SUMMARY REPORT

Spatial analysis for investment targeting: PILOT TOOL UNDER DEVELOPMENT



Spatial analysis for investment targeting: Pilot tool under development



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The Technical Consortium for Building Resilience in the Horn of Africa is a project of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) hosted at the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI).

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The nature of resilience

The term 'resilience' has gained significant traction within the agencies, governments, researchers and practitioners working across the development and humanitarian realm. Resilience is seen as a paradigm shift, away from short-term thinking and solutions to address vulnerability to hazards such as drought, toward interventions that, over a longer time, can enhance development and build capacity to deal with dynamic environmental and social challenges and enduring shocks and stresses. In response to this paradigm shift and following the humanitarian disaster caused by the 2010-2011 drought crisis in the Horn of Africa, the Summit of the Heads of State and Government convened in Nairobi in September 2011 to launch "Ending Drought Emergencies". And, in the spirit of a new-found sense of optimism, the member states of the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) committed to a program of work for which a significant outcome would be the enhanced resilience of populations residing in the drylands of the Horn of Africa. This initiative, after decades of the affected countries being overwhelmed by emergencies, manifested their commitment to end drought emergencies and vulnerabilities from the IGAD region once and for all

Most definitions of resilience in development scenarios hinge upon the response of social, ecological and economic systems to shocks and stressors. It is, however, extremely difficult to quantify this response, as it is impossible to observe the full range of possible disturbances, hence assessments of system resilience normally fall short of providing comprehensive evaluations. In addition, as building resilience is rarely a linear, cumulative process that increases as each system component improves, the current linear and causal socio-ecological models used to measure resilience are inadequate to understand these micro, meso and

macro interactions. For example, an overall loss of resilience may be caused by an increase in one variable producing a drastic reduction in another. Furthermore, resilience can be viewed over varying spatial scales such as individuals, households and communities, and over varying temporal scales such as seasons, annually or across a program lifespan, from immediate to long-term. This variance may make it necessary to continually update panel datasets.

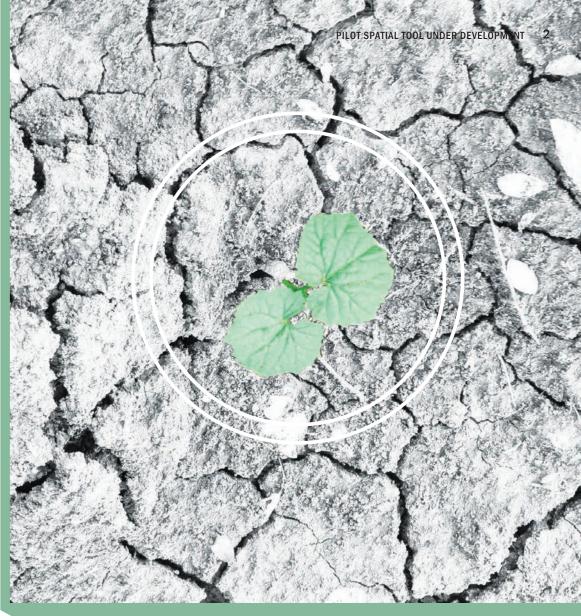
The Resilience Measurement Technical Working Group¹ defines resilience as follows:

"Resilience is the capacity that ensures adverse stressors and shocks do not have long-lasting adverse development consequences."

One of the key features of this definition is that resilience is understood and measured according to the instrumental effects it exerts on targeted development outcomes that may be affected by stressors and shocks. Defining resilience as a capacity means that resilience is comprised of a set of *ex ante* attributes and supports that should positively shift the likelihood function that describes the relationship between shocks and development outcomes, such as food security².

¹WFP. (2013). *Resilience Measurement Principles: Toward an agenda for measurement design*. Resilience Measurement Technical Working Group. Technical Series No. 1. FSIN. Rome.

² Barrett, C. & Constas, M. (2013). *Resilience to avoid and escape chronic poverty: Theoretical Foundations and Measurement Principles.* Paper presented at IFPRI, August 2013.



Resilience is seen as a paradigm shift, away from shortterm thinking and solutions toward interventions that, over a longer time, can enhance development and build capacity to deal with dynamic environmental and social challenges.

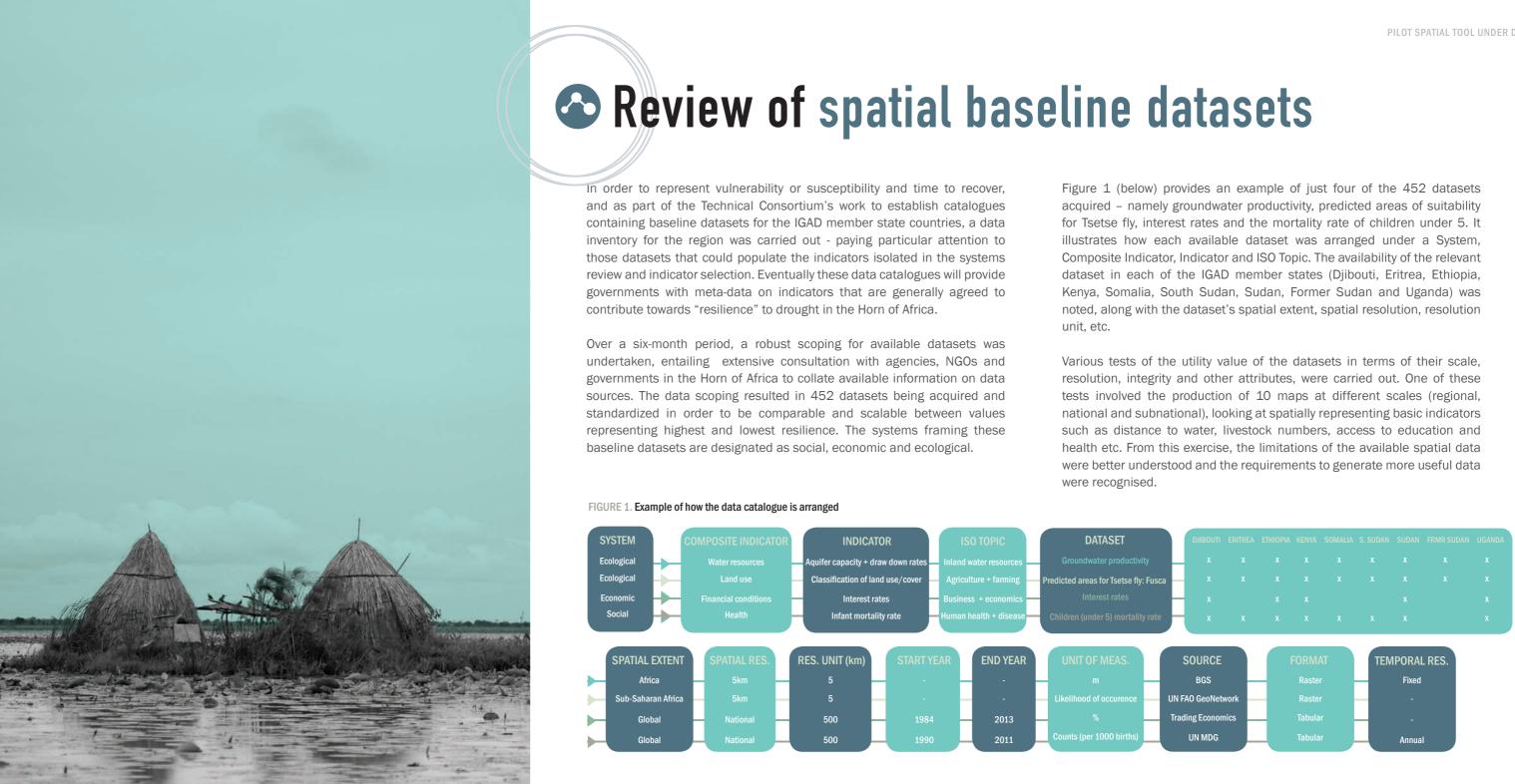


O Purpose

In order to better measure resilience, and to better understand and target investment that will enhance resilience, the Technical Consortium is developing a pilot spatial tool. The purpose of this resilience modeling tool is to assist IGAD member states in the Horn of Africa in identifying areas of high and low resilience to known hazards, initially focusing on resilience to drought specifically. This identification of relative levels of resilience geographically will provide an opportunity for better targeting of investment projects proposed in the drylands investment plans for the respective countries.

For the purposes of this model, resilience is understood as the ability of a population to recover from a shock. This ability is based on a calculation of the initial vulnerability at the time of the shock combined with the time it takes to recover from the impact of a hazard. This gives us a representation of overall resilience with low values indicating low resilience.

The tool overlays multiple data layers indicating linkages and dynamic interactions between key indicators in systems affecting resilience. The result is a mapped output depicting a region's relative resilience, derived from weighted indicators from three key systems: economic, social and ecological. The pilot development of the spatial tool will be trialed with various drought and environmental planning agencies in the IGAD member states to understand its utility in better enabling the targeting of investments and projects for the most impact in building resilience. Ultimately, it will allow governments in the Horn to host a sector-specific investment platform for improved planning and resource allocation.





It is hoped that the model will prove useful as an early warning system for livestock mortalities in arid parts of Africa.

Simulating livestock population dynamics

As part of the development of decision support analysis tools to better equip governments for rational and inclusive decision-making, and to avert future livestock population crashes in the Horn of Africa, a model was developed to simulate livestock population dynamics in the region with which to inform food security early warning systems. As livestock population dynamics are not solely influenced by drought, the model uses the balance/ imbalance between livestock numbers and the available rangeland forage in arid and semi arid lands (ASALs) in conjunction with rainfall patterns, to capture livestock populations for the region. The model also provides an understanding of the lower trophic interaction between herbivores (livestock) and their vegetation food base, in gauging future livestock populations.

Starting livestock populations were estimated from calculations of longterm carrying capacity based on rainfall, plant productivity and soil quality. Rainfall anomalies (difference from the long-term mean annual rainfall) were calculated on a cell-by-cell basis using rainfall estimate data from TAMSAT, available at 5km² resolution every 10 days for the whole of Africa from 1988 to present. Rainfall estimates from satellites (derived from cloud surface temperatures) were chosen over those from Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), as the substrate signal used can be too strong in arid regions.

Based on the observations of Le Houerou *et al.* (1988)⁴, plant production in an arid grassland over an average year amounts to 37.362% of phytomass and the variability of production is generally 1.5 times the variability in rainfall. The assumption is therefore that livestock will have 15% more food available than in a 'normal' year if rainfall is 10% above average. Thus, the start-point geographic distribution of above-ground net primary production (in gm⁻²) was then calculated using a high spatial resolution dataset of rainfall from Worldclim⁵ in the equation of Schuur (2003)⁶ referred to by Yang *et al.* (2008)⁷. The rainfall dataset was first filtered to exclude all areas receiving > 1035mm rain per annum. With this high resolution (1km^2) dataset of likely total above-ground primary production in a normal rainfall year, it was then possible to reverseestimate the likely biomass or phytomass values for each grid cell using the observation of Le Houerou *et al.* $(1988)^4$ that production is normally equivalent to 0.3736 of biomass. Food supplies or carrying capacity for the livestock can then be calculated as all of the fresh growth plus 10% of the phytomass, assuming that one tropical livestock unit consumes 2500 kg DM per annum⁸.

It is important to note that not all phytomass will be relevant to livestock; much will be inaccessible in trees for instance. Biomass values per grid cell were therefore multiplied by their % tree cover values (calculated from the MODIS Vegetation Continuous Fields product from NASA⁹) and then subtracted 90% of this 'tree biomass value' from the total biomass values. This revealed an estimate of understorey biomass at 0.5km² across the region. The model assumes that only 15% of total understorey biomass is relevant to livestock¹⁰ as much of it will either harden/lignify without being consumed, be removed by insects or be overlooked by herbivores in favor of fresh green growth.

The model therefore provides a high spatial resolution representation of relevant phytomass or the plant building blocks for annual growth. In the ASALs, these 'building blocks' for fresh growth exist as woody or inedible rhizome material that persists as standing crop from one season to another. The building blocks are not fixed from year to year, but may accumulate in years of good rainfall or decline during drought. This separation of persistent phytomass and more variable fresh growth is analogous to the concepts of capital: winter phytomass = biomass = capital (which can appreciate or depreciate in value) and annual plant production = fresh growth = interest. The allowance for phytomass to appreciate over good years and depreciate during drought and for fresh growth to be a dynamic rainfall-related function on this changing phytomass offers a better approximation for long-term variation in the number of animals that can be supported on the land.

In order to allow these building blocks to appreciate or depreciate within realistic limits during consecutive good/bad years, an upper limit of 1.3 x relevant biomass and lower limit of 0.7 x relevant biomass was set. Phytomass at the end of a year was modified by a factor which varied between x 0.9 (driest years) and x 1.3 (wettest years). The value used was directly (linearly) interpolated from the rainfall anomaly. This created a rapid increase (by up to 30%) of the capital in wettest years and a steady decline in capital (by up to 10%) in the driest years. Rainfall was allowed to be the major driver of the increase in plant matter during good rainfall years and, in a further step, livestock were allowed to be the major driver of phytomass depletion during dry or overstocked years.

If prevailing food supplies for the year exceed total demand of livestock consumption, it was assumed that there was no depletion of capital due to livestock. If consumption exceeds food supplies, then the exact deficit (less

⁴ Le Houerou, H.N., Bingham, R.L. & Skerbek, L.W. (1988). Relationship between the variability of primary production and the variability of annual precipitation in world arid lands. *J. Arid. Environ.* 15: 1-18.

⁵ Hijmans, R.J., Cameron, S.E., Parra, J.L., Jones, P.G. & Jarvis, A. (2005). Very high resolution interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology* 25: 1965-1978.

⁶ Schuur, E.A.G. (2003). Productivity and global climate revisited: the sensitivity of tropical forest growth to precipitation. *Ecology* 84(5): 1165-1170.

⁷ Yang, Y., Fang, J., Ma, W. & Wang, W. (2008). Relationship between variability in aboveground net primary production and precipitation in global grasslands. *Geophysical Research Letters* 35, L23710: 1-4.

⁸ De Leeuw, P.N. & Tothill, J.C. (1990). The concept of rangeland carrying capacity in Sub-Saharan Africa – myth or reality? *Land Degradation and Rehabilitation* 29b. 19pp.

⁹ Hansen, M., Defries, R., Townshend, J.R., Carroll, M. & Dimicelli, C. (2004). 500m MODIS Vegetation Continuous Field v.1. University of Maryland, Maryland, USA.

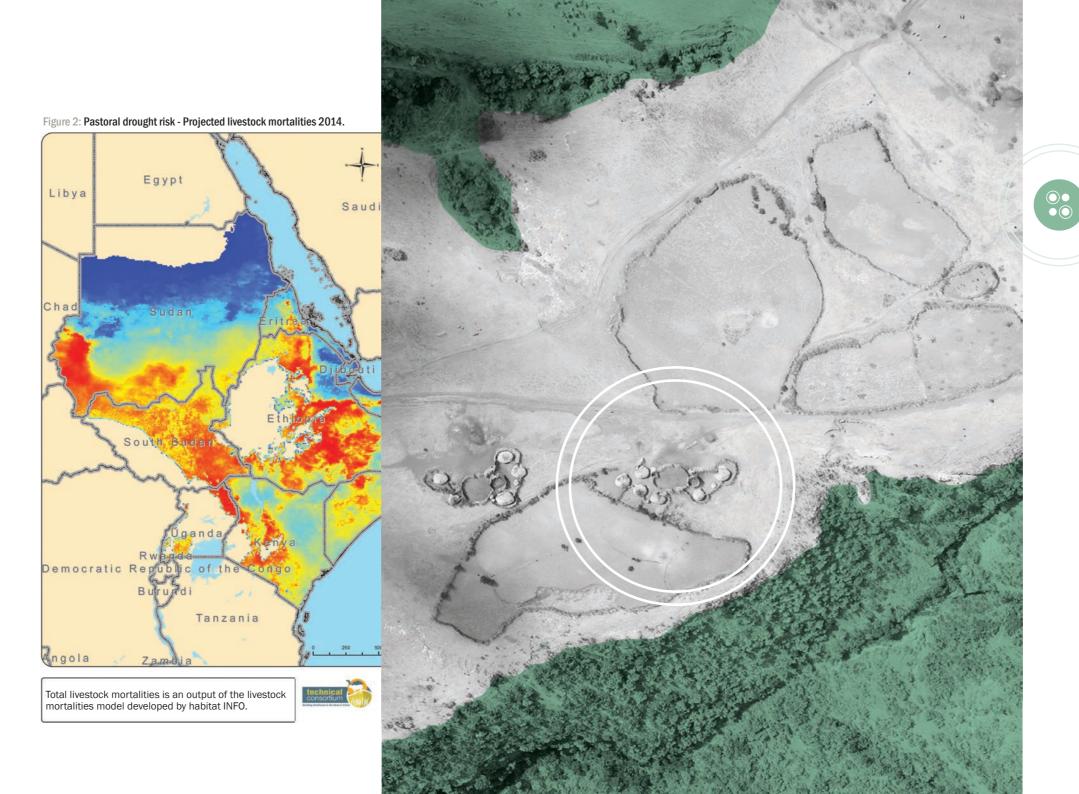
¹⁰ Davies, R.A.G. (1994). *Predation by Black Eagles on Rock Hyrax and other prey in the Karoo.* PhD thesis, University of Pretoria.

15% to be found elsewhere) was subtracted from capital.

For each grid cell, livestock numbers at start (P) are compared with the carrying capacity (K), where K or carrying capacity is not a fixed long-term stocking rate but a highly dynamic measure that realistically represents prevailing food conditions based on rainfall for that year and cell. The P:K ratio is then used to scale both livestock recruitment and livestock mortality in a linear fashion ranging between the extremes of worst case scenario and best case scenario and values for a 'normal' year. The assumption is that mortality rates will be maximum and recruitment rates minimum when large livestock populations are stressed by drought; and that mortality rates will be minimum and recruitment rates maximum when small livestock populations experience good rains.

Map outputs were produced for phytomass and production in an average year. The coefficient was calculated of the variation of livestock mortality rate to highlight which parts of IGAD arid regions regularly face the most dramatic increases and decreases of livestock numbers due to rainfall patterns. This was used in the environmental sensitivity layer along with the expected mortality rate for 2014 (based on average rainfall pattern) and a measure of livestock overhead going into 2014. Animations were also produced to visualise the pattern of change in model parameters over the 30 years of rainfall data. Output layers were checked for particular grid cells from one year to the next to ensure the calculations were made correctly.

It is hoped that the model will prove useful as an early warning system for livestock mortalities in arid parts of Africa. For 2014, an input of rainfall data in a 'normal' year can forecast mortality patterns if rainfall follows an average course. The rainfall patterns have also been determined from strong El Nino and La Nina years, which can be fed into the model if sea surface temperatures in the Indo-Pacific indicate one of these patterns is imminent. There is thought to be a nine-month advance warning from these indicators. The model is in its pilot development stage, with ground truthing and expert consultation on its parameters still required as part of a larger validation of the spatial tool.



Review of systems, selection of indicators

The next step in developing the spatial tool was to synthesise the system indicators. As mentioned previously, in order to represent vulnerability or susceptibility and time to recover, spatial datasets were grouped into three systems: ecological, social and economic. The ecological system refers to the natural resources that we use and depend on, that are provided by nature as opposed to being human-engineered. The social system is defined as the level of community/social support, or the level of access to 'human capital', while the economic system is defined as access to material wealth.

From the pool of datasets, 165 indicators were selected that best represent resilience in these three key systems. The 165 resilience indicators were selected¹¹ using the following underlying criteria:

- relevance to the region's resilience,
- data quality and
- availability of the data on a regional and national level.

The indicators were then divided amongst the three systems: social (51), economic (73) and ecological (41) (see Figure 3 on following page).

 $^{^{\}rm 11}$ This selection of indicators and the datasets to populate them has to date been based largely on expert opinion. More validation of the weighting will take place within the next six months.

Figure 3: I KEY: Posit	Л	ECOLOGICAL SYSTE
values are	 Net primary productivity Soil degradation Available soil moisture Rangeland condition Livestock mortality data Invasive plant occurrence Food web complexity Tsetse fly occurrence 	 Human appropriation of net primary productivity Population density Projected population growth Biodiversity value Forest resources Deforestation slope
rrence	Tsetse fly occur	ural land • Slope ess • Length of the growing period

SOCIAL SYSTEM

- Conflicts
- Change in leaders
- Crime rates
- Displacement migration Circular migration

- Community management Availability of support networks

Travel time to nearest city

• Distance to nearest port

· Distance to nearest airport

Telephone infrastructure

Access to internet

• Electrical infrastructure

Road and rail infrastructure

- Property rights + legal indicators
- Agricultural system
- Own food production
- · Access to improved water
- Orphans
- Infant mortality
- Disease metrics (malaria, HIV etc)
 Sustainability of heating etc.

ECONOMIC SYSTEM

- Lights at night infrastructure Access to credit, savings and insurance
 - Access to local enterprises
 - Access to development projects
 - Tourism
 - Interest rates
- Distance to nearest marketplace
 Inflation rate
 - GDP national
- Cell phone users per 1000 people
 National debt
 - GDP household (income)

Crop diversity

Agricultural assets

- Household assets
- Price stability Flexible exchange rate policy Livelihood diversity
- Integration with other markets
- Trade regulations/trade openness
 Livestock diversity
- Tax regulations

- · Protein consumption per person
- Employment-to-population ratio (male & female)

licators under each system

influences at high values are in white; negative influences at high black.

Rationale behind methodology

stems and indicators were separated to better measure d assess the influence on resilience that each may have.

Ecological conditions (such as rainfall and population density) define the susceptibility of a particular location to the impact of a shock, such as severe drought. Assessing the ecological/environmental system indicators of an area is the first step in evaluating that area's resilience.

Social (non-material) conditions and economic (material) conditions affect the adaptive capacity of a particular location/community to bounce back from the environmental shock once it has occurred. Therefore, social system indicators (good governance, inclusivity in decision-making, access to good healthcare) and economic system indicators (road and rail infrastructure, access to market, GDP per capita) form an important means of evaluating the time a community needs to rebuild or bounce back after the shock has occurred.

While in many cases variables may be relevant both during and after a shock, it was expedient for the purposes of developing the tool to allocate ecological or environmental indicators in a first step to evaluate susceptibility to the

- Crop storage facilities
- Agriculture as % GDP
- % reliance on cash crops
- Industry trade as % GDP
- % land under irrigation
- Water withdrawals
- Poverty (infrastructure)
- Malnourishment
- Calories per person per day
- per day
- Diet diversity

Distance to health centres

Equitable society indicators

· Role and participation of wor

Education

Agricultural inputs

shock: and to allocate social or economic indicators in a second step, which could evaluate time to rebuild following a shock. These steps are later combined in evaluating overall resilience so they are still included whether considered during or after the shock.

Weighting of indicators

Once the indicators were separated into the three systems, careful consideration was then given in assigning weights to each indicator in order to compose an overall index of resilience. Each indicator was weighted using an ArcGIS Model Builder, which allows for easy changing of weightings at two classification levels for future sensitivity analysis.

The method of combining these datasets involved standardizing the scale of each to vary in integer values ranging from 1 to 9, and then a simple summation of the layers could take place. However, datasets which were considered to be more crucial to vulnerability, from a more reliable source, and at sufficient geographical resolution, were allowed to have more influence on the final summary layers (weighted up to *3) than datasets which were considered to be less crucial, less reliable, and of a crude resolution (weighted * 1).



While in many cases variables may be relevant both during and after a shock, it was expedient for the purposes of developing the spatial tool to allocate ecological or environmental indicators in a first step to evaluate susceptibility to the shock, and to allocate social or economic indicators in a second step to evaluate the relative time required to rebuild following a shock



Composite indicators

The indicators were then combined into composite indicators, in order to allow for multiple overlays, in line with GIS mapping capability. An ESRI Model Builder was used to assimilate these data into: six composite indicators for ecological/ environmental (water resources, land use, ecosystem services, per capita resources, climate and natural resource shocks); four composite indicators for social (health, education, governance and social shocks); and seven composite indicators for economic (infrastructure, trade access, financial services, wealth, financial conditions, livelihood/income diversification and economic shocks).

The composite indicators are illustrated over the next three pages.

On the opposite page:

Figure 4: Overview of the composite indicators within the spatial tool

COMPOSITE INDICATOR	INDICATORS	SPATIAL OUTPUT
WATER RESOURCES	 Aquifer capacity and draw down rates Water source distribution Distance from water source 	
LAND USE	 Deforestation Classification of agricultural systems Rangeland condition Livestock mortality data Soil degradation Invasive plant occurrence Classification of agricultural systems Classification of agricultural systems Livestock birth and death rates Net primary productivity Circular migration Circular migration 	
ECOLOGICAL SERVICES	 Levels of protection Forest resources Wetlands Soil moisture/depth/nutrients Food web complexity/species diversity 	
POPULATION DENSITY + PER CAPITA RESOURCES	 Rainfall per person on agricultural land Population density Trends in urban population centres in the last decade Per capita water use Population growth 	
CLIMATE	 Rainfall data from remote sensing El Niño-Southern Oscillation index Length of the growing period Bi-seasonal or uni-seasonal growing periods Aridity Climate change Potential evapotranspiration (PET) Temperature 	
NATURAL RESOURCE SHOCKS	• Disasters	

SOCIAL SYSTEM	COMPOSITE INDICATOR	INDICATORS	SPATIAL OUTPUT
	LAND USE SUPPORT	 Status of sanitary and photosanitary (SPS) protocols Access to veterinary services – agro vets, community animal healthcare workers (CAHWs), vets etc Agricultural extension services (training) Extension services 	
	COMMUNITY SUPPORT	 Community management Availability of support networks 	
	<i>i</i> INFORMATION	 Access to info - early warning Access to info - crop prices etc. 	
	HEALTH	 Access to improved water & Infant mortality Disease metrics (malaria, HIV etc.) Life expectancy Wexpenditure on health Distance to health centres/number Maternal mortality 	
	abc EDUCATION	 Education (schools, literacy rates, gender) Number of schools Health education 	
	GOVERNANCE	 Crime rates Representation in parliament Representation in county level administration Property rights and legal indicators Equitable society indicators & orphan care Role and participation of women Inclusivity indicators National level governance Change in leaders Governance below national level Policing 	
	SOCIAL SHOCKS	 Conflicts Displacement migration 	

ECONOMIC SYSTEM	COMPOSITE INDICATOR	INDICATORS	SPATIAL OUTPUT
	INFRASTRUCTURE	 Lights at night infrastructure phones, land lines, cell towers etc.) Travel time to the nearest city Road and rail infrastructure Distance to the nearest port Irrigation potential Communication (internet, cell hones, land lines, cell towers etc.) Agricultural inputs Distance to nearest airport Distance to nearest market Crop storage facilities Air infrastructure 	
	TRADE ACCESS	 Status of trade regulations Tax regulations Livestock trade (exports, volume, value, milk, hides, skins etc.) Flexible exchange rate policy Integration with other markets Trade routes 	
	FINANCIAL SERVICES	 Access to financial services Access to insurance 	
	WEALTH	 Access to development projects Tourism (conservancies and NP) GDP (national, agriculture, industry) GDP household (income) Household assets Agricultural assets Agricultural	
	FINANCIAL CONDITIONS	 Price stability Interest rates Inflation rates Employment rates (male and female) 	
	INCOME DIVERSIFICATION	 Livelihood diversity Livestock diversity/numbers/types Crop area/yield/irrigated yield/diversity/reliance on cash crops 	
	ECONOMIC SHOCKS		



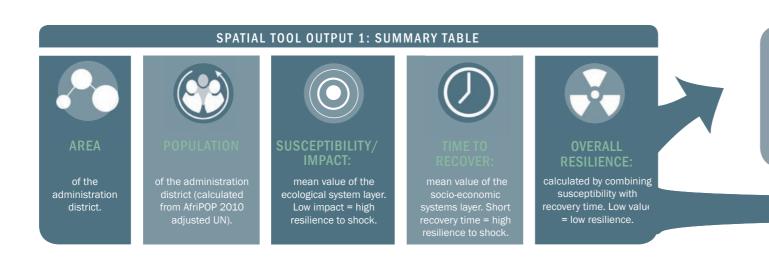
In Phase 1 of the spatial tool, generic shocks are considered that may occur anywhere in the IGAD region — taking into account that many shocks (especially economic and social shocks) have a broad geographic focus.



Spatial outputs

The spatial tool analyzes the resilience layers for each of the administration districts that are submitted in the query and produces a summary table containing the following information:

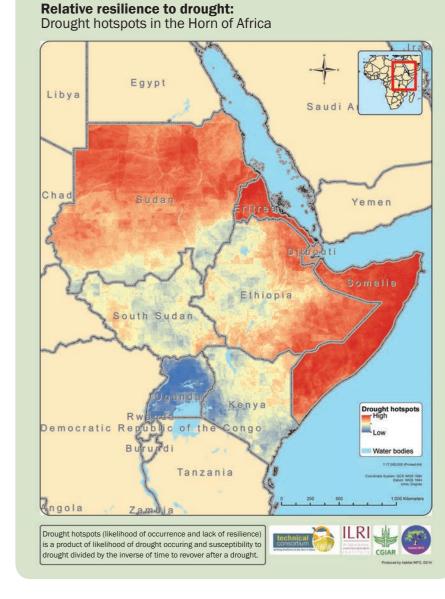
- 1. **AREA** of the administration district
- 2. **POPULATION** of the administration district (calculated from AfriPOP 2010 adjusted UN)
- 3. **SUSCEPTIBILITY/IMPACT:** mean value of the ecological or environmental system layer (as indicated by the weighting of its ecological indicators). Low impact equates to high resilience, while high values of impact equates to low resilience, at the time of the environmental shock. Values are relative; they are not interpreted in any other way.
- 4. **TIME TO RECOVER:** We took the mean value of the socio-economic systems layer (as indicated by the weighting of its social and economic indicators) and we inverted these values so that high socio-economic capacity represented an expected shorter time to recover following a shock. Short recovery time values equate to a high resilience, while long recovery time values equate to low resilience. Values are relative; they are not interpreted to actual time.
- OVERALL RESILIENCE: calculated by combining susceptibility with measures of recovery time (this is computed as socioeconomic capacity for recovery divided by environmental-sensitivity or susceptibility



SPATIAL TOOL OUTPUT 2: MAP

to the shock). Areas with high capacity for quick recovery and low susceptibility to the shock are accorded highest resilience; while areas poor in capacity for recovery and highly susceptible to the shock are accorded lowest resilience.

The output is then illustrated as a regional map (see graphic on right), showing locations where environmental shocks are expected to have a higher impact and affected communities will take a long time to recover (highlighted in red), and areas where shocks have a lower impact and communities will be quicker to recover (highlighted in blue).



RESILIENCE =

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CAPACITY

inverted, this measure epresents the ability of the district to recover bilowing the shock, as a relative time value.

ENVIRONMENTA SENSITIVITY

environmental susceptibility at the time of the shock (= impact).

G Future developments of spatial tool

In Phase 1 of the spatial tool, generic shocks are considered that may occur anywhere in the IGAD region - taking into account that many shocks (especially economic and social shocks) have a broad geographic focus. However, the tool has been designed to accommodate a likelihood of occurrence maps for shocks that occur in specific areas. These values will be calculated in Phase 2 of the spatial tool, which focuses on drought as the primary hazard.

The Horn of Africa is predominantly comprised of arid or semi-arid lands, and is a naturally drought-prone region. With increasing pastoral or agropastoral land use, the environment and pastoral communities in this region are progressively susceptible to severe drought. In particular, heavy stocking of the land and consequent overgrazing will extend existing droughts, while denuded vegetation is the primary cause of further desertification and an increase in future droughts. This imbalance of livestock requirements and pasture availability results in livestock mortalities and food security issues.

It is therefore imperative that such pastoral communities be resilient to an environmental shock such as severe drought, in order to sustain food security in terms of livestock (where resilience applies to the conditions that affect the impact of the shock and the ability of a community to timely recover following the shock). Measuring the resilience to drought of pastoral communities within the Horn of Africa is therefore key to ameliorate or avert further livestock losses in this region, and to support the much-needed paradigm shift from relief to region- and community-specific development.

There are currently two versions under development of the new drought

module to sit within the spatial tool. Version 1 identifies geographical areas in the Horn of Africa with respect to their relative resilience across multiple sectors using medium to long-term data on drought exposure risk. It is based on a new drought exposure layer, based on longer-term datasets, a subset of relevant environmental sensitivity layers, and the existing time to recover layer. It is envisaged that Version 1 will be useful to potential investors considering a variety of sectors e.g. water management, early warning information systems, conflict reduction.

Version 2 highlights pastoral and agro-pastoral localities where farmers and dependents may be at risk of significant livestock mortalities in the short-term. It is based on short-term rainfall estimates at high geographic resolution and encompasses the outputs of the livestock-vegetation model developed for the Horn of Africa Resilience Project. These outputs are confined to the pastoral and agro-pastoral land use regions.

Version 2 will include a new, high-resolution drought exposure layer; the existing time to recover layer; and a modified environmental sensitivity layer. It is envisaged that this version will be used to target those areas in which investments, such as the promotion of stock movement and reduction, will achieve optimal impact.

The Technical Consortium is collaborating with model developers at Colorado State University, to combine elements of their G-Range model¹², which simulates and forecasts rangeland ecosystem processes with this spatial tool, aiming to ground truth and validate data and to enhance the rigour of the model and capacity for interrogation at finer scale.

Both versions will combine population estimates with the calculation of resilience in order to focus potential investments on those areas that will see the biggest impact in terms of people helped. The outputs will be similar to those already produced by the spatial tool; a summary map and spreadsheet.

Version 2 may be developed into an early warning system for livestock farmers if the datasets are updated and with possible linking to the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI). Discussions are in place regarding the possibility of a 'futures analysis' that can factor in projected climate change, loss of cropland etc.

¹²G-Range is a global model that simulates generalized changes in rangelands through time, created with support from the ILRI. Spatial data and a set of parameters that control plant growth and other ecological attributes in landscape units combine with computer code to represent ecological process such as soil nutrient and water dynamics, vegetation growth, fire, and wild and domestic animal offtake. The model is spatial, with areas of the world divided into square cells. Those cells that are rangelands have ecosystem dynamics simulated. A graphical user interface allows users to explore model output.

For more information regarding G-Range, please contact Rich Conant. PhD at rich.conant@colostate.edu.

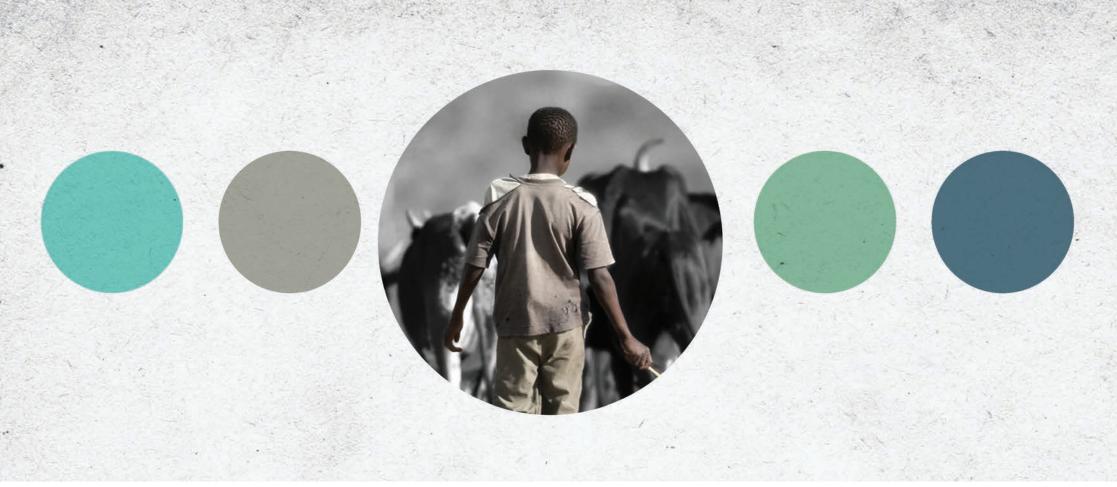




Application and value to the member states

The advance overlay functionality of GIS and the resulting spatial outputs will form an integral aspect for both the rational targeting of investment and the building of capacity and baselines from which to measure the impact. Historic and recent datasets were provided as benchmarks, which may then be tracked through time for the early detection and identification of anomalies or thresholds, the crossing of which may precipitate regime shift to a less favorable state.

Summary and other datasets have been supplied for each member state to augment and integrate with existing regional environmental information systems with the purpose of informing high spatial resolution decisions about land use and resilient development for populations within the ASALs.





The Technical Consortium for Building Resilience in the Horn of Africa provides technical support to IGAD and member states in the Horn of Africa on evidence-based planning and regional and national investment programs, for the long-term resilience of communities living in arid and semi-arid lands. It harnesses CGIAR research and other knowledge on interventions in order to inform sustainable development in the Horn of Africa. technicalconsortium.org



ILRI works to improve food security and reduce poverty in developing countries through research for better and more sustainable use of livestock. ILRI is a member of the CGIAR Consortium, a global research partnership of 15 centres working with many partners for a food-secure future. ILRI has two main campuses in East Africa and other hubs in East, West and Southern Africa and South, Southeast and East Asia. ilri.org



CGIAR is a global agricultural research partnership for a food-secure future. Its science is carried out by 15 research centres that are members of the CGIAR Consortium in collaboration with hundreds of partner organizations. cgiar.org

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