erosion are compounded by
27
28 97 downstream physical and socio-cultural impacts (e.g., water pollution, reservoir siltation,
29
30 98 freshwater biodiversity loss), the solutions for which often lie outside the communities
31
32 99 affected. Since socio-economic resilience is intrinsically linked to ecological resilience[25]
33
34 100 through the coupled co-evolution of natural resource systems and dependent rural
35
36 101 communities, soil erosion and downstream siltation problems[26] undermine the resilience of
37
38 102 all communities that depend on soil and water resources.
39
40

41 103

42
43 104 Soil erosion shocks are often amplified by physical and socio-cultural positive feedback
44
45 105 mechanisms[27]. In this context soil erosion and land degradation challenges can be
46
47 106 considered 'intractable'. Complex physical and socio-cultural feedbacks are difficult to
48
49 107 disentangle meaning discipline-specific solutions have, to date, proved inadequate in many
50
51 108 areas affected by land degradation. In some cases, shocks can lead to a learning
52
53 109 experience that propels a system to a qualitatively different pathway that supports greater-
54
55 110 than-previous levels of resilience [19] based on capacity for renewal, re-organization and
56
57 111 development[28]. Accordingly, reactions to disturbance shocks have been categorised, in a
58
59 112 'disaster resilience' context, as ranging from (i) 'collapse' through (ii) 'recover to worse than

1
2
3 113 before' and (iii) 'bounce back to normal', to (iv) bounce back better[29]. Examples of 'bounce
4
5 114 back better' tend to be cited in the context of natural hazard impacts e.g. the development of
6
7 115 community coping mechanisms to drought and flood impacts, linked to climate change, that
8
9 116 were both (a) community-led[30] and (b) NGO/aid-sponsored livelihood adaptations[31]. In
10
11 117 terms of responses to soil erosion, archaeological evidence has been interpreted to indicate
12
13 118 marked episodes of soil erosion associated with development and then subsequent
14
15 119 decline of civilizations[32]. While such evidence has been pitched as a 'collapse'
16
17 120 response, recent analysis of contrasting archaeological cases[33] indicates a diversity of
18
19 121 responses to severe erosion that in part relate to the nature of substrate and role of
20
21 122 tillage in soil production but more importantly how erosion itself can engender sound
22
23 123 ecological behaviours and socio-technical innovation in organised societies (cf. [16]).
24
25 124 Indeed diversity of response might be expected given recently reported global variability in
26
27 125 spatial and temporal effects of land use change in different development contexts[34] and
28
29 126 inevitable differences in socio-cultural approaches to soil conservation. Recent analysis has
30
31 127 predicted that greatest increases in soil erosion rates into the 21st century will occur in Sub-
32
33 128 Saharan Africa, South America and Southeast Asia[34]. In the context of above
34
35 129 complexities, attention needs therefore to focus on co-production of sustainable land
36
37 130 management practises in the Global South.
38
39
40
41
42

131

132 ***1.3 An interdisciplinary approach to realising land management change***

133 The intractability of soil erosion and land degradation problems can only be addressed
134 though inter-disciplinary collaboration, rather than a narrowly sectoral approach.

135

136 [INSERT FIGURE 1]

137

138 Figure 1: Disciplines involved in the present study, their interconnections and position in the soil
139 erosion-land degradation-community resilience challenge

1
2
3 140
4

5 141 In order to overcome the *interdisciplinary gap*, the project design (Figure 1) included both
6
7 142 natural and social scientists from the outset, working in the same region and communities at
8
9 143 the same time. This ensured that there was spatial and temporal congruence between the
10
11 144 results from different disciplines, with findings being as commensurable as possible and
12
13 145 minimising the risk of a “false diagnosis” based on one disciplinary view. Each discipline
14
15 146 contributed specific knowledge: physical geography and agricultural science to evaluate
16
17 147 erosion processes impacts of land management; human geography to evaluate community
18
19 148 resilience response to degradation; social psychology to explore existing behaviour change
20
21 149 approaches wherein social/ group processes are likely to be a key to bringing change. This
22
23 150 first stage drew on knowledge and expertise equally from researchers in the host country
24
25 151 (Tanzania) and donor (UK). Secondly, the *implementation gap*, i.e. between policy makers
26
27 152 and practitioners, was bridged by engaging local stakeholders in the co-design of land
28
29 153 management policies. Here, the discipline of ecological design thinking was integral in
30
31 154 integrating concepts and underpinning participatory action. Against this challenging context,
32
33 155 our programme of interdisciplinary research in Northern Tanzania sought to (1) develop
34
35 156 knowledge of complex interlinkages between soil degradation, climate change, and
36
37 157 community processes in the past and present landscape , and (2) test a participatory
38
39 158 approach[35] to underpin co-designed soil conservation and restoration strategies in the
40
41 159 future. This was based around three key transferable steps: (a) defining the problem, (b)
42
43 160 identifying pathways to change and (c) facilitating action (Figure 1).

47 161 **2. Methods**

48
49 162
50

51 163 **2.1 Study area: Lake Manyara basin, northern Tanzania**

52 164 The EARS region has the highest catchment sediment yields of sub-Saharan Africa[36]
53
54 165 linked in part to topography and rainfall (semi-arid climate with bimodal rainfall pattern) but
55
56 166 also to recent and historic land conversion to agriculture and, in particular, increasing
57
58 167 livestock numbers on grasslands. Indeed recent analysis[34] has shown that the poorest
59
60

1
2
3 168 tropical countries are most susceptible to high levels of soil erosion and this will be further
4
5 169 challenged by growing populations, in the absence of soil conservation strategies. In the
6
7 170 EARS, extreme drought and rainfall events, which are already a characteristic feature of
8
9 171 tropical climatology e.g. linked to ENSO or IOD[37, 38], are widely believed to be changing
10
11 172 in magnitude and/or frequency with global climate change[39]. In this context, we selected
12
13 173 the Lake Manyara catchment system in Tanzania (Figure 2) to represent a natural 'socio-
14
15 174 ecological laboratory' typical of EARS catchments supporting vulnerable pastoral and
16
17 175 agricultural communities in East Africa.
18
19
20 176

21
22 177 The study was undertaken principally in Maasailand of the Monduli District, near Arusha
23
24 178 within the Lake Manyara catchment (Figure 2, Supplementary Information 1). Study areas
25
26 179 were selected in collaboration with village leaders from upland (1814 m) Emaerete (EE),
27
28 180 mid-elevation (1430 m and 1470 m resp.) Landikinya (LA) and Arkaria (AA) and lowland
29
30 181 (1304 m) Ardai Plains (AP). At all sites, sheetwash and consequent soil erosion was
31
32 182 causing notable loss of topsoil and incision of flow convergence pathways and drainage
33
34 183 lines. Local herders have reported that gully erosion has become more severe over the past
35
36 184 ca. 15 years. Control sites were based in upland areas of conservation agriculture in Musa
37
38 185 Valley (MA) and lowland areas controlled and restricted by the military, Lashaine (LE).
39
40

41 186

42
43 187 [INSERT FIGURE 2]
44

45 188

46
47 189 Figure 2: Study site location in Northern Tanzania
48
49 190

50

51 191 ***2.2 Integrating disciplinary expertise to develop pathways to change***

52
53 192 *Jali Ardhi* means Care for the Land in Swahili. The interdisciplinary 'Jali Ardhi' approach
54
55 193 (Figure 1) is grounded in an adapted 4-step PATH model drawn from applied social
56
57 194 psychology[40]: (I) Problem (formulating a problem definition), (II) Analysis (finding
58
59 195 explanations for the problem), (III) Test (developing and testing a conceptual process

1
2
3 196 model), and (IV) Help (co-designing an intervention and testing its effectiveness). The work
4
5 197 described below primarily addresses steps 1 and 2 of the PATH model and commenced with
6
7 198 an evaluation of the spatial and temporal extent of soil erosion and its impacts on landscape
8
9 199 and community resilience in the study area. Consequently, barriers and opportunities for
10
11 200 sustainable behaviour change were explored within the framework of group processes with a
12
13 201 focus on the concepts of community cohesion [41] social and cultural identity [42, 43], and
14
15 202 social norms [44]. The evidence bases were integrated using a resilience approach which, in
16
17 203 turn, supported participatory engagement [35, 45] within an applied design-thinking [46]
18
19 204 framework to evaluate potential for co-designed solutions [47] and create a transferable
20
21 205 framework for wider application.
22
23
24
25

26 207 **2.3 Objectives and data collection**

28 208 29 30 209 *2.3.1 Defining the problem*

31
32 210
33
34 211 A key natural science objective (Figure 1) was to develop comparative datasets of soil
35
36 212 erosion risk in different geomorphic zones of the study area, from lowland to upland pastoral
37
38 213 land, and relate this to Google Earth-based analysis of rill and gully incision extent. This was
39
40 214 integrated with a social science objective to gain understanding of stakeholder awareness of
41
42 215 the problem, and existing socio-cultural barriers to its resolution. These contemporary
43
44 216 insights were set in the context of a timeline of past landscape erosional response to
45
46 217 anthropogenic land-use change and climatic events over recent decades. This was achieved
47
48 218 via analysis of local swamp/lake stratigraphic records, historic air photography and satellite
49
50 219 imagery, and local anecdotal evidence.
51
52
53

54 220
55
56 221 For assessment of erosion extent, a representative 100 x 100 m plot within each study area
57
58 222 was demarcated and surveyed (cf [22]) to produce a geomorphological map of key
59
60 223 landscape features. Within the plot, soil samples were collected in triplicate at 9 random

1
2
3 224 locations for (a) aggregate stability assessment[48], (b) total organic matter, by loss on
4
5 225 ignition, and (c) particle size, by laser granulometry. Alongside, the soil sampling regime, soil
6
7 226 surface permeability measurements were made using a Decagon minidisc infiltrometer[49]
8
9 227 with samples stratified to evaluate bare, crusted and non-crusted surfaces. Control sites
10
11 228 were conservation agriculture underlain by the same soil type and a military zone with
12
13 229 restricted livestock access. To evaluate natural archives of landscape change, sediment
14
15 230 cores were recovered from exposed lake bed in catchments heavily impacted by erosion.
16
17 231 The cores were sectioned into 1 cm slices which were freeze dried and homogenised for
18
19 232 geochemical analysis. To derive a chronology for the sedimentary sequence, subsamples
20
21 233 were analysed for fallout ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs by alpha and gamma spectrometry following
22
23 234 standard procedures[50]. To support application of environmental diagnostics tools to
24
25 235 evaluate sediment production processes and source dynamics[51], subsamples were
26
27 236 analysed for a full suite of major and minor element geochemistry by Wave-length
28
29 237 Dispersive-XRF.

30
31
32
33 238

34 35 239 *2.3.2 Identifying pathways to change*

36
37 240 Key objectives regarding pathways to change were to identify (a) suboptimal practices that
38
39 241 need change to manage the problem successfully and (b) opportunities for practice change
40
41 242 and processes to be targeted in an intervention. To evaluate interlinkage between the
42
43 243 ecological problem and social drivers, a mixed-method inductive approach was used to
44
45 244 identify stakeholder perceptions. A series of 17 semi-structured interviews (13 male
46
47 245 participants, 4 female) were conducted with pastoralists and farmers living in the areas
48
49 246 where the soil samples were collected ($n = 14$), as well as with other stakeholders (e.g.,
50
51 247 representatives of farmer organisations and local government). The interviews focussed on
52
53 248 stakeholders' awareness of the soil erosion problem, its perceived reasons and impacts,
54
55 249 understanding of problematic land management and cattle-keeping practices, and perceived
56
57 250 barriers and opportunities for adopting new land management approaches. A selection of
58
59 251 key land management practices to focus on was informed by natural science insights. Each

1
2
3 252 interview lasted between 30 and 100 minutes. Interviews were transcribed verbatim,
4
5 253 translated into English, and processed using NVivo for thematic analysis[52].
6

7 254
8

9 255 *2.3.3 Facilitating action*

10 256
11

12
13 257 Following the first stage of soil erodibility assessment, evaluation of sedimentary evidence
14
15 258 and interview data analysis, a stakeholder workshop was held to (i) exchange knowledge
16
17 259 between researchers and the study communities, (2) explore the opportunities for co-design
18
19 260 of solutions and (3) lay the foundation for a co-designed framework within which to support
20
21 261 future land management change[46]. The approach was closely aligned with Reed et
22
23 262 al.'s[47] 'bottom-up' participatory principles (cf [45]) in that workshop participants included
24
25 263 stakeholders from each of the study communities as well as District and Regional Council
26
27 264 representatives and NGOs. It was important that local government stakeholders were
28
29 265 present as cross-sector and participatory decision-making is more likely to be successfully
30
31 266 implemented when co-designed to meet the specific local socio-economic and institutional
32
33 267 culture as well as the environmental context[35]. Workshop impact was assessed by
34
35 268 administering pre- and post- measures of problem awareness, efficacy, and behavioural
36
37 269 change intentions (Supplementary Information 2).
38
39
40

41 270
42

43 271 **3. Results and discussion**

44 272
45

46 273 ***3.1 The present: soil erosion processes, dynamics and societal challenges.***

47 274
48

49
50 275 Extensive visual evidence of sheet wash, rill and gully erosion (Figure 3, Supplementary
51
52 276 Information 3) across the study sites implied indicative hydrological process controls on
53
54 277 overland flow and soil erosion. Extensive ponding of surface water was observed across the
55
56 278 eroding study sites during rainfall events (Figure 3a) leading to rapid overland flow
57
58 279 generation. Soil infiltration data (Supplementary Information 4) demonstrated that soils in
59
60

1
2
3 280 impacted areas had an unsaturated hydraulic conductivity less than 10 mm hr⁻¹ with a
4
5 281 notable influence of crusting[53]. These observations are in line with, albeit at the lower end
6
7 282 of, other studies in the region[54, 55]. While soils under conservation agriculture showed
8
9 283 greater infiltration rates with median values two to three times those of the degraded soils,
10
11 284 infiltration capacity was still low in global terms indicating the generally high risk of infiltration
12
13
14 285 excess overland flow during high intensity events.
15

16 286

17
18 287 Both interview and stakeholder workshop data with pastoralists and farmers demonstrated a
19
20 288 high level of awareness of soil erosion issues and impacts (Table 1) with contrasting
21
22 289 perceptions of the scale of root causes. Interviewees highlighted the implications of erosion
23
24 290 for their livelihoods (such as reduced availability of pasture and poorer soil quality), and
25
26 291 concerns about the future (such as opportunities for the next generation to make a living).
27
28 292 Participants reported a strong shared perception that action needs to be taken to address
29
30 293 the problem. They spoke about a range of solutions they are practicing, directed both at the
31
32 294 adaptation to the existing erosion (e.g., filling the gullies with branches or manure) and the
33
34 295 mitigation of future damage (e.g., building barriers on farmland, using contour cultivation,
35
36 296 hole planting, chemical weeding).
37
38

39 297

40
41 298 [INSERT FIGURE 3]

42
43 299

44
45 300 Figure 3: Photographs of key erosion features and processes in the study area (a) surface ponding
46
47 301 due to low soil infiltration capacity, (b) grass root pedestal indicative of sheet erosion, (c) cattle track
48
49 302 along a topographic flow convergence line, (d) deep 'gully' incision along flow convergence lines
50
51 303 (Images University of Plymouth/Carey Marks)

52
53 304

54
55 305 There was notable variability in soil erodibility in different environmental and land
56
57 306 management settings. Soil aggregate stability data (Supplementary Information 4) showed
58
59 307 marked variability in Relative Soil Stability Index (RSSI) (how easily aggregates break down)
60

1
2
3 308 [48]. Values were notably low (<10) for soils from the mid elevation region (AA) and lowland
4
5 309 plains (AP) which also had the lowest organic matter content (6 – 7 % loss on ignition). Soils
6
7 310 in the upper mid elevation rangelands (LA) showed high variability (RSSI 15 – 70) which
8
9 311 might be related to widespread evidence of sheet erosion that had removed up to 30 mm
10
11 312 topsoil in places as indicated by grass root pedestals (Figure 3b) although organic matter
12
13 313 content at this site was surprisingly consistent and greater than the lowland sites (Inter
14
15 314 Quartile Range 8-9 %). The greatest RSSI (ca 80) was observed at the upland site (EE)
16
17 315 coinciding with highest organic matter content in rangeland sites (IQR 8-10.5%). This can, in
18
19 316 part, be linked to higher rainfall at this elevation reflected in notably richer grass cover
20
21 317 compared to drier lowland sites. Eroded soils with depleted organic matter (OM) have
22
23 318 reduced potential to sequester further carbon [56] leading to a positive feedback in erosion
24
25 319 and erodibility. The complex erosion response in relation to land use impacts[57] and
26
27 320 feedbacks, as well as topography and rainfall patterns (affecting both vegetation cover and
28
29 321 erosivity), are a key part of the adaptation challenge.
30
31
32
33

34
35 323 In this regard, many participants expressed an understanding that current practices would
36
37 324 need to be adapted to reduce further soil erosion, and some participants showed awareness
38
39 325 that reducing cattle numbers would be an important step and/or diversification of land
40
41 326 management approaches. However, the interviews also revealed a number of barriers that
42
43 327 stand in the way of achieving this. In line with previous research [58], some of the most
44
45 328 pertinent issues include the central place that cattle-keeping occupies in Maasai identity, the
46
47 329 status-signalling value of large cattle herds, the function of cattle as a liquid asset (i.e., as
48
49 330 the equivalent of a savings account), and the perceived risks associated with alternative
50
51 331 livelihoods (such as mixed or predominantly cropland agriculture). These issues may act as
52
53 332 a brake on effecting change on an individual level and lock pastoralists into pathways
54
55 333 maintaining herd sizes at unsustainable levels, limiting land management change through
56
57 334 diversification.
58
59
60

336 Evidence of sheet erosion at all sites requires some consideration against the extent of
 337 erosion due to incision by rills and gullies (Figure 3d). Gully erosion represents a major
 338 sediment source despite occupying a relatively small proportion of the catchment area[59].
 339 Emerging gully networks also represent efficient conveyance routes connecting sheet and rill
 340 erosion to downstream channel network, which is becoming incised by enhanced surface
 341 runoff linked to increased structural connectivity (cf [60]). Other studies have implicated gully
 342 erosion as a key contributor to sediment delivery downstream[61]. Here we note that
 343 'unseen' sheet erosion may be equally if not more important in terms of raising awareness to
 344 land degradation given (1) its key contribution to incision and gully formation through
 345 infiltration excess overland flow convergence, and (2) loss of topsoil horizons which contain
 346 most soil organic matter, nutrients and the seedbank.
 347 Overall, the development of the present day dissected and gullied landscape requires
 348 consideration from both a natural and social science perspective. Taken together,
 349 multidisciplinary evidence demonstrates that the extent of physical erosion is significant,
 350 reflected in stakeholders' awareness of the scale of the problem and efforts to manage the
 351 erosion. At the same time, these efforts can be limited by the cultural and social meaning of
 352 cattle in Maasai communities, reducing grass cover and increasing the pressure on the land.

353

354 Table 1: Community perceptions of challenges and opportunity

Community identified challenge	Barriers to change	Pathways to change
- Changing rainfall patterns (drought = loss of grass cover; extreme events damage and erode bare soil)	- Climate change impacts are outside of community control	- Recognition that environment may force change will catalyse adaptability - Learning from negative experiences (e.g. prior drought)
- Impact of livestock numbers and trackways on soil erodibility	- Cultural importance of cattle as a symbol of wealth and status - Economic role of herds as 'saving accounts' - Perception of high risk and challenges in growing crops	- Learning from others within and between communities - Education and training - NGO and government micro-finance schemes - Support for development of alternative livelihoods (local government)

	- Lack of skills, opportunities and knowledge to switch to alternative livelihoods	
- Shifts in land ownership and lack of common land management strategy	- No individual incentive to take responsibility for common land - Inefficient governance, lack of natural resource protection enforcement - Harmony in community sometimes valued over environmental protection	- Harnessing community cohesion and the power of group norms - Community ownership of problem through participatory action - Opportunities for discussion within and between communities - Collective decision-making
- Change of migration patterns focussing pressure on land	- Land designations (e.g. conservation areas, large scale commercial ownership) and social change outside of community control	- Government and NGO support -Community education/awareness - Development of alternative livelihoods

355

356 **3.2 The past: dynamics of social change and landscape response**

357

358 In addition to contemporary barriers to change related to cultural identity, available economic
359 resources, and individual risk perceptions, interviews (Table 1) also highlighted issues
360 related to local governance, community cohesion and cooperation which are perceived to
361 have been exacerbated in recent decades by population growth and urban expansion.
362 Recent decades have brought increased large-scale commercial land ownership to Tanzania
363 and other East African countries, which has disrupted traditional migration routes. This, in
364 turn, resulted in Maasai way of life becoming more sedentary, with the pressure on locally
365 available pastures increasing. Reduction in population movement led to communities'
366 transitioning to a private land ownership model and to a reduction in the (historically high)
367 importance of communal land. As a consequence of this recent transition, some participants
368 suggested that there is a lack of cooperation within communities in managing shared (as
369 opposed to privately owned) land resources. While some communities appeared strongly
370 cohesive, others found it difficult to secure cooperation in the face of a shared problem. The
371 interviewees also mentioned that past devolution of responsibility for managing natural
372 resources to communities may not always be effective. In particular, there seems to be a

1
2
3 373 lack of robust governance structures that would be well placed to protect local natural
4
5 374 resources (e.g., highland forests) from encroachment.
6
7 375
8
9 376 Within this framework, the development of the gullied landscape and changing balance of
10
11 377 sheet to gully erosion during this process was a key question with respect to stratigraphic
12
13 378 interrogation of downstream lake deposits. The 100 cm core recovered from the exposed
14
15 379 lake bed surface of Nanja lake (Figure 1d) can be used to illustrate a representative
16
17 380 catchment which drains the mid-slope Landikinya and Arkaria study areas that are heavily
18
19 381 impacted by sheet wash, rill and gully erosion. Our initial ambition was to identify a longer-
20
21 382 term baseline condition and permit lessons from past management change to be articulated
22
23 383 but fallout radionuclide data demonstrated that the sequence collected was relatively young
24
25 384 at ca 30 years (Supplementary Information 5). The full major and minor element
26
27 385 geochemistry database (SI5) was subject to Principal Components Analysis to draw out
28
29 386 geochemical evidence for shifts in sediment source[51], and hence catchment erosion
30
31 387 processes i.e. sheetwash *versus* gully. The two emergent components (Supporting
32
33 388 Information 6) represent a shift from internal lake processes to external catchment inputs (x-
34
35 389 axis, Figure 4), based on geochemical indicators of authigenic precipitation versus detrital
36
37 390 inputs, and a shift from subsoil (natural channel bank and gully erosion) to topsoil
38
39 391 (sheetwash erosion) (y-axis, Figure 4), based on geochemical markers of differential
40
41 392 weathering. Within this factor space, it appears that the stratigraphy records marked shifts in
42
43 393 erosion process over the past 30 years. From ca 1980, there is an increase in erosion
44
45 394 initiated by a phase of sheetwash erosion followed by rill and gully incision in the late 1990s
46
47 395 creating the present-day landscape. The geochemical record of the past 10 years underpins
48
49 396 observations of a heavily incised and well-connected drainage network fed and enhanced by
50
51 397 infiltration excess overland flow which is efficiently conveyed, with eroded sediment, to
52
53 398 downstream ecosystems.
54
55
56 399
57
58 400
59
60

1
2
3 401 [INSERT FIGURE 4]
4
5 402
6

7 403 Figure 4: Principal Components Analysis plot distilling the major and minor element geochemistry
8 evidence for shifts in dominant sediment sources to the lake sediment deposits over the past 30 years
9 404 (elemental weightings provided in SI 5).
10
11 405
12

13 406
14
15 407 Interpretations of environmental diagnostics were contextualized by historic remote sensing
16 408 images, which showed, in accord with anecdotal evidence from village leaders, that gully
17 409 erosion has become worse in this region over the past 15 years. Aerial photographs dating
18 410 from ~1960 show only localised erosion scars, even though forest extent was almost
19 411 unchanged from that at the present day. Overall, the evidence bases from environmental
20 412 diagnostics and social science collectively tell a story of increased landscape vulnerability to
21 413 soil erosion through loss of vegetation cover due to drought, grazing pressure and tree-cover
22 414 thinning (all underpinned by lack of cooperation around shared natural resources) with
23 415 development of a vicious circle of degradation as rill and gullies networks expand and
24 416 connectivity increases.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 417

38 418 **3.3 The future: interdisciplinary integration to underpin behaviour change**

39 419
40
41

42 420 As reflected by Allison et al [62], the strong desire for change and an openness for learning,
43 421 education and participatory decision-making, when coupled with adoption of a 'post-normal
44 422 science' viewpoint [63, 64] wherein human-environment systems are viewed and treated
45 423 holistically, should enhance the likelihood of sustainable long-term change [62, 64] and a
46 424 rebalancing between socio-economic and ecological resilience. Despite the constraints and
47 425 barriers described above, participants demonstrated significant openness to change in the
48 426 face of land degradation evidence. Many participants talked about the high value that they
49 427 placed on education, and actively welcomed the opportunity to develop their knowledge.
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59 428 There was also a shared understanding of the need for change to enable land conservation.
60

1
2
3 429 A number of pathways to change emerged from interview data (Table 1), including learning
4
5 430 from negative experiences (e.g., losing cattle during a drought), the importance of formal
6
7 431 education (e.g., children learning new ideas about sustainable practice at school and
8
9 432 transmitting these to their parents), inter-community exchange, and NGO-driven, as well as
10
11 433 government-led, education and support.
12
13
14 434
15
16 435 Stakeholders openness to change was explored and developed further during participatory
17
18 436 workshop exercises [65] that delivered a series of visions for change wherein priority steps
19
20 437 and potential timelines within community control were identified (Figure 5). This participatory
21
22 438 approach is built on the belief that “*science can catalyze social learning processes especially*
23
24 439 *where societal actors are integrated in research and knowledge production processes early*
25
26 440 *on*”[66]. The resultant vision model encapsulated community views on achieving a stepwise
27
28 441 shift from degraded land to a restored and productive landscape (Figure 5). The impacts of
29
30 442 interdisciplinary workshop participation on attitude and willingness to change were
31
32 443 measured. The analysis (repeated measures ANOVA comparing pre and post scores)
33
34 444 showed a statistically significant increase in participants’ post-workshop awareness and
35
36 445 understanding of the soil erosion problem ($F(25) = 11.21, p = .003, \eta^2_p = .31$), perceived
37
38 446 efficacy in dealing with it ($F(22) = 11.84, p = .002, \eta^2_p = .35$), and willingness to change their
39
40 447 practice ($F(24) = 8.51, p = .008, \eta^2_p = .26$), as compared to the same measures taken before
41
42 448 the workshop . Participants also reported that they learnt useful information during the
43
44 449 workshop ($Mean = 4.91$ (where 5 = ‘strongly agree’ on Likert Scale), $Standard Deviation =$
45
46 450 0.29), received good advice ($M = 4.89, SD = 0.32$), and would use this to start to address soil
47
48 451 erosion on their land ($M = 4.77, SD = 0.42$). A 1 year follow up demonstrated that in one
49
50 452 severely degraded area, livestock are now permanently excluded from the damaged area
51
52 453 until full recovery of vegetation cover is achieved. Elsewhere, a concerted effort is being
53
54 454 made to implement rotational landscape recovery enforced by village leaders. There was a
55
56 455 unanimous appetite amongst all community participants for land management change to be
57
58 456 supported by new local byelaws, co-designed by communities and the Local Authority,
59
60

1
2
3 457 exemplifying the benefit of multi-stakeholder participation [35] in a non-hierarchical setting.

4
5 458 The above shifts, in combination with the post-workshop evaluation, demonstrate that the

6
7 459 proposed approach has a strong potential for future impact on land management practices.

8
9 460

10
11 461 [INSERT FIGURE 5]

12
13 462

14
15 463 Figure 5: Outcome of a participatory visioning exercise to design a pathway via which local people

16
17 464 can transform degraded landscapes through community action.

18
19 465

20 466 **4. Conclusion**

21
22 467

23
24 468 Integrated evidence bases collected through this research revealed a complex picture of

25
26 469 path-dependent interlinked social, economic and environmental drivers of change, often with

27
28 470 cross-scalar connections, which amplify and reinforce the speed and impacts of those

29
30 471 changes. Historical data in the form of sedimentary archives and community anecdotal

31
32 472 evidence reveal an increase in the rate and extent of erosion processes and increased

33
34 473 landscape vulnerability through loss of vegetation cover (forest thinning and overgrazing)

35
36 474 leading to increased soil surface fragility which, coupled with the onset of intense climate

37
38 475 events, has resulted in decreasing ecological resilience. Stakeholder views imply that this is

39
40 476 compounded by weak economic and institutional resilience through a lack of alternative

41
42 477 livelihood opportunities and little enforcement of environmental protection legislation.

43
44 478 Significant barriers to sustainable change are rooted in cultural identity content and lack of

45
46 479 community cohesion and cooperation around shared resources [cf [41]]. Socio-economic

47
48 480 processes operating at regional and higher spatial levels (population growth, urban

49
50 481 expansion, and land tenure change) have constrained opportunities for change and locked

51
52 482 Maasai communities in the study area into narrow decision-making pathways which have led

53
54 483 to further exacerbation of environmental impacts, and further declining ecological resilience

55
56 484 [67, 68]. At the same time, opportunities for potential 'bounce back' were identified through

1
2
3 485 openness to new knowledge and awareness of the inevitability of change demonstrated by
4
5 486 the target communities. These were enhanced through exposure to evidence of soil erosion
6
7 487 process and causal factors on-the-ground and opportunities for developing cooperative
8
9 488 solutions during stakeholder workshop events.
10

11 489

12
13 490 [INSERT FIGURE 6]
14

15 491

16
17 492 Figure 6: An interdisciplinary framework to tackle the 'intractable' challenge of soil erosion and land
18
19 493 degradation in the Global South from identification of the environmental and social problems that
20
21 494 emerge in response to distal pressures (left) to tangible pathways to change (middle) and anticipated
22
23 495 societal benefits (right).
24

25 496

26
27 497 During major social transitions, the environment is at greater risk of degradation as socio-
28
29 498 economic processes overlay and amplify environmental ones. The early stage of such
30
31 499 transitions is the critical point at which to implement interventions, grounded in participatory
32
33 500 engagement, for environmental protection and sustainable resource management, especially
34
35 501 in the context of soil which is non-renewable in human timeframes. New concepts in
36
37 502 transformative science thinking [66] emphasise the importance of deepening our
38
39 503 understanding of on-going socio-ecological transformations and increasing societal capacity
40
41 504 for reflexivity. Holistic, interdisciplinary systems thinking is required to deliver outcomes that
42
43 505 empower local communities to break out of the vicious circle of land degradation.
44
45

46 506 Consequently, we propose here a framework (Figure 6) within which degradation problems
47
48 507 associated with multi-scalar social transitions (e.g. pastoralism to mixed agri-pastoralism,
49
50 508 rain-fed to irrigated agriculture, population expansion and response to climate variability)
51
52 509 occurring across East Africa may be tackled.
53

54 510

55
56
57 511 In effect, guided by specialist knowledge, the approach enables practitioners to access new
58
59 512 knowledge, develop problem understanding and new behavioural norms, and become local
60

1
2
3 513 policy-makers [cf [69]]. These processes can lead to sustainable change in land management
4
5 514 practice, enabling landscape recovery and increased community well-being. This approach
6
7 515 is grounded in a close interaction between natural and social science bases, closing the
8
9 516 *interdisciplinary* gap. Environmental diagnostics evidence for a rapid onset of soil erosion
10
11 517 supports local community narratives of recent landscape change and contributes to
12
13 518 stakeholder understanding of the problem; quantifying baseline conditions beyond current
14
15 519 social memory further evaluates the impact of historic societal transitions. It also actively
16
17 520 involves stakeholders in the process of developing solutions, thus closing the
18
19 521 *implementation* gap. Immediate impacts of this approach being implemented in the case
20
21 522 study area are manifest in locally-enforced restriction and exclusion of cattle from severely
22
23 523 damaged land around village meeting areas to allow recovery and stabilisation, spontaneous
24
25 524 and strategic planting in gullies to create sediment traps, and establishment of firm
26
27 525 stakeholder-policy maker channels for local byelaw co-design. Future research steps require
28
29 526 quantitative evidence for natural and social processes identified as barriers to change,
30
31 527 triangulating this knowledge through stakeholder engagement, and co-designing an
32
33 528 intervention strategy targeting key barriers to sustainable land management practice. By
34
35 529 doing this, we aspire to tackle successfully the soil erosion challenge and create change that
36
37 530 is both environmentally sustainable and community-driven.
38
39
40
41
42

531

532 **Acknowledgements**

43
44
45 533 The authors gratefully acknowledge funding from the Research Councils UK [now UK
46
47 534 Research and Innovation] *Global Challenges Research Fund* (GCRF) grant NE/P015603/1,
48
49 535 European Commission H2020-MSCA-RISE-2014 IMIXSED project (ID 644320) and UK
50
51 536 Natural Environment Research Council Grant NE/R009309/1 and the support of Joint UN
52
53 537 FAO/IAEA Coordinated Research Programme CRP D1.50.17. The research team is
54
55 538 indebted to the local village leaders and people at the study sites and Monduli District
56
57 539 Council for their participation and enthusiasm for the programme; Prof. Seaton Baxter for his
58
59 540 input to Design Thinking development; Prof. Iain Stewart for constructive discussion of
60

1
2
3 541 interdisciplinary working; Dr Michael Watts (BGS), Dr Tanya O'Garra (Middlesex University),
4
5 542 Dr Matthew Davies (UCL), and Dr Petra Schmitter and Dr Alan Nichol (International Water
6
7 543 Management Institute) for contributions to Figure 6 through wider discussions of future
8
9 544 research directions; Dr Alex Taylor, Prof. Geoffrey E. Millward and Richard Hartley for kind
10
11 545 assistance in the University of Plymouth Consolidated Radioisotope Facility; Carey Marks
12
13 546 Photography, Devon, UK, for photojournalism.
14
15
16 547

17 18 548 **References**

- 19
20 549 1. FAO (2015) Agroecology to reverse soil degradation and achieve food security. Rome
- 21
22 550 2. UNCCD (2017) The Global Land Outlook. Bonn, Germany
- 23
24 551 3. Norris PE, O'Rourke M, Mayer AS, Halvorsen KE (2016) Managing the wicked
25
26 552 problem of transdisciplinary team formation in socio-ecological systems. *Landsc*
27
28 553 *Urban Plan* 154:115–122
- 29
30 554 4. Bouma J, McBratney A (2013) Framing soils as an actor when dealing with wicked
31
32 555 environmental problems. *Geoderma* 200–201:130–139
- 33
34 556 5. Buchanan R (1992) Wicked problems in design thinking. *Des Issues* 8:5–21
- 35
36 557 6. Pimentel D (2006) Soil Erosion: A Food and Environmental Threat. *Environ Dev*
37
38 558 *Sustain* 8:119–137
- 39
40 559 7. Kondolf GM, Gao Y, Annandale GW, et al (2014) Sustainable sediment management
41
42 560 in reservoirs and regulated rivers: Experiences from five continents. *Earth's Futur*
43
44 561 *2*:256–280
- 45
46 562 8. Devi R, Tesfahune E, Legesse W, Deboch B, Beyene A (2008) Assessment of
47
48 563 siltation and nutrient enrichment of Gilgel Gibe dam, Southwest Ethiopia. *Bioresour*
49
50 564 *Technol* 99:975–979
- 51
52 565 9. Cook HF (2017) The Protection and Conservation of Water Resources. doi:
53
54 566 10.1002/9781119334316
- 55
56 567 10. Blaikie PM, Brookfield HC (1987) Land degradation and society. Methuen
- 57
58 568 11. UNCCD (2017) The Global Land Outlook. doi: ISBN: 978-92-95110-48-9
- 59
60

- 1
2
3 569 12. Nicol A (2017) Collective action and political dynamics: Nile cooperation and
4
5 570 Ethiopia's Grand Renaissance Dam. In: Suhardiman D, Nicol A, Mapedza E (eds)
6
7 571 Water Gov. Collect. action multi-scale challenges. Routledge - Earthscan., Oxon, UK,
8
9 572 pp 21–33
10
11 573 13. Davies MIJ (2015) Economic Specialisation, Resource Variability, and the Origins of
12
13 574 Intensive Agriculture in Eastern Africa. *Rural Landscapes Soc Environ Hist*. doi:
14
15 575 10.16993/rl.af
16
17 576 14. Tiffen M (1995) Population Density, Economic Growth and Societies in Transition:
18
19 577 Boserup Reconsidered in a Kenyan Case-study. *Dev Change* 26:31–66
20
21 578 15. Tiffen M, Mortimore M, Gichuki F (1994) More people, less erosion : environmental
22
23 579 recovery in Kenya. J. Wiley
24
25 580 16. Boserup E (1993) The conditions of agricultural growth : the economics of agrarian
26
27 581 change under population pressure. Earthscan Publications
28
29 582 17. Binswanger-Mkhize HP, Savastano S (2017) Agricultural intensification: The status in
30
31 583 six African countries. *Food Policy* 67:26–40
32
33 584 18. Ananda J, Herath G (2003) Soil erosion in developing countries: a socio-economic
34
35 585 appraisal. *J Environ Manage* 68:343–353
36
37 586 19. Wilson GA (2014) Community resilience: path dependency, lock-in effects and
38
39 587 transitional ruptures. *J Environ Plan Manag* 57:1–26
40
41 588 20. Steffen W, Broadgate W, Deutsch L, Gaffney O, Ludwig C (2015) The trajectory of the
42
43 589 Anthropocene: The Great Acceleration. *Anthr Rev* 2:81–98
44
45 590 21. Brown K (2015) Resilience, development and global change. Routledge
46
47 591 22. Stocking MA, Murnaghan N (2001) Handbook for the field assessment of land
48
49 592 degradation. Earthscan., London
50
51 593 23. Boardman J, Poesen J, Evans R (2003) Socio-economic factors in soil erosion and
52
53 594 conservation. *Environ Sci {&} Policy* 6:1–6
54
55 595 24. García-Ruiz JM, Beguería S, Lana-Renault N, Nadal-Romero E, Cerdà A (2017)
56
57 Ongoing and Emerging Questions in Water Erosion Studies. *L Degrad Dev* 28:5–21
58
59
60

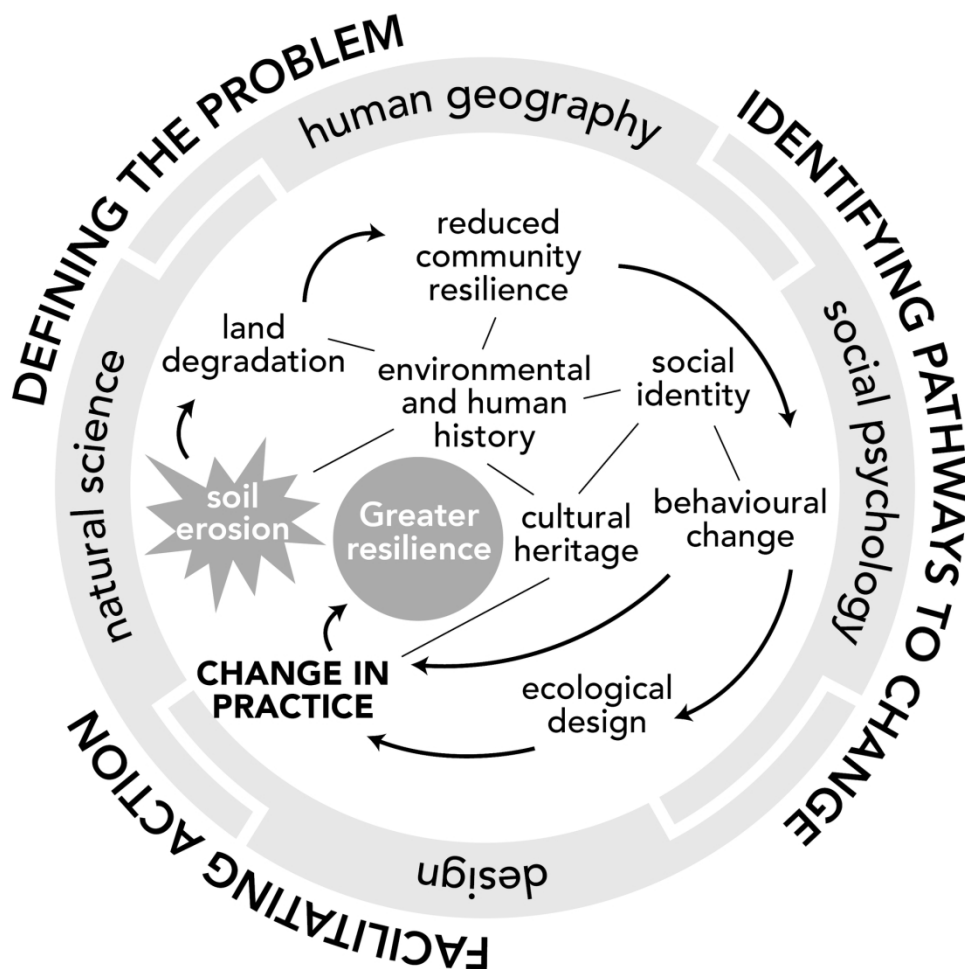
- 1
2
3 597 25. Adger WN (2000) Social and ecological resilience: are they related? *Prog Hum Geogr*
4
5 598 24:347–364
6
7 599 26. Boardman J, Favis-Mortlock DT (1993) Climate change and soil erosion in Britain.
8
9 600 *Geogr J* 159:179–183
10
11 601 27. Wilson GA (2014) Community resilience: path dependency, lock-in effects and
12
13 602 transitional ruptures. *J Environ Plan Manag* 57:1–26
14
15 603 28. Folke C (2006) Resilience: The emergence of a perspective for social–ecological
16
17 604 systems analyses. *Glob Environ Chang* 16:253–267
18
19 605 29. Department for International Development (2011) *Defining Disaster Resilience: A*
20
21 606 *DFID Approach Paper*. London
22
23 607 30. Bola Bosongo G, Ndembo Longo J, Goldin J, Lukanda Muamba V (2014)
24
25 608 Socioeconomic impacts of floods and droughts in the middle Zambezi river basin. *Int J*
26
27 609 *Clim Chang Strateg Manag* 6:131–144
28
29 610 31. Department for International Development (UK) (2012) *Save the Children: Floodplain*
30
31 611 *Management (Zambezi)*. [https://devtracker.dfid.gov.uk/projects/GB-1-](https://devtracker.dfid.gov.uk/projects/GB-1-200273/documents)
32
33 612 [200273/documents](https://devtracker.dfid.gov.uk/projects/GB-1-200273/documents). Accessed 15 Jun 2018
34
35 613 32. Montgomery DR (2007) Soil erosion and agricultural sustainability. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*
36
37 614 *U S A* 104:13268–13272
38
39 615 33. Brown AG, Walsh K (2017) Societal stability and environmental change: Examining
40
41 616 the archaeology-soil erosion paradox. *Geoarchaeology* 32:23–35
42
43 617 34. Borrelli P, Robinson DA, Fleischer LR, et al (2017) An assessment of the global
44
45 618 impact of 21st century land use change on soil erosion. *Nat Commun* 8:2013
46
47 619 35. de Vente J, Reed MS, Stringer LC, Valente S, Newig J (2016) How does the context
48
49 620 and design of participatory decision making processes affect their outcomes?
50
51 621 Evidence from sustainable land management in global drylands. *Ecol Soc* 21:art24
52
53 622 36. Vanmaercke M, Poesen J, Broeckx J, Nyssen J (2014) Sediment yield in Africa.
54
55 623 *Earth-Science Rev* 136:350–368
56
57 624 37. Behera SK, Luo J-J, Masson S, Delecluse P, Gualdi S, Navarra A, Yamagata T

- 1
2
3 625 (2005) Paramount Impact of the Indian Ocean Dipole on the East African Short Rains:
4
5 626 A CGCM Study. *J Clim* 18:4514–4530
6
7 627 38. Ogutu JO, Piepho H-P, Dublin HT, Bhola N, Reid RS (2008) El Niño-Southern
8
9 628 Oscillation, rainfall, temperature and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
10
11 629 fluctuations in the Mara-Serengeti ecosystem. *Afr J Ecol* 46:132–143
12
13 630 39. Capotondi A, Sardeshmukh PD (2017) Is El Niño *really* changing? *Geophys Res Lett*
14
15 631 44:8548–8556
16
17 632 40. Buunk B, Van Vugt M (2007) Applying social psychology : from problems to solutions.
18
19 633 41. Heath SC, Rabinovich A, Barreto M (2017) Putting identity into the community:
20
21 634 Exploring the social dynamics of urban regeneration. *Eur J Soc Psychol* 47:855–866
22
23 635 42. Turner JC (1982) Towards a cognitive redefinition of the social group. In: Tajfel H (ed)
24
25 636 Soc. identity Intergr. relations. Cambridge University Press., Cambridge, pp 15–40
26
27 637 43. Rabinovich A, Morton TA (2011) Subgroup identities as a key to cooperation within
28
29 638 large social groups. *Br J Soc Psychol* 50:36–51
30
31 639 44. Cialdini RB, Kallgren CA, Reno RR (1991) A Focus Theory of Normative Conduct: A
32
33 640 Theoretical Refinement and Reevaluation of the Role of Norms in Human Behavior.
34
35 641 *Adv Exp Soc Psychol* 24:201–234
36
37 642 45. Pretty JN (1995) Participatory learning for sustainable agriculture. *World Dev*
38
39 643 23:1247–1263
40
41 644 46. Sanders EB-N, Stappers PJ (2008) Co-creation and the new landscapes of design.
42
43 645 *CoDesign* 4:5–18
44
45 646 47. Reed MS, Vella S, Challies E, et al (2017) A theory of participation: What makes
46
47 647 stakeholder and public engagement in environmental management work? *Restor Ecol*
48
49 648 1–11
50
51 649 48. Ternan JL, Williams AG, Elmes A, Hartley R (1996) Aggregate stability of soils in
52
53 650 central Spain and the role of land management. *Earth Surf Process Landforms*
54
55 651 21:181–193
56
57 652 49. Robichaud PR, Lewis SA, Ashmun LE (2008) New procedure for sampling infiltration
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 653 to assess post-fire soil water repellency. Res Note RMRS-RN-33 Fort Collins, CO US
4
5 654 Dep Agric For Serv Rocky Mt Res Station 14 p. doi: 10.2737/RMRS-RN-33
6
7 655 50. Appleby PG (2001) Chronostratigraphic techniques in recent sediments. In: W M Last
8
9 656 & J P Smol (ed) Track. Environ. Chang. Using Lake Sediments Vol. 1 Basin Anal.
10
11 657 Coring, Chronol. Tech., 1st ed. Kluwer Academic, pp 171–203
12
13 658 51. Owens PN, Blake WH, Gaspar L, Gateuille D, Koiter AJ, Lobb DA, Petticrew EL,
14
15 659 Reiffarth DG, Smith HG, Woodward JC (2016) Fingerprinting and tracing the sources
16
17 660 of soils and sediments: Earth and ocean science, geoarchaeological, forensic, and
18
19 661 human health applications. Earth-Science Rev 162:1–23
20
21 662 52. Braun V, Clarke V (2006) Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qual Res Psychol
22
23 663 3:77–101
24
25 664 53. Morin J, Benyamini Y (1977) Rainfall infiltration into bare soils. Water Resour Res
26
27 665 13:813–817
28
29 666 54. Perrolf K, Sandstrom K (1995) Correlating Landscape Characteristics and Infiltration.
30
31 667 A Study of Surface Sealing and Subsoil Conditions in Semi-Arid Botswana and
32
33 668 Tanzania. Geogr Ann Ser A, Phys Geogr 77:119
34
35 669 55. Nishigaki T, Sugihara S, Kilasara M, Funakawa S (2017) Surface Runoff Generation
36
37 670 and Soil Loss Under Different Soil and Rainfall Properties in The Uluguru Mountains,
38
39 671 Tanzania. L Degrad Dev 28:283–293
40
41 672 56. Abegaz A, Winowiecki LA, Vågen T-G, Langan S, Smith JU (2016) Spatial and
42
43 673 temporal dynamics of soil organic carbon in landscapes of the upper Blue Nile Basin
44
45 674 of the Ethiopian Highlands. Agric Ecosyst Environ 218:190–208
46
47 675 57. Wynants M, Solomon H, Ndakidemi P, Blake WH Pinpointing areas of increased soil
48
49 676 erosion risk following land cover change in the Lake Manyara catchment, Tanzania.
50
51 677 Int. J. Appl. Earth Obs. Geoinf. in review:
52
53 678 58. Warren A (1995) Changing Understandings of African Pastoralism and the Nature of
54
55 679 Environmental Paradigms. Trans Inst Br Geogr 20:193
56
57 680 59. Ionita I, Fullen MA, Zgłobicki W, Poesen J (2015) Gully erosion as a natural and

- 1
2
3 681 human-induced hazard. *Nat Hazards* 79:1–5
4
5 682 60. Bracken LJ, Wainwright J, Ali GA, Tetzlaff D, Smith MW, Reaney SM, Roy AG (2013)
6
7 683 Concepts of hydrological connectivity: Research approaches, pathways and future
8
9 684 agendas. *Earth-Science Rev* 119:17–34
10
11 685 61. Valentin C, Poesen J, Li Y (2005) Gully erosion: Impacts, factors and control.
12
13 686 *CATENA* 63:132–153
14
15 687 62. Allison AEF, Dickson ME, Fisher KT, Thrush SF (2018) Dilemmas of modelling and
16
17 688 decision-making in environmental research. *Environ Model Softw* 99:147–155
18
19 689 63. Funtowicz SO, Ravetz JR (1993) SCIENCE FOR THE POST-NORMAL AGE. *Futures*
20
21 690 25:739–755
22
23 691 64. Kønig N, Børsen T, Emmeche C (2017) The ethos of post-normal science. *Futures*
24
25 692 91:12–24
26
27 693 65. Cuhls KE (2017) Mental time travel in foresight processes—Cases and applications.
28
29 694 *Futures* 86:118–135
30
31 695 66. Schneidewind, Uwe, Singer-Brodowski, Mandy, Augenstein, Karoline, Stelzer,
32
33 696 Franziska (2016) Pledge for a transformative science: A conceptual framework.
34
35 697 Wuppertal Pap.
36
37 698 67. Ferrara A, Kelly C, Wilson GA, Nolè A, Mancino G, Bajocco S, Salvati L (2016)
38
39 699 Shaping the role of “fast” and “slow” drivers of change in forest-shrubland socio-
40
41 700 ecological systems. *J Environ Manage* 169:155–166
42
43 701 68. Kelly C, Ferrara A, Wilson GA, Ripullone F, Nolè A, Harmer N, Salvati L (2015)
44
45 702 Community resilience and land degradation in forest and shrubland socio-ecological
46
47 703 systems: Evidence from Gorgoglione, Basilicata, Italy. *Land use policy* 46:11–20
48
49 704 69. Ostrom E (2015) *Governing the commons : the evolution of institutions for collective*
50
51 705 *action*. Cambridge University Press
52
53 706 70. UN FAO (2014) *The State of Food and Agriculture Innovation in family farming*. Rome
54
55 707 71. Karger DN, Conrad O, Böhner J, Kawohl T, Kreft H, Soria-Auza RW, Zimmermann
56
57 708 NE, Linder HP, Kessler M (2017) *Climatologies at high resolution for the earth’s land*

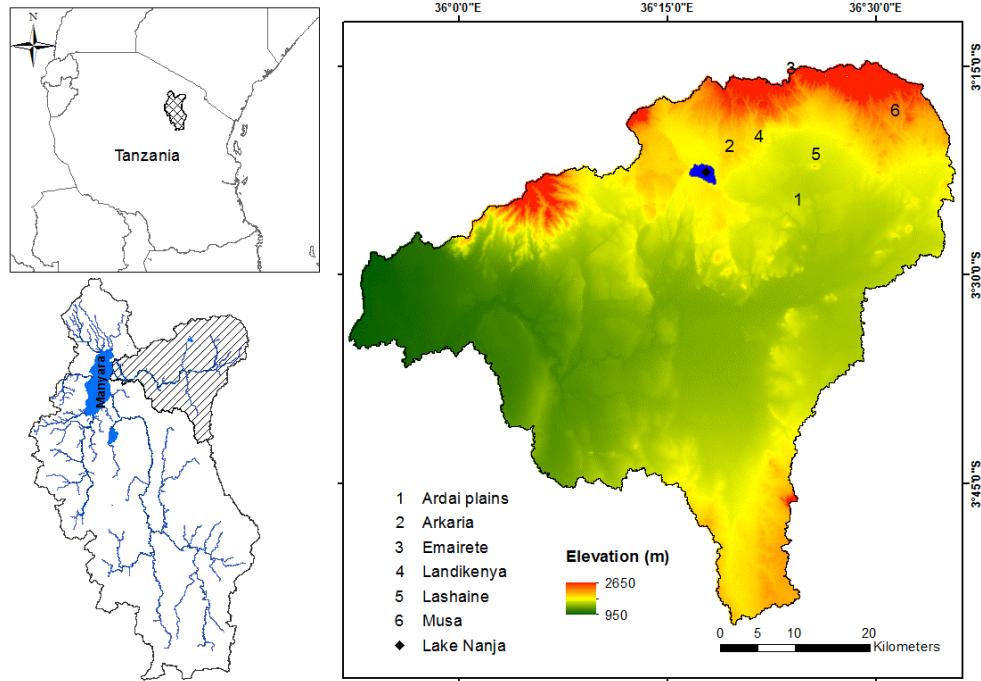
- 1
2
3 709 surface areas. *Sci Data* 4:170122
4
5 710 72. Nachtergaele F, Van Velthuizen H, Verelst L, et al (2009) Harmonized World Soil
6
7 711 Database.
8
9 712 73. White AF, Brantley SL (1995) Chemical weathering rates of silicate minerals.
10
11 713 Mineralogical Society of America
12
13 714 74. Dawson BSW, Fergusson JE, Campbell AS, Cutler EJB (1991) Depletion of first-row
14
15 715 transition metals in a chronosequence of soils in the reefton area of New Zealand.
16
17 716 *Geoderma* 48:271–296
18
19 717 75. Hay RL, Kyser TK (2001) Chemical sedimentology and paleoenvironmental history of
20
21 718 Lake Olduvai, a Pliocene lake in northern Tanzania. *Geol Soc Am Bull* 113:1505–
22
23 719 1521
24
25
26 720
27
28 721
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



87x87mm (600 x 600 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



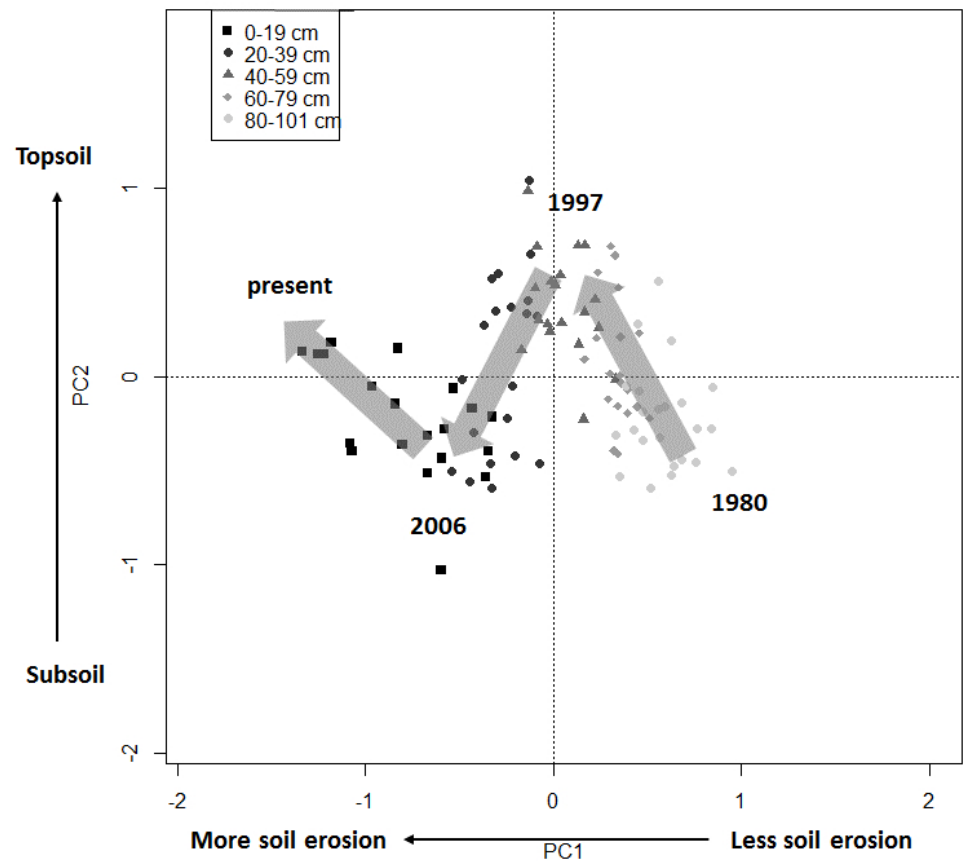
395x280mm (72 x 72 DPI)



311x196mm (72 x 72 DPI)

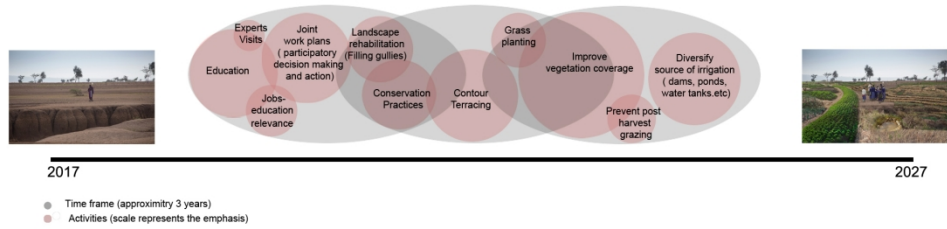
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



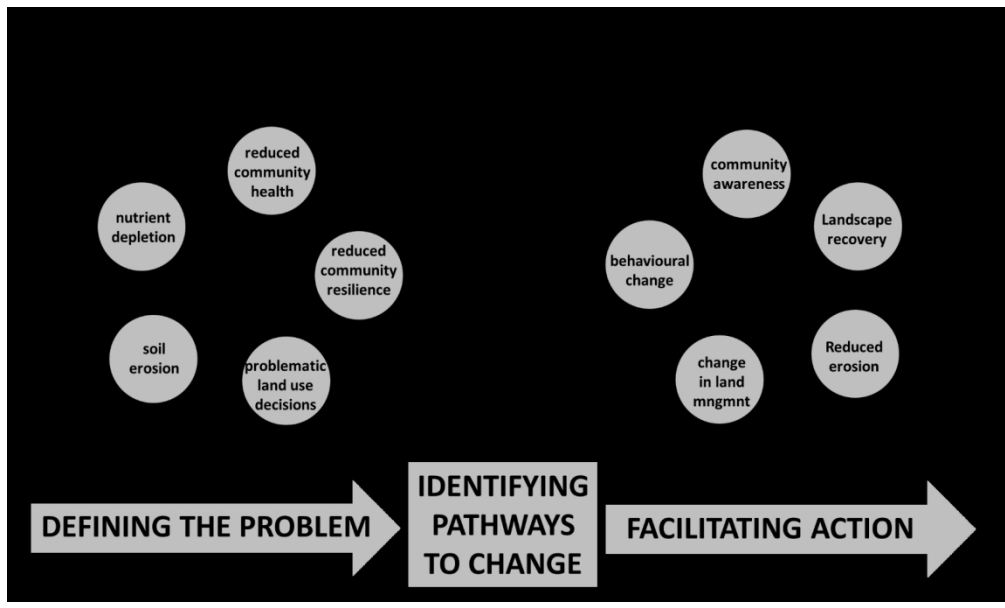
273x249mm (72 x 72 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



289x209mm (180 x 180 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



192x114mm (220 x 220 DPI)