1	PRISMS Drylands: synthesising multiple disciplines, themes, and management
2	practices across Earth's drylands.
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14	Drylands are defined as areas where the ratio of precipitation to potential evapotranspiration
15	(Aridity Index) is 0.65 or less. Drylands are critically important globally because they
16	currently support about 38% of the global human population and occupy about 45% of
17	Earth's terrestrial land surface (FAO 2021). Ecosystem degradation currently occurs in about
18	15% of drylands and affects about 250 million people, mostly in the Global South. Many of
19	these people are tied to pastoralism, so their wellbeing is closely linked to forage production.
20	Drylands are geographically important and situated in particularly politically unstable parts of
21	the world. The people are often marginalised, among the poorest, closely associated with
22	natural and semi-natural systems, heavily dependent on primary production for their
23	livelihoods, and are therefore susceptible to the vagaries of climate and global conflicts.
24	Many drylands are also hotspots of human conflict, and this presents serious social and
25	environmental challenges for governments. The majority of global studies based on the
26	Aridity Index, a proxy for drylands, predict an increase in dryland extent by the end of the
27	century (e.g., Polade et al. 2014), largely due to increased global warming (Feng et al.

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(http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/), which permits non-commercial reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is unaltered and is properly cited. The written permission of Cambridge University Press must be obtained for commercial re-use or in order to create a derivative work. 28 2022). In some areas, however, the extent of drylands may decline due to predicted higher29 rainfall (Huang et al., 2016).

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31 Drylands face a number of critical environmental, social and political challenges over the 32 next century as we move to a hotter, drier world. Foremost among these challenges is 33 climate change and climate variability. The IPPC predicts a greater frequency of extreme 34 events (Foster et al. 2021), and an expansion in the area covered by drylands (Feng and Fu 35 2013, Huang et al. 2016), but this will likely lead to reductions in the extent of temperate 36 drylands (Schlaepfer et al. 2017). Attendant issues associated with greater climate variability 37 are reductions in primary production, reduced crop yields, and lower livestock production, 38 resulting in potential threats to human livelihoods and pastoral production (Gheradi and Sala 39 2015, Ndlovu et al. 2022).

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41 Land degradation and in extreme cases, desertification (aridification) caused by changing 42 climates and exacerbated by human-induced land use change, pose greater challenges to 43 drylands than other biomes. Recent studies indicate that 6% of dryland areas, mostly in 44 western Asia and South America, have undergone some type of degradation since 1982 45 (Burrell et al. 2020). An additional 20% of dryland areas risk future degradation due to 46 unsustainable land use practices and human-induced climate change (Burrell et al. 2020). 47 Thus, land degradation has not only direct effects, but there will likely be legacy effects on 48 ecosystem production (Bunting et al. 2017) and soil-geomorphic processes (Monger et al. 49 2015) that impact peoples and their ability to produce food and survive in dryland areas. 50 51 Water and food insecurity are critical challenges of drylands under regimes of spatially and

52 temporally variable precipitation (Feng and Fu 2013). Water insecurity is exacerbated by

53 poor water management (Stroosnijder et al. 2012, Wang et al. 2022), such as

54 overexploitation of water resources, unsustainable irrigation practices, and changes in water

55 supply delivery mechanisms and structures (Piemontese et al. 2024). Despite this,

56 significant progress has been made in developing land management practices in drylands

57 that improve water use efficiency. These include more efficient storage, the use of

58 wastewater, improved water harvesting techniques for smallholders (Oweis and Hachum

59 2006) and improvements in precision agriculture (Arrúe et al. 2019).

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61 Malnutrition and food insecurity are pervasive challenges in drylands where smallholders

62 produce almost half of the world's food from rainfed crops and pastures (Squires and Gaur

63 2020). Yet, food production policies have failed many smallholders, and supply is largely

controlled by large corporations and agribusiness (Martinez-Valderrama et al. 2020). Food 64 65 production in drylands will need to double to feed a growing population by 2050 (Dar and 66 Laxmipathi Gowda 2013). Food shortage will lead to price instability, which is exacerbated 67 by a declining rural workforce (Nel and Hill 2008), despite accelerating population growth in 68 drylands (Kniveton et al. 2012, Spinoli et al. 2021). The challenges faced by policy makers 69 and land administrators should not be underestimated (Feng and Squires, this volume). In 70 Zimbabwe, for example, about 90% of the population are dependent on rain-fed agriculture 71 (Unganai and Murwira 2010). Malnutrition, and lack of access to clean water and sanitation 72 exacerbate the cycles of poverty and vulnerability in dryland communities.

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74 New technologies will enhance the ability of pastoralists, ranchers, and farmers to improve 75 their management skills and their economic returns. For example, the Land Potential 76 Knowledge System (Herrick et al. 2016) is a mobile phone-based system designed to help 77 managers adopt sustainable land management practices across the world. Mobile phone 78 connectivity and GPS technologies are available almost everywhere. In Burkina Faso, Fulbe 79 pastoralists use mobile phone technology to access weather and forage status information 80 (Rasmussen et al. 2015). Phone communication allows a more efficient selection of potential 81 grazing land and can reduce the risk of encroaching on the grazing lands of neighbouring 82 pastoralists (Asaker and Smuker 2016). Mobile phones allow improved demographic 83 surveillance of pastoral communities, which is critical for effective vaccination programs 84 (Brinkel et al. 2014), and they provide useful information on livestock health and migration 85 patterns (Jean-Richard et al. 2014). These and other technologies such as the use of low-86 cost drones to deliver vaccines to isolated locations (Griffith et al. 2023) can improve the 87 well-being of pastoralists and even reverse migration trends towards large cities. 88 89 The demands placed on drylands are increasing rapidly, and despite an uncertain future,

90 there are substantial opportunities and challenges (Coppock et al. 2017). The global 91 transition to clean energy production often uses the 'wasteland' narrative to view drylands as 92 areas to locate large-scale solar and wind farms for energy production, yet this may threaten potential pastoral livelihoods. Any changes that these developments bring to drylands will 93 94 not be distributed evenly, with a range of opportunities that will vary among regions. New 95 energy initiatives in drylands can potentially bring employment to dryland regions but may 96 disrupt local communities. The outcome of these changes will depend on society's ability to 97 cope with these changes.

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99 The future of drylands. There are reasons to worry about global drylands but there is hope 100 through novel understanding and new technologies. Prisms Drylands aims to play a central 101 role in supporting the understanding that will reverse negative trends and sustain the cultural 102 and biological diversity of drylands. The multidisciplinary nature of drylands, the nuances of 103 environmental, social, political, and structural complexity, and the huge global extent of 104 drylands means that there is increasing need for a truly interdisciplinary outlet for research, 105 management and sociology of drylands; topics that are not well serviced by current scientific 106 journals. Cambridge Prisms: Drylands aims to be a forum for rapid publication of cross-107 disciplinary science relating to the understanding and social challenges of dryland 108 ecosystems. The future of drylands is full of opportunities in terms of changing people's 109 perception, new technologies and new demands for drylands. 110 111 We are excited about a new scientific journal dedicated to the word's drylands. We welcome 112 manuscripts based on observational, theoretical or experimental studies of terrestrial, marine 113 or freshwater systems, provided they have a dryland focus. Emphasis will be placed on new 114 contributions to theory, bodies of empirical knowledge, or the practice of drylands 115 management that have potential regional or global impact. Manuscripts that integrate 116 fundamental questions associated with how drylands function, their sustainable 117 development, and how they relate to social-human systems are particularly welcome. 118 Drylands also welcomes original open-access reviews, perspectives, editorials and 119 comments. 120 121 References 122 123 Asaka, J. O., & Smucker, T. A. (2016). Assessing the role of mobile phone communication in 124 drought-related mobility patterns of Samburu pastoralists. Journal of Arid Environments, 128, 125 12-16. 126 127 Brinkel, J., Krämer, A., Krumkamp, R., May, J., & Fobil, J. (2014). Mobile phone-based 128 mHealth approaches for public health surveillance in sub-Saharan Africa: A systematic 129 review. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 11, 11559-130 11582. 131 132 Bunting, EL, Munson, SM, Villarreal, M.L. (2017). Climate legacy and lag effects on dryland 133 plant communities in the southwestern U.S. Ecological Indicators 74, 216-229,

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