



## Regional Learning & Advocacy Programme for Vulnerable Dryland Communities

# Disaster risk reduction in the drylands of the **HORN OF AFRICA** - Edition 3

GOOD PRACTICE EXAMPLES FROM THE ECHO DROUGHT RISK REDUCTION ACTION PLAN PARTNERS AND BEYOND



Regional Learning & Advocacy Programme (REGLAP) for  
Vulnerable Dryland Communities

## Introduction

### Disaster risk reduction in the drylands of the Horn of Africa:

*Good practice examples from the ECHO DRRAP partners and beyond - Edition 3*

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The third REGLAP journal on good practice examples of Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) begins with initiatives focused on **disaster preparedness and mitigation**. ACTED's article on its widely used and much valued Drought Early Warning System in Karamoja (Uganda), explains how the system is now more efficient through the rethinking of indicators and the fine-tuning of warning thresholds. An article from Oxfam looks at how the agency is rethinking its approach to emergency water provision in Ethiopia and Kenya as part of tightening up its humanitarian response to drought.

Many organisations are recognising the importance of working across borders in preparing for drought, and Cordaid's article on Participatory Drought Risk Assessment at the Kenya-Ethiopia border demonstrates the benefits of taking a multi-agency cross-border approach. Partners are also continuing to learn more about disaster preparedness and mitigation techniques from the communities they work with, and the People First Impact Method (P-FIM) is introduced here as one way of understanding community viewpoints better. Transparency International provides a valuable set of recommendations on how to provide food assistance to communities during drought with greater integrity and accountability.

The second section of the journal covers some of the initiatives that are **building resilient livelihoods**. In Karamoja it is recognised that livestock health is crucial for household resilience and drought response, and Dan Church Aid explains how the consortium it leads is improving coordination, communication and budgeting amongst all stakeholders in order to address cross-border livestock diseases. The Oxfam Somaliland article demonstrates how community development interventions that build resilience in the aftermath of civil war and ecosystem destruction can make a significant difference with very little financial investment.

One of the important factors for pastoralists coping with repeated disasters is being able to trade their livestock assets easily, and viable livestock markets are therefore essential. Food for the Hungry-Kenya recognises the importance of improved marketing in resilience, and is assisting in the creation of community-based market management committees. An article by Oxfam Somaliland and Oxfam Ethiopia on the cross-border livestock trade advocates strongly for greater legal recognition of trading as a means of economic survival and food security in this

marginalised region. Susie Wren's article moves away from livestock, and looks at how other products from the biodiversity rich drylands could be better marketed and could potentially benefit communities as an alternative income source.

The need for private sector involvement and investment in helping build resilience in dryland areas has long been discussed, and Farid Mohamed's article outlines the Northern Kenya Investment Fund as a new model for attracting investors into the region. The fund is based on 'impact investments', an approach now gaining traction among socially conscious financiers.

Prepared communities, fine-tuned development practice and effective finance can only go so far in building resilience: The Arid and Semi Arid Lands (ASALs) in the Horn of Africa also need strong and effective leadership from national and regional governments. The third section of the journal looks at progress being made in **coordination, capacity building and advocacy**. To address the inherent vulnerabilities in the ASALs stricter adherence to environmental and social safeguards is required, but at the same time encouragement is also necessary if the ASALs are to attract the investment they require. The championing and coordination of development in the ASALs of Kenya is now the task of its newly created ASAL Secretariat, and Helen de Jode's article introduces the objectives and structure behind this long-term institution.

The other articles in the third section focus on the advocacy for policy reform that is a core part of DRR. The first discusses the slow progress in implementing the AU Pastoral Policy Framework. Ethiopia Oxfam's article then explains how the dryland actors in Ethiopia have set out to learn from policy successes in West Africa with a valuable experience sharing visit and a national drylands workshop. And the section concludes with details of IGAD's initiative to build a common programming framework to improve coordination and effectiveness in ending drought emergencies.

The third REGLAP journal on good practice in Disaster Risk Reduction ends with Vanessa Tilstone's article on the recent debate about resilience, what it means for practice, and what's still needed to ensure that key constraints in development and resilience building in the drylands can be overcome.

### The Early Warning Stage Classification: a tool to enhance the efficiency of the Karamoja Drought Early Warning System

Malika Ogwang, Early Warning Specialist, ACTED Uganda

The Karamoja region is one of the least developed areas in Uganda, where the mainly agro-pastoralist population live in semi-arid lands and suffer from recurrent and increasingly more frequent drought. Since 2009 ACTED, in collaboration with the Government of Uganda and various partners (NGOs, Community Based Organizations, UN agencies, FEWSNET) has implemented a Drought Early Warning System (DEWS) for the region. ACTED has recently developed a new methodology to analyse the DEWS data. Since June 2012 an **Early Warning Stage Classification** has guided district heads of department on how to establish warning stages out of the analysis of each indicator. These warning stages are key in raising timely and reliable alerts, and allowing stakeholders to design the right interventions in advance. This article reviews the principles of this methodology and the benefit it has brought so far to the DEWS in Karamoja.



#### The Drought Early Warning System

The DEWS informs all stakeholders (communities, local and national government, development partners and donors) in a timely manner on the risk and occurrence of drought, and to what extent it may affect the community. This information enables more appropriate decisions to be made on activating preparedness mechanisms, the time frame available and the type of early actions to be implemented. The communities receive messages via local radio stations and discussions with local leaders. These messages, formulated by the local government representatives (district officials) in charge of the monthly data analysis, give precise and actionable recommendations on what best practices should be implemented at household level to protect assets and lives.

The system currently monitors information on 21 indicators on a monthly basis, collected mainly at household level but also at district level. These indicators cover six sectors: livestock, crop, water, weather and environment, health and nutrition, and security. They include information on the vulnerability of the population, coupled with satellite images and weather predictions from the Department of Meteorology. Combining these two information sources helps users assess both the risk of drought and its potential impact on the population in each livelihood zone (agricultural, pastoral and agro-pastoral).

#### The Early Warning Stage Classification

The Early Warning Stage Classification developed from a need to: harmonize the analysis of DEWS data within districts; to guide the District Officials on how to use

a combination of the DEWS data and their own understanding and experience of the context in Karamoja to establish warning stages; and ensure a transparent analysis that the reader can easily understand.

The methodology is based on 4 steps:

**Step 1:** The identification of the warning stages for the vulnerability indicators. This includes identifying the warning stages of each indicator first, followed by the identification of the warning stages of each sector, in each livelihood zone.

**Step 2:** Identification of the level of risk of drought. This is derived from the weather forecast produced by the national government.

**Step 3:** Identification of the global early warning stage per livelihood zone. This is a combination of the vulnerability warning stages and the level of risk of drought.

**Step 4:** Forecast for the next one to three months. This establishes a stable/improving/worsening trend.

**Identification of thresholds:** In the absence of historical data for the 21 indicators, the EWPC relies on thresholds (normal/alert/alarm/emergency) and trends determined out of the experience of technical experts who have extensive knowledge and experience in the context of Karamoja (see example in figure 1 below). These thresholds are tested and reviewed seasonally by the district heads of department to improve their accuracy.

**Visualization in the Drought Bulletin:** In order to make the conclusions of the analysis easily and quickly understandable by the end users, warning gauges indicate the stage as shown in Figure 1. A summary of the stage for each zone, followed by the predicted trends and the vulnerability warning identified for each sector are represented on page one of the district Drought Bulletins.

**Analysis per livelihood zone:** Within each district of Karamoja the analysis is made and recommendations given for each livelihood zone. This is because the vulnerability of the population often differs between the zones and a district wide conclusion may mask important disparities.

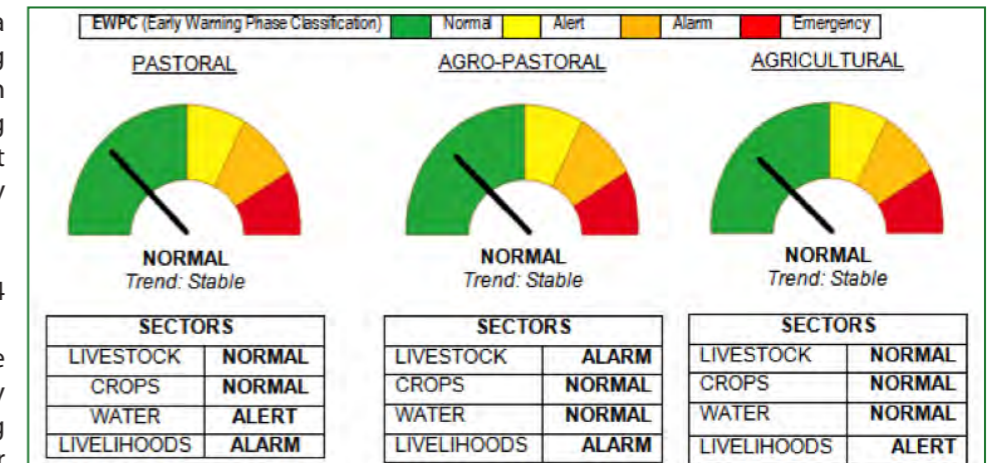


Figure 1: Visualization of the results given by the Early Warning Stage Classification

#### How the classification improved the efficiency of the drought early warning system

In June 2012 all District Officials involved in the Drought Bulletin analysis (about 50 officers) were trained on how to use this new methodology. The methodology has now been tested for three months and results already appear in the Drought Bulletin production. While the thresholds are still being fine-tuned, and some particular points are still being discussed among partners, the new advancement of the DEWS has already shown a positive impact:

1. The District Officials developed a considerable interest in the methodology and consequently in the whole system. The number of District Officials attending the Drought Bulletin analysis meetings almost doubled from April to May 2012, making the analysis, interpretation and recommendations richer and more accurate. This also enhanced the local government ownership of the system and is a step forward in ensuring the sustainability of the system.
2. The final document/Drought Bulletin is being read by a much higher number of partners including donors at international level.
3. The Drought Bulletins are increasingly used for routine monitoring and strategic decision-making of partners working in Karamoja. (Examples include: The Karamoja Livelihoods Programme, an EU and Government of Uganda initiative, that uses the Drought Bulletins to prioritize their activities and the communities most in needs; and the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries which uses it for the national FS updates)
4. The presentation on the front page of the Drought Bulletin shows very clearly the problems and threats identified. The format is easily readable and much appreciated by the various practitioners and decision makers.

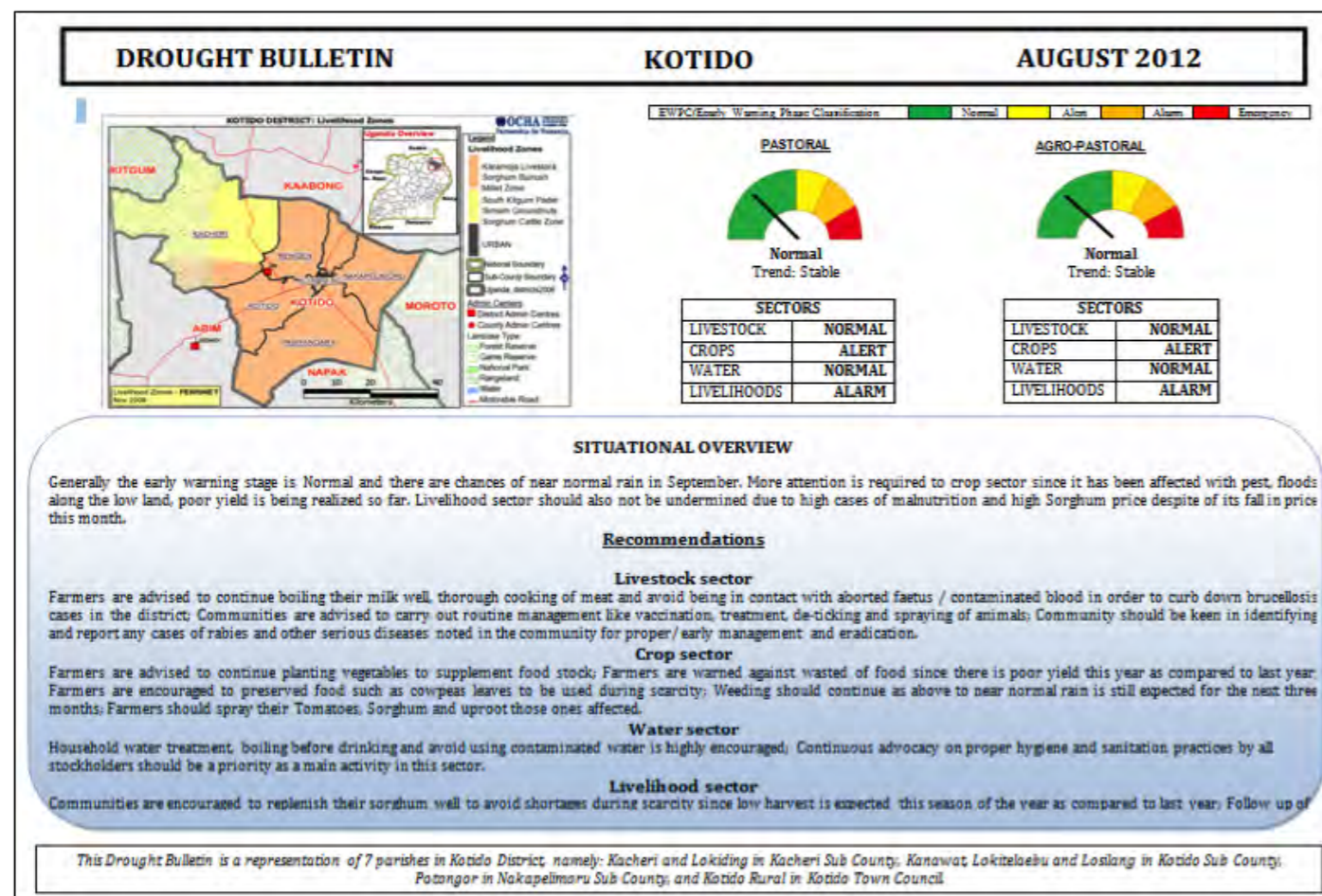


Figure 2: Page One of the Drought Bulletin

- The new tool is also easily understandable by local leaders. This has increased the level of dissemination of potential threats, and of the recommendations given by the District Officials down to the communities.
- Designing and implementing the Early Warning Stage Classification methodology has been an opportunity to learn more on the best way to adjust the list of EWS indicators and thresholds.
- Following the training of the District Officials on this methodology, ACTED reviewed, together with the officials, the indicators and the thresholds initially designed in 2010. This process proved that such a methodology helps in orienting the choice of the indicators and thresholds in a way that optimizes the efficiency and accuracy of the system.

### Optimizing the list of EWS indicators

In July 2012 ACTED reviewed its initial list of 26 indicators. The exercise was done in collaboration with the district heads of department who analyse the DEWS data every month. Its purpose was to reduce the list of indicators in order to keep only the most crucial and relevant ones. A shorter list of indicators would be more time and cost efficient—two paramount factors towards the future sustainability of the project. With a more simple

analysis results could be more accurate and transparent. Doing this exercise at the same time as the work on Early Warning Stage Classification helped in several aspects:

- The EWSC helped eliminate some indicators that did not play a crucial role in the identification of the warning stage.
- The EWSC analysis helped identify some indicators that were redundant, or were only a consequence of another indicator.

Examples of indicators that were dropped for the above reasons were:

- Coping mechanisms:** This indicator, though interesting, is too complex to fit into the Early Warning Stage Classification and was difficult to collect without bias from households. The information contained in 'coping mechanisms' described as "slaughtering of animals/destocking" also comes under the DEWS indicator "type and number of animals in the market". Likewise "moving herds to far grazing area/splitting of herds" comes under the DEWS indicator "time spent to reach the grazing area". And information on "permanent migration" can be retrieved from DEWS indicator "livestock migration". Coping mechanisms such as "reducing portions of meals", "reducing frequency of

meals", "begging for food" and "borrowing food from neighbours" which all relate to lack of access to food and poor availability of food can be easily included in the three following DEWS indicators:

- Price of food** (gives information on food availability and access)
- Terms of trade** (gives information on access to food)
- Type of food eaten** (gives information on quality of food intake)

Changes in one or several of the three indicators mentioned above definitely leads to more drastic coping strategies related to improving access to food.

- Safe water points:** In the absence of capacity to test water sources, this indicator was not included in the stage classification. The review showed that this parameter is always a conclusion of the analysis of the percentage of usage of boreholes by the household respondents. Therefore the information obtained from the indicator "type of water source", is enough to give a direct estimation of the quality of water used by the communities.
- Calf mortality rate:** Although this indicator potentially gives interesting information about the condition of livestock, it always come as a consequence of livestock disease incidence or of poor body condition due to lack of pasture or water. The two latter indicators are collected in the system, and if fully analyzed, the indicator on calf mortality rate becomes less crucial.



The type of water source gives a good indication of water quality

### Fine tuning the thresholds for correct determination of warning stages

As mentioned above, the thresholds to be used in this methodology were identified prior to finalising the design of the methodology. When the District Officials started implementing the stage classification, several thresholds turned out to be difficult to use, for example:

#### a) *Livestock Body Condition:*

This indicator gives a percentage of animals in poor, fair and good body condition. The thresholds initially attributed percentage of poor/fair/good animals for each warning stage. However, it became clear that many compilations of the three percentages could not fit in any scenario, and that relying on one criterion only – the percentage of animals in good condition – was more than enough to establish the warning stage of this indicator. This simplified not only the methodology but also the thresholds.

#### b) *Animals in the market:*

This indicator gives an estimation of the number of four types of animals brought on sale in the markets: bull, cows, heifers and bull calves. When designing the thresholds experts gave percentages for each of these four types. Using it in practice however proved difficult as the different types could give different results. To simplify the system and make it more practical, livestock experts agreed that monitoring the sale of bull and heifers was giving enough information for the purpose of issuing warnings. This again simplified not only the methodology but also the thresholds.

### Conclusion

The Early Warning Stage Classification reinforces the technical aspects and improves the quality of the Drought Bulletin. The review of all indicators was a necessary step in ensuring the full efficiency of the Drought Early Warning System. The new list of indicators is being implemented progressively and should be fully operational in the next few months. The Drought Bulletin gives valuable information to stakeholders on the crop, livestock, water and livelihood sectors. And this new tool, through advanced analysis, provides the reader with a general conclusion on the level of risk that the population faces of being affected by a drought. This is essential to guide stakeholders on the need to implement preparedness measures or not.

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### Using Emergency Market Mapping & Analysis to Improve Market-Based Provision of Humanitarian Water in Jijiga, Ethiopia and Wajir, Kenya

Thomas Wildman, Regional WASH Advisor, Oxfam

Water trucking is a common emergency intervention in times of drought and water scarcity in the Horn of Africa, but it is also an expensive and unsustainable approach that is challenging to manage and implement efficiently. Oxfam has used Emergency Market Mapping & Analysis (EMMA) to evaluate and improve its future humanitarian water interventions.



Water trucking interventions can be expensive and unsustainable

#### Humanitarian Water Provision

The arid lands of Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia suffer from water scarcity almost on an annual basis. In 2011 this region experienced two consecutive failed rainy seasons, resulting in one of the worst droughts since 1950/51 in some areas, and over 12 million people affected. As seasonal water points (water pans, *birkhads* and shallow wells) dried up, people in these areas relied almost exclusively on deep boreholes for water. In some places people walked over 100kms to access these water points—and even then their access was often only possible after payment for the water.

As part of its emergency drought response activities in Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia, Oxfam supported the provision of water to some members of the population who were getting less than 5 litres per person per day (the minimum quantity of water needed for survival and basic hygiene). A significant proportion of this water was provided by water trucking operations, in which water was transported via large tanker trucks from permanent water sources (boreholes accessing deep groundwater), to areas with no permanent water points. Transport distances ranged from 20 to 120kms from the water point to the final delivery point. These interventions lasted for 2 – 3 months until the rains arrived.

With the end of the 2011 drought in the Horn of Africa an evaluation of Oxfam's water trucking programmes highlighted the following:

- In the water trucking interventions Oxfam essentially became an actor within the water trucking market – paying for truck rental, water, and fuel, as well as covering the costs of delays and vehicle breakdown. Oxfam bore all the risks of the operation, with a heavy responsibility for ensuring each link in the market chain functioned effectively;
- There were difficulties with the targeting of beneficiaries: Instead of an equitable distribution of water, it was received on a “first come, first served” basis with those that lived closer to the delivery point, or had more power in the community having priority access to water;
- There were difficulties in monitoring the actual quantity of water delivered;
- Water trucks were hired from far-away locations, and drivers had little knowledge of how to operate efficiently and effectively in the local context (road network, availability of consumables, locations of water points, etc);
- The distortion of the truck market and potential undermining of self-help initiatives: By contracting external trucks and providing competitive conditions,

NGO water trucking pushed the truck hire prices up—reducing the ability of communities to hire trucks themselves. Focus group discussions showed anecdotal evidence that some better-off households, who still possessed adequate cash to privately purchase trucked water, were unable to do so due to a lack of water trucks in their area.

#### Identifying different response modalities using EMMA

Following subsequent discussions around resilience, Oxfam decided to try and identify modalities that would be more efficient, more cost-effective, and would reduce the risk of depending on a parallel water trucking system created for chronic humanitarian responses. In order to do this Oxfam agreed that more information was needed on the following:

- Who accesses water and water sources, and what are the main constraints people face in relation to access? Is the most limiting factor the availability of water, people's ability to access it and/or their purchasing power?
- The water trucking market and its capacity to deliver sufficient quantities of water to meet the needs of the population if, for example, cash transfers were provided.

To answer these questions Oxfam used the Emergency Market Mapping & Analysis (EMMA) methodology in Jijiga Zone of Ethiopia (February 2012), and in Wajir County of Kenya (September 2012). Both these areas experienced chronic emergency water trucking interventions and strong commercial water trucking markets are known to exist. EMMA is a methodology which supports a rapid market analysis, and was used in these incidences to

better understand, accommodate and make use of market systems to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of humanitarian actions, and to avoid doing harm to existing markets and coping strategies.

The key analytical questions asked by the EMMA in Jijiga and Wajir included:

1. How has the availability of water, and the access to water by the population, been affected in comparison to a normal year? (sources of water, conditions of access, quantity of water accessed etc.)
2. Does the commercial water trucking market have sufficient capacity and access to water sources (including water availability), in order to meet human water needs during times of critical water shortages? (expandability)
3. What constraints do water truckers meet?
4. What modality of water provision do stakeholders prefer? (market, actors, government)

The EMMA provided a “map” of the commercial water trucking market in the two areas, and also provided valuable information to inform contingency planning, as well as potential future emergency water interventions.

#### Jijiga EMMA findings and response

There were a number of key findings in the Jijiga (Ethiopia) EMMA, including that the primary obstacle to water security during drought is not a lack of water (quantity), but rather the lack of purchasing power to buy commercial water - the existing commercial water market possesses the capacity to meet water needs, but the bottleneck is the ability of people to access and negotiate with this market.



A water committee meeting in Wajir

## Disaster Preparedness and Mitigation

Social support structures were found to exist a clan-based water 'subsidy' aids the poor in the communities (the better off purchase water and give a portion of it to the poor free of charge), but this system is not being used to inform selection of beneficiaries. Beneficiaries confirmed that distribution of water was not equitable, with those living further from the water distribution points (typically the most vulnerable), or those who are not in positions of "power" within the community, receiving little and sometimes no water during distributions.

Based upon the findings of the EMMA in Jijiga the emergency activities implemented for the drought response in March 2012 were changed to focus on the provision of water vouchers, as opposed to Oxfam carrying out water trucking directly. The system worked in the following way:

1. Targeted beneficiaries (those identified as vulnerable through community targeting) were given vouchers for a 2-week supply of water. As water was only given in return for a voucher, beneficiaries could more easily collect their fair share of water. Focus group discussions confirmed that this led to a more equitable distribution of water as beneficiaries who lived far from water distribution points had equal access.
2. Water truckers were responsible for the entire water delivery chain, from pickup of water at the borehole to delivery of water to targeted households. In this way a significant portion of the logistical load was borne by the water trucking market actors.
3. Payment was made to the supplier against the number of vouchers they submitted to Oxfam. This insured payment was only made for the actual quantity of water delivered to beneficiaries. In addition to increased accountability in terms of the quantity of water delivered by suppliers, it also ensured that water reached the targeted beneficiaries.

The primary challenge faced in the implementation of this system was the resistance of the water truckers to the voucher system. While this is partly attributable to the lack of a detailed explanation of the system prior to the tendering process, it was also the result of increased workload for them, as well as increased accountability and more limited opportunities for fraud. To ensure continued success in the future it will also be essential for all stakeholders involved in emergency water provision to agree on a consistent approach, and to promote a uniform understanding so as not to undermine each other.

### Wajir EMMA findings and response

The Wajir (Kenya) EMMA found that contracting water trucks is a common practice for medium and better-off families, even during normal dry seasons, and during droughts water vendors have the market access and the

resources to organize the transport of water from water points to communities in order to sell it. During severe droughts NGOs become strong competitors in the market - absorbing half of the transportation capacity, and setting (and mostly inflating) the market price for water trucking. This puts them in a position of market power and reduces the negotiation power for communities.

Like in Jijiga the most limiting factor for people in accessing water is their purchasing power, with the population not able to afford sufficient amounts of water to ensure water security. Cash transfer programming should therefore be considered rather than in-kind provision, to make use of the private sector capabilities, transfer risks where relevant, and mitigate the risk of distorting the market. Fuel subsidies, which reduced the price of water at boreholes, did not significantly benefit the poor and very poor, who rely almost exclusively on shallow wells for water for themselves and their animals.

As part of the contingency planning process for drought in Wajir, Oxfam will pre-identify local traders and/or community groups (like women and youth groups) that have capacity and experience. Water vouchers distributed to beneficiaries can then be redeemed from these contracted local traders/groups during times of drought emergencies. Through contracts the local traders/community groups would be in charge of water procurement, transportation, and redistribution to beneficiaries against water vouchers, thereby ensuring that existing community market structures are supported rather than undermined.

### The Way Forward

The Regional Water Bureau in Jijiga performed an evaluation of the voucher system following its implementation and found it was a more efficient method of emergency water provision and resulted in increased targeting and accountability. Based on this, they have adopted it as their preferred method of emergency water provision during times of drought in areas where a commercial water trucking market exists. Oxfam is currently working with the WASH Cluster in Ethiopia to draft guidelines for emergency water provision through vouchers. The Oxfam Kenya programme, as part of the ECHO-funded La Nina Consortium, will utilise the findings and recommendations from the Wajir EMMA to put in place practical contingency-planning measures, in order to more effectively utilise existing water vendors and markets in future drought responses.

Emergency water trucking is typically a short-term, life-saving intervention that is used to cover interruptions in water service or access to sufficient quantities of water to meet survival requirements. As such, it should be a last-

## Research

resort option for emergency provision of water in drought. Several key questions must be considered during the planning phase of an emergency response to gauge the appropriate response modality. Oxfam GB's Technical Guidelines for Water Trucking in Drought Emergencies provides information on: assessing the appropriateness of water trucking interventions; the setup of emergency water trucking in drought; and alternatives to water trucking. REGLAP's good practice principles for water development

in dryland areas provide more long-term guidance that can be used to help guide preparedness and response interventions once embedded in organisations strategies.

For further information contact Tom Wildman: [twildman@oxfam.org.uk](mailto:twildman@oxfam.org.uk)

<sup>2</sup> [http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user\\_upload/drought/docs/Technical%20Guidelines%20on%20Water%20Trucking%20in%20Drought%20Emergencies.pdf](http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user_upload/drought/docs/Technical%20Guidelines%20on%20Water%20Trucking%20in%20Drought%20Emergencies.pdf)

<sup>3</sup> [http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user\\_upload/drought/docs/Technical%20Guidelines%20on%20Water%20Trucking%20in%20Drought%20Emergencies.pdf](http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user_upload/drought/docs/Technical%20Guidelines%20on%20Water%20Trucking%20in%20Drought%20Emergencies.pdf)

Water tank in a truck



### Learning from a Cross-Border Participatory Drought Risk Assessment in Northern Kenya and Southern Ethiopia—the value of planning

Woldehanna Kinfu, Hussein Jirma and Mohamed Dida, Cordaid Ethiopia and Kenya

*This article underlines the importance of undertaking pre-disaster planning with communities as part of DRR, and the advantages of using a cross-border methodology as part of this. The article highlights the learning from a cross-border Participatory Drought Risk Assessment exercise, and how by taking a multi-agency approach, experience can be spread wider and coordination vastly improved.*



Crispin Hughes/Oxfam

Community initiatives across borders can reduce the impact of drought.

#### Background

Since 2005 a number of stakeholders, including government agencies and ECHO DRRAP partners, have piloted the Community Managed Disaster Risk Reduction (CMDRR) approach in northern Kenya and southern Ethiopia. Their focus has mainly been on drought as the key disaster or hazard. Recent independent reviews and evaluations of the CMDRR approach have revealed the considerable success of the methodology, but also weaknesses in its application, meaning that the approach has not yet reached its full potential in promoting resilience to drought at the community level.

To improve the quality of CMDRR implementation, Cordaid, its Global CMDRR advisor and the International Institute of Rural Reconstruction (IIRR), together with other practitioners, carried out an exercise that would apply, document and then reflect on the four key steps in CMDRR:

**Step 1:** Participatory Disaster Risk Assessment

**Step 2:** Creation of development and contingency plans

**Step 3:** Strengthening community organizations

**Step 4:** Monitoring, evaluation and learning

The exercise provided a learning opportunity through which practitioners engaged with community champions to share new ideas, new learning, innovations and good practice.

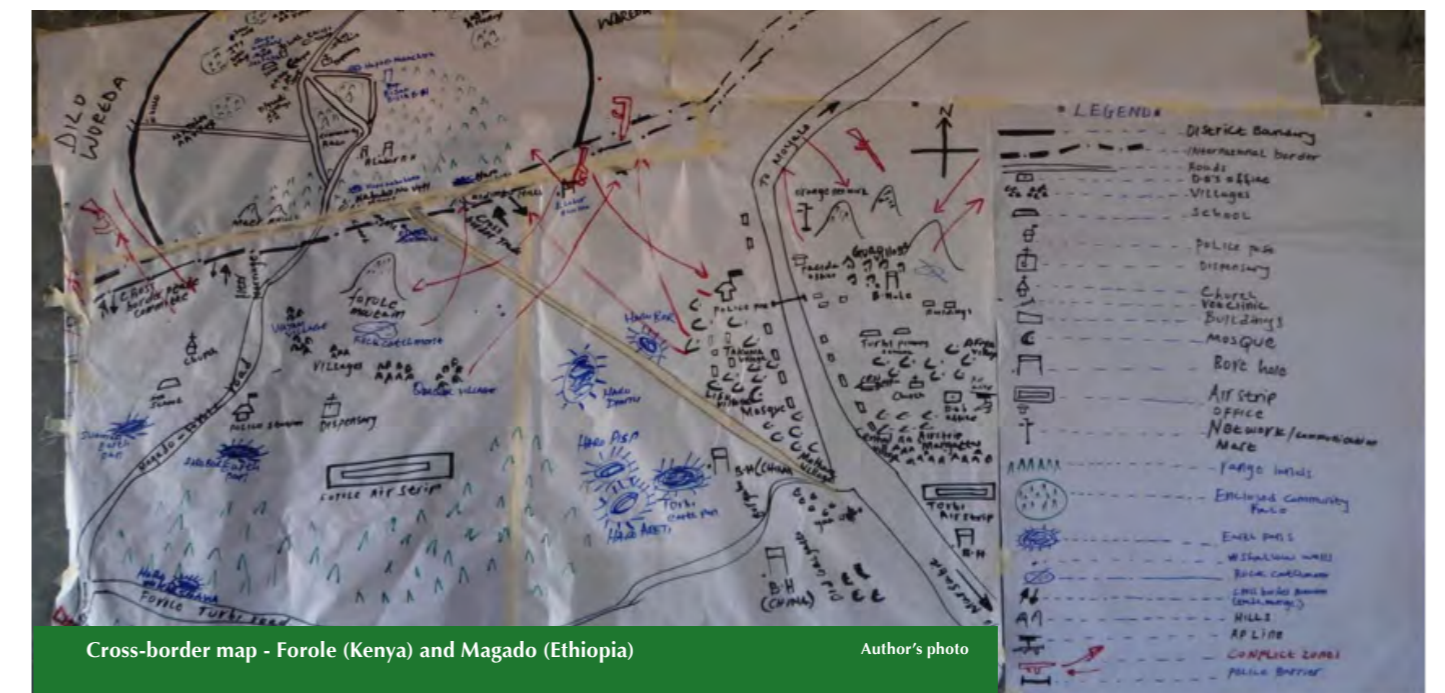
It was anticipated that the cross-border focus of the CMDRR exercise would help demonstrate that programming can benefit considerably from joint participatory planning by cross-border communities. Often cross-border programmes focus on implementation and coordination—for example concurrent vaccination during drought and conflict resolution interventions at the peak of conflicts—but they do not involve communities in planning together from the start. The exercise would also demonstrate that harmonized cross-border contingency plans, supported by shared early warning information, are critical for linking community initiatives to government emergency response strategies—thereby reducing the damage from drought and building future resilience.

Kenya and Ethiopia lack a specific harmonized policy document for promoting cross-border programming, but draft DRM national policies, the AU Pastoral Policy Framework and the IGAD declarations on Ending Drought Emergencies, all encourage more collaboration and partnership along the borders. There are also encouraging developments in decentralized planning including financial resource management at local levels.

In Ethiopia contingency planning is highly appreciated at the Federal and Regional levels of administration, and will be rolled-out at woreda and kebele levels in the near future. In Kenya the National Drought Management Authority is already active, and will be linking community initiatives to county contingency and development plans. These are promising developments, if backed by adequate resources and linked to cross-border planning processes.

#### The Process

The Cordaid and IIRR process of practicing, documenting and then reflecting on the four CMDRR steps began with a peer-facilitated 2-day 'training of trainers' course for 21 facilitators in September 2012, followed by a 5-day practical exercise with selected cross-border pastoralist communities in Marsabit North and Sololo Districts in Kenya, and in Dire and Miyo woredas in Ethiopia. The selected communities (Torbi, Forole, Funanqumbi and Golole in Kenya, and Magado, Meti and Teso in Ethiopia) reflected the complexities and dynamics of the pastoral livestock-based economy across the national border. The communities share common strategic resources, have long reciprocal resource use arrangements, and share a common culture and language. They have also been exposed to similar effects of recurrent drought.



Cross-border map - Forole (Kenya) and Magado (Ethiopia)

Author's photo

#### Lessons learnt

a) *Participants and NGO staff need to be well selected and well informed*

The general rule in Participatory Drought Risk Assessment (PDRA) is to involve as many community participants as possible. However, this exercise showed that carefully selected community members from each of the cross-border communities could facilitate the process just as effectively. Local leadership and peace committee representation was found to be essential. Having effective participants also made it easier for subsequent validation of the development and contingency plans by the rest of the community members.

The NGO staff members who facilitate the exercise need to be well informed—requiring a good knowledge of the area, the communities and the cross-border issues. During the exercise it was observed that the project staff's understanding of the local social, economic and political context (i.e. culture, livestock and commodity trade ties, resource utilization, and management by local governments through partnership and collaboration), was crucial for effective facilitation of the discussions and comprehending the communities' thinking.

b) *Facilitators and stakeholders can both learn from a joint exercise*

The ECHO DRRAP partners (FAO, COOPI and CARE), the government staff from the National Drought Management Authority and the Drought Management Initiative, the project staff, and Cordaid's partners (PACIDA, RACIDA-K, RACIDA-E, HODI, CIFA-K, CIFA-E, ACORD, IIRR and MID-P), all participated in the cross-border PDRA exercise. They reported that they found the process:

- Improved their facilitation skills
- Created a common understanding of terminologies and process
- Facilitated learning and cross pollination of ideas
- Helped identify areas for useful standardisation, e.g. uniform visual presentation of the various Drought Cycle Management stages, EWI and thresholds
- Allowed policy and government strategic issues to be articulated and discussed
- Promoted buy-in by stakeholders to the PDRA process and its outputs

### *c) Resource and social mapping in cross-border communities needs to be done carefully*

The purpose of facilitating community resource and social mapping in CMDRR is to develop community owned baseline data (a community fact sheet). This baseline data should be further enriched through the collection of secondary information and subjected to triangulation. During the cross-border PDRA exercise, data was collected for each political and administrative unit on the type, number and status of:

- Critical facilities (water, health, education, markets, veterinary services),
- Productive assets,
- Infrastructure (roads, financial services, telephones, energy sources),
- Natural resources, as well as the disaggregated population of each cross-border cluster (age, sex, economic activities, etc).

The exercise confirmed that, during a mapping exercise that involves a cross-border area covering two or more communities, it is essential to make sure everyone participates. When focusing on the resources of one of the communities a representative of that community should undertake the lead role of the facilitator. The partner organization staff should be carefully observing underlying issues, like border disputes and resource competition, so they can be followed up later. Existing cross-border economic activities, cultural assimilation, shared systems and collaborating community organizations, should be depicted within the maps on the border of the communities,

in order to signify commonalities and existing collaborative efforts—e.g. peace committees, marriage, common resources, currency used in the two countries etc.

### *d) Adapted stakeholder analysis can identify lessons across communities and identify future options*

During the PDRA exercise each community within a cross-border cluster conducted separate stakeholder analyses. The analyses were also divided into internal and external stakeholders. Identifying internal community organizations helps to identify synergies, inter-relationships and coordination gaps, so as to consolidate efforts both internally and across border communities. The community learned from problems experienced by other community institutions, as well as the successes of the more sustainable institutions. The information generated provided the basis for the community organization capacity development plan. The analysis of external stakeholders identified which NGOs are active amongst the two clusters of communities along the border, and helps identify opportunities for: joint coordination; future joint resource mobilization; and what cross-border interventions should be prioritised with potential support.

### *e) Joint cross-border development plans are valued by communities*

It was found that cross-border communities prefer joint development planning, but pursue the results separately with their respective governments/active stakeholders for resource allocation. Having joint development and contingency plans can give communities more leverage in influencing/prioritizing external stakeholders' intervention plans, and possibly the long term programmes and strategies of the external stakeholders.

### *f) Contingency plans need to be community-friendly*

Facilitators need to engage with the communities to set their Early Warning Indicators (EWIs) and the thresholds for the various stages of the hazard (normal/no drought, alert, alarm and emergency). The community can also provide information on the community institutions likely to be responsible for monitoring the local indicators. For EWIs at the community level it is advisable to use or adapt environmental indicators (natural resource conditions,

mobility, livestock body condition, attempts to access insecure and abandoned resources, use of restricted parks and reserves etc). These are indicators that the community can easily understand and relate to the drought stages.

### *g) Social capital is an important element in addressing community vulnerability*

One final and more general lesson learnt from the cross-border PDRA process relates to social capital. It was learnt that social capital (social norms, trust and networking), plays a significant role in addressing community vulnerabilities—especially during emergency and recovery periods. Communities along a border often share the same culture and have long standing trust. The relevance and likelihood of cross-border programming being successful in homogenous communities—such as pastoralists sharing a specific geographical location (e.g. Borana/Borana; Borana/Gabra; Somali/Somali)—is very high, due to their social bonds governed by ethnic ties, long standing trust and repeated interactions. Harmonized development plans serve as the foundation for resilience building, and both the development and the contingency plan must also draw from the existing community organisation and social linkages.

## Conclusions

Cross-border programming is not only feasible but is an effective approach in identifying measures for reducing drought risk along common national borders. It can best be achieved through engaging communities and the relevant sector offices from the very beginning—at the planning stage of a programme. Stakeholders who work along borders need to ensure that their programming takes into account the existing cross-border dynamics, recognising in particular that:

- Cross-border communities have similar informal EWIs that can easily be linked to the formal government EWIs;
- The drought contingency plans of two pastoral communities living side by side across a national border will have similarities that can create opportunities for joint planning, collaboration, and joint actions;
- The community development plans of bordering communities need to emphasize development and efficient management of common natural resources, and the strengthening of reciprocal use of natural resources.

Compared to segregated conventional development programming, joint planning of cross-border drought risk reduction programming has a number of added advantages. Firstly it can contribute to the sustainable use of range resources (mainly water and pasture) by:

- Taking stock of cross-border vulnerabilities and existing capacities/resources thereby reducing competition and facilitating long term reciprocal use of resources;
- Allowing communities to jointly decide on the location of new strategic facilities for sustainable utilisation of natural resources;
- Developing communities' proactive attitude to resource use and management.

Secondly joint planning can also recognise and enhance existing trade and cultural/social linkages, and strengthen relations and collaboration between local and national governments across the borders.

Finally it is important that stakeholders in areas straddling national boundaries showcase the advantages of cross-border community level planning processes, and how this can enhance effectiveness of interventions regardless of the development approaches used. Learning should be fed into policy development and implementation. Given that different stakeholders may operate in different ways it is particularly important in cross border areas that multi-stakeholder co-ordination is promoted. Partners planning to facilitate similar processes in future are encouraged to include all key development actors (government and NGOs).

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Pastoralist communities share borders and have strong social bonds.





## Giving Voice to Disaster Affected Communities in Turkana & East Pokot, Kenya: The People First Impact Method (P-FiM)

Gerry McCarthy and Paul O'Hagan, PFiM

Not all agencies manage to establish good communication with the communities they work with. This article introduces the People First Impact Method as a means of avoiding organisational bias, and revealing valuable insights from communities at the frontline of disasters. The findings are based on several inter-agency exercises conducted in 2012.



A P-FiM exercise reveals feelings and values

P-FiM

### The P-FiM Impact Method

The People First Impact Method (P-FiM) was developed to encourage communities to express their views on what is most important to them, i.e. what they see as working or not working, and who or what is responsible, and expressing this information in relation to their lives. The starting point is the communities themselves, not the organisations involved or the projects underway. A P-FiM exercise is delivered with personnel who are from the area, speak the language and know the culture.

A P-FiM exercise takes 4 days, including training, fieldwork and the collation of results. Typically, personnel of 15 to 30 agencies will participate in an individual exercise i.e. government, NGOs, UN, faith organisations, CBOs and local businesses. Inter-agency teams of three (a facilitator, reporter and observer) will be identified. They will meet with groups of community representatives, e.g. 12 teams will meet with 12 groups. The depth of discussion reveals both quantitative (what has happened), and qualitative (how people relate to what has happened), verifiable information that will inform the P-FiM report. An additional day may be added for further focussed discussion with the same communities and inter-agency teams, on issues emerging from the P-FiM exercise, e.g. drought mitigation measures,

communication within the community, policy issues, use of natural resources, service provision, sustainability of development efforts, care of vulnerable groups etc.

P-FiM reports include: narrative reports, impact and attribution graphs, community statements, and alignment of sectoral budget expenditure with impacts (when such agency information is made available). The result is an in-depth profile of how a community views and relates to issues that matter most to it, and who or what is responsible. The findings allow communities, agencies, governments and donors to know 'if they are doing things right, and are doing the right things.' P-FiM reports are valuable for making policy more effective and also for strategy development.

### A goal-free inter-agency approach

In March and June 2012, 66 Kenyan staff from 40 organisations carried out P-FiM exercises in Turkana and East Pokot districts. 376 community members (229 women and girls and 147 men and boys) from 21 livelihood groups participated, drawn from varied locations. Community groups led discussions and identified their important issues over the past two-year period, and who or what was responsible. The inter-agency teams facilitated, observed

4 East Pokot <http://www.alnap.org/resource/6495.aspx>; Turkana <http://www.alnap.org/resource/6494.aspx>

and recorded the discussions and statements made by the groups.

Staff trainers first received two days of training on P-FiM, covering communication, open questioning techniques, listening skills, understanding bias, integrated human development etc. Training on P-FiM was essential to identify the stages and quality of interpersonal communication within community groups, and to recognise and accurately record quantitative and qualitative impact statements. On the morning of day three the trainees (now team facilitators) were deployed in their teams of 3 to meet their community groups. The approach demonstrated to both the communities and the agencies that agencies can work together effectively. Discussions moved quickly from factual quantitative statements to animated expressions of feelings and values. Statements were recorded and read back to the interviewees to ensure accuracy. Groups discussed between 4 to 6 issues over a period of 4 hours, with a refreshment break.

Immediately following the exercise each team made a record of the community statements categorising them according to group and place; adults (M&F), youth (M&F) and girls & boys; whether the impact statement and effect was positive, negative or neutral; and who/what was responsible (e.g. NGO, government, community).

The level of communication recorded as being factual or feelings and emotions. The teams then presented their findings in plenary to other interviewers for discussion and clarification without altering the community statements. The recorded feedback and written statements were then used to compose the P-FiM reports.

### The identification and attribution of impacts

Participants in the 21 groups provided 130 impact statements categorised as positive, negative or neutral. Communities were able to attribute what and whom they see as the causes of change in their lives. These drivers of impact are the results of humanitarian interventions, and by wider events and actors within the context of their lives. They were attributed to the usual players within a humanitarian response: Community, Government, the Kenyan Red Cross Society, UN Agencies, Non-Governmental Organisations, Faith Organisations, businesses and other wider events (e.g. drought, disease and conflict). Direct links were made from the community's perspective on what did and did not work.

The graphs below show (a) the most important positive impact differences in Turkana, (b) the most important negative impact differences in East Pokot, and (c) who or what caused the most important positive, negative and neutral impact changes in Turkana.

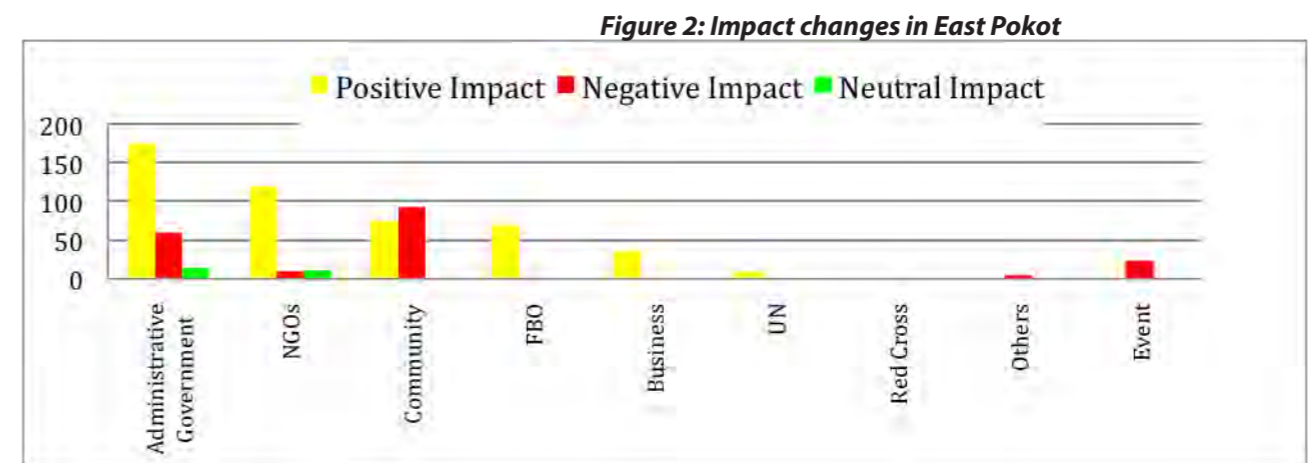
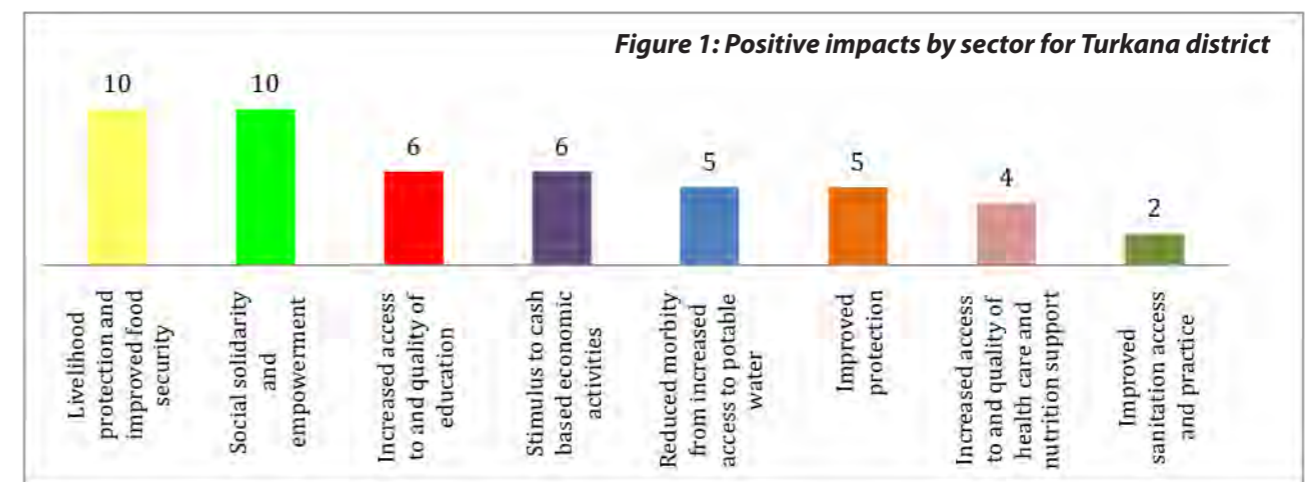
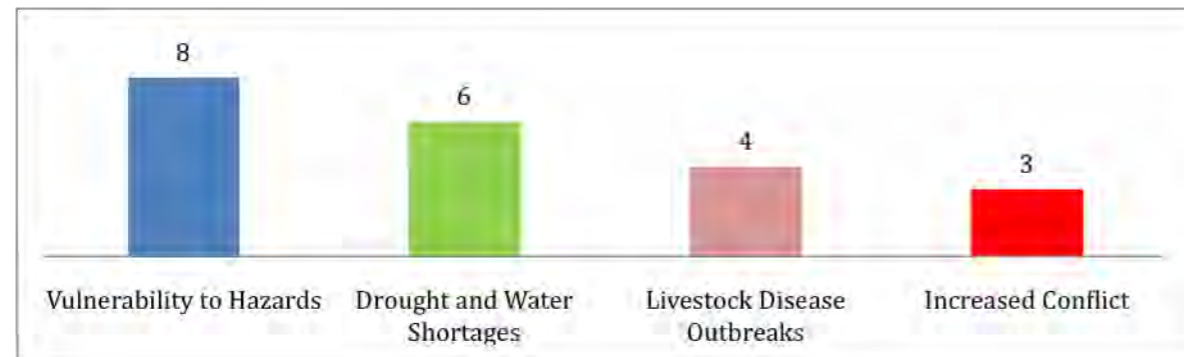


Figure 3: Impact attribution in Turkana



### The community's perspective

The results of the exercises strongly affirmed the need to use REGLAP's good practice principles on community development for CMDRR – especially the importance of putting the community first and the need for in-depth local knowledge for appropriate and cost-effective humanitarian action ... "Our approach is all too often top-down, driven by perceptions of donor or organisational risk, and not sufficiently based on a clear understanding of the communities' own perceptions of risk." The importance of ... "linking impact measurement and accountability better to the funds agencies receive" was also highlighted. The importance of the voice of the community, a critical link in the overall humanitarian and development approach, is self-evident, but is often missing or undervalued by agencies.

While the PFiM reports provide important insights into community perspectives in each location, they also provide comparisons on how humanitarian and development actors are responding differently to the similar challenges faced by communities in Turkana and East Pokot districts. There are important issues and stark contrasts, for example:

- The number of agencies operating in Turkana was much greater compared to East Pokot, even though both areas face similar challenges;
- The need for basic infrastructure was strongly stated in both areas as essential for building local resilience;
- Blanket relief handouts are undermining community resilience and local business development;
- The need to address child rights e.g. FGM, labour abuse, early marriage, lack of access to services etc. was felt strongly in both communities
- While HIV-AIDS is being addressed positively in Turkana there were no HIV-AIDS support groups in communities in East Pokot District.

### Long-term engagement is valued most

Both communities provided valuable insights into what is or is not working, and who is responsible. They were critical and insightful in a constructive and mature way. They spoke in pragmatic (quantitative) terms about work

done, and passionately (qualitatively) about how they felt in relation to both positive and negative impacts. They mentioned several positive examples of agencies doing good work, and these tended to be agencies with long-term engagement and strong local knowledge—including faith organisations and government line ministries.

In Turkana, for example, people felt that food aid was trapping them in dependency, and this was echoed by agency staff: "Our projects are making our own people dependent." Overall people want sustainable support – especially information on establishing, developing and maintaining their livelihoods. The entrepreneurial spirit and drive for self-reliance was obvious. Groups spoke with passion about beekeeping, irrigated crop production, improved fishing etc. as examples of self-reliance, but they wanted the right kind of support to develop these. "We are heading somewhere and have shown we can move forward – we are developing." They want to participate in the planning and policy development that impacts their livelihoods, so that they as communities can benefit most from their own natural resources.

### Broader understanding is needed

The impact results call for a much greater understanding of the factors influencing livelihood choices and income diversification, including pastoralism. The issue of 'migration' and 'forced migration' was raised a lot, underlying the desire to have alternative or additional livelihoods. Cash transfers were reported to be working well in Turkana, but have not yet been tried in East Pokot. Within a discussion group of vulnerable children in Lodwar, senior teachers were taken aback by the experiences of struggle faced by children in their school. Insecurity is a major issue in both Turkana and East Pokot. Both communities constantly raised the need for basic infrastructure, correct information and appropriate support services and structures.

### Conclusions

Communities in the front line of disasters have deep insights and understanding of their context: Strategies and policies should be directly informed by these communities so that they are locally owned. Good new ideas should always be fully communicated and discussed with communities to ensure that they are appropriate and adapted to the local context: Some agencies are getting this communication right and some are not. The socio, economic and political life of communities is rich and varied, and they know who

and what works best for them. It is the organisations that have long-term, relevant relationships with communities that are often getting it right as they understand and respect the local context. This should be the norm, not the exception.

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People want sustainable support for maintaining their livelihoods

P-FIM.



5 See: <http://www.disasterreduction.net/east-central-africa/library/?category=goodpracticeprinciples&reglap=1>

6 RHPT and IAWG Round Table discussion report, 1<sup>st</sup> of March 2012

7 DFID 2011, Humanitarian Emergency Response Review

8 Beekeepers in East Pokot

### Learning from the 2011 drought response: The Importance of Integrity and Accountability in Food Assistance Programmes

Nicolas Seris, Programme Coordinator, Humanitarian Aid Programme,  
Transparency International Kenya

*Over the last decade there has been increased focus on integrity, accountability and transparency in the implementation of humanitarian aid programmes. Humanitarian organizations have made efforts to strengthen their systems to address corruption risks, and to enhance accountability mechanisms. However, an analysis of the 2011 drought response conducted by Transparency International Kenya (TI Kenya) demonstrates that serious challenges and gaps remain.*



Lolupe, Turkana

For several years food aid has represented the largest component of emergency response in Kenya. In 2011, 3.75 million Kenyans were affected by food shortages, prompting the Government of Kenya and the international

community to launch a national response effort. It was against this background that TI Kenya, with the collaboration of government and non-state humanitarian actors, conducted a study on the integrity of food aid provision during the 2011 drought response.<sup>9</sup>

The TI study highlighted integrity and accountability mechanisms governing the delivery of food assistance and food security programmes in Kenya, and analysed the risks pertaining to different types of these (i.e. food distribution interventions, vouchers and direct cash transfer programmes). It identified gaps and loopholes that could allow the diversion of aid and/or prevent access to food by targeted beneficiaries. It also made recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of food assistance in Kenya.

#### Methodology

The TI study was conducted through desk research, key informant interviews in Nairobi and the Arid and Semi Arid Lands (ASALs), and also focus group discussions with communities receiving food assistance in Wajir, West Pokot and Turkana counties. It was carried out between September and December 2011. The study was conducted with the close cooperation of key actors in the sector, namely the Government of Kenya, the United Nations, as well as humanitarian and donor organisations.

#### Key Findings

##### 1. In-kind food aid is the most susceptible to corruption

The study sought to establish the risks facing different food assistance instruments in Kenya—namely general food aid (in-kind), cash transfers and voucher programmes. The vast majority of respondents perceived in-kind food

<sup>9</sup> [http://www.transparency.org/files/content/pressrelease/2012\\_TIKenya\\_FoodAssistanceIntegrityStudy.pdf](http://www.transparency.org/files/content/pressrelease/2012_TIKenya_FoodAssistanceIntegrityStudy.pdf)

aid distribution as attracting the highest level of risk in terms of achieving an effective, efficient, accountable and transparent response. Food aid was also considered to be more prone to risks than other 'in-kind' distributions, largely due to its scale and the weaknesses in its transparency and accountability mechanisms. For example food aid can be diverted physically through transport and storage, and diverted indirectly through the manipulation of targeting and registration. The cash transfer programmes undertaken in Kenya were perceived as being less prone to corruption, due to the strong accountability systems in place and the reliance on electronic disbursement channels.

##### 2. The politicisation of food assistance

The study noted that there was evidence that political leaders, local elites and local relief committees influence the targeting and selection of beneficiaries, which raises questions about fairness. With regard to personnel recruitment, concerns were raised about internal pressures and political interferences towards employing staff from certain communities. There were also risks and challenges in the transportation of food aid, partly due to political influence in procuring the trucking companies, and transportation costs not being adequately resourced by the Government thus increasing the likelihood of food rations being looted and sold, or both, as a form of payment.

##### 3. Failure to respond to early warning signals

The lack of response to early warning signals led to a late, rushed, and politically pressured response in Kenya. Some organisations struggled to put strong procedures in place in the limited time available for scaling up of their operations. This heightened risks of corruption—especially, but not limited to, the recruitment and procurement of goods and services—thus compromising the quality and effectiveness of their response.

##### 4. Weak coordination processes and policies

Another challenge to transparent and accountable responses was the complicated aid architecture and weak policy oversight in Kenya. The current disaster management and food aid structures—with multiple actors and differing responsibilities—contributed to weakened

responsibility and accountability mechanisms. There was a weak understanding as to “who is doing what and where”, increasing the risk of interventions not prioritising the most needy areas, or duplicating assistance.<sup>10</sup>

##### 5. Poor communication and information flow

This was also highlighted as a main gap, including inadequate information on the management of the strategic grain reserves, as well as poor communication on forecasts of significant pipeline breaks and food distribution problems. A general concern is that without clear information on the number of actors involved, how much food is intended, the timeframe for receiving it, and the responsibilities of the various actors in the distribution chain, the opportunities for diversion of food away from its intended beneficiaries become bigger.

##### 6. Participation and accountability to beneficiaries

The study found that there are now important investments in beneficiary accountability mechanisms in the ASALs. These systems are not only improving programming—but by providing more transparent and accountable systems to capture concerns of beneficiaries—but can also offer a broader range of possibilities for communities to exercise their rights and entitlements. There are now more creative and innovative approaches with longer-term objectives and a means of coordinating with other assistance providers (as opposed to complaints boxes or one-off post distribution monitoring exercises), which create greater learning between organisations and improved ownership among a wide range of community stakeholders.

#### Key recommendations from the study

1. All service providers in food aid should carry out a joint analysis of corruption-related risks regarding different food assistance instruments (in-kind, voucher and cash transfers), and identify mitigation measures and processes for joint monitoring of their food assistance programmes.
2. Non-governmental humanitarian organisations should strengthen their preparedness for scaling up interventions, and for addressing corruption risks with partners in advance of emergency responses. In particular this should include supporting better systems for surge capacity of contracted staff, monitoring programmes to increase oversight, and building capacities to scale-up other aspects of programme support. The study also calls for better coordination of beneficiaries' complaint and accountability processes to support communities in reporting diversion and malpractices in humanitarian assistance. This will help avoid multiple reporting structures for beneficiaries and enhance community ownership.
3. The Government of Kenya should embrace the letter

<sup>10</sup> It is important to note that important reforms and policies have recently been enacted in areas of governance, ASAL development and drought management, which should lead to improvements in coordination at the central and district/county levels in the future.

and spirit of 'the right to information', as espoused in the Constitution of Kenya (2010), in carrying out food assistance programmes. It should adopt a proactive stance by providing more regular, accurate and timely information to the public on the response effort; the resources raised and disbursed; the food allocations; and the delays and changes in rations. It is also imperative that the government evaluates its response to the 2011 drought, to establish a baseline of performance measures, and to share lessons learned to improve future responses.

4. Donor agencies should promote transparent reporting of corruption cases and related challenges by partner organisations, and increase resource investments for field monitoring, downward accountability mechanisms, and forensic audits.

#### Next Steps

In the coming two years Transparency International Kenya is committed to continue its work with its humanitarian aid partners, including the Government of Kenya, the Kenya Red Cross Society, UN agencies, NGOs, development partners and beneficiaries of humanitarian aid in the ASAL regions. The second phase of the programme is to build on the key findings and recommendations of the study, structured around its three main components: advocacy, capacity building and community empowerment.

A national advocacy strategy, as well as three specific county advocacy strategies, will be drafted in cooperation with humanitarian partners. This will prioritise the advocacy focus at the national level and in Wajir, West Pokot and Turkana, and seek synergies, alliances and joint tactics among different stakeholders.

Capacity building and best practices exchange workshops, for humanitarian aid and government employees, will be conducted in the three counties in order to raise awareness of the risk of corruption in the implementation of aid programmes, as well as to propose mitigation measures. This will also be an opportunity for different stakeholders to share their experiences and tools to enhance programming accountability mechanisms.

Finally, TI Kenya will work in partnership with local partners to raise beneficiaries' awareness on identified corruption risks, and to build their capacity to monitor aid and basic services projects implemented in their communities. Social auditors will be trained within communities to hold service providers accountable, and to report suspected cases of corruption. TI Kenya will also pilot—together with humanitarian partners, district/county authorities and relevant institutions—integrated feedback mechanisms for enhancing effective, timely and adequate responses to beneficiaries. This will take place in selected sub locations in Wajir, West Pokot and Turkana Counties.

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## Improving Livestock Assets in Karamoja and Pokot through Increasing Communication, Coordination and Budgeting for Animal Health

Lisa Baumgartner, Drought Preparedness Consortium Coordinator – Dan Church Aid, Uganda

*When appropriately supported the pastoral production systems in the dryland areas of Karamoja (Uganda) and Pokot (Kenya) can be resilient to disasters, such as drought, and can contribute significantly to livelihoods in the region. This article introduces a set of initiatives that have focused on animal health as a key determinant of resilience.*



Animal health interventions build resilience and strengthen livelihoods

C&D

It is estimated that 80% of households own livestock in the Karamoja sub-region of Uganda, and that this represents approximately 20% of the national cattle herd, 16% of the goats, 50% of the sheep, 90% of the donkeys and almost all of the camels. It has been calculated that Karamoja, and the 2.4% of Uganda's population that lives there, produces close to 20% of Uganda's livestock output by value.<sup>11</sup> The Karamoja region also acts as a conduit for cattle movements from Kenya and Sudan into the rest of Uganda. However these movements can also bring disease and therefore the region needs to be targeted for disease control interventions to prevent their spread into other parts of Uganda and beyond. With livestock from Karamoja playing such a central role in the livelihoods of the region and the national economy, improved animal health is a necessity for the region to develop, and for households to become more resilient and prepared for the onset of disasters. Access to animal health services, skilled veterinary staff, and timely and effective livestock disease surveillance are important components for improved animal health.

A Dan Church Aid (DCA) led Consortium<sup>12</sup> has undertaken three initiatives that underscore the vital role that animal health plays in the Karamoja region. These initiatives are the Quarterly Information Sharing and Advocacy Meetings

on Animal Health,<sup>13</sup> the creation of a Cross-Border Animal Health Committee,<sup>14</sup> and advocacy with the Ministry for Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries (MAAIF) for mainstreaming budgets for these activities. The Institute for International Co-operation and Development (C&D) implements the first activity, the second activity is implemented by ACTED in conjunction with FAO, while the third activity is implemented by C&D and DCA.

The first two initiatives are similar in that they both focus on improving communication and information sharing/dissemination between and within governments (national and local), research institutions, academic institutions and veterinary professionals. Through this increase in knowledge exchange and coordination, the activities are contributing to a wider body of knowledge that is providing evidence for, and raising awareness about, the importance of increasing government spending on animal health in Karamoja.

### Quarterly Information Sharing and Advocacy Meetings

One of C&D's main activities surrounding animal health in Karamoja has been to build the capacity of the District Veterinary Officers (DVOs) to undertake livestock disease surveillance (LDS) in the region. With the support of the Karamoja Veterinary Laboratory (also run by C&D and supported with ECHO funds), C&D and DVOs were able

<sup>11</sup> All statistics in this paragraph are taken from: Behnke, Roy & Nakirya, Margaret, 2012. Odessa Centre & Uganda Bureau of Statistics. The Contribution of Livestock to the Ugandan Economy.

<sup>12</sup> The DCA Consortium is made up of C&D, ACTED, and Caritas Moroto. It has been operating in Karamoja and Pokot since 2007.

<sup>13</sup> Funded by ECHO

<sup>14</sup> Funded by ECHO and the EU

to collect, test and analyse 5,065 samples from animals in 2011. The information generated from such exercises is crucial for ensuring early detection and control of animal diseases, thereby facilitating the planning of appropriate interventions and minimising potential negative impacts on national pastoral economies, food security and trade.

To ensure that the data collected could be discussed and disseminated to all relevant stakeholders, C&D began carrying out Quarterly Information Sharing and Advocacy Meetings. These meetings brought together District Veterinary Officers, District (human) Health Officers, district Chief Administrative Officers and political leaders from the districts, as well as representatives from MAAIF, the Uganda Veterinary Association (UVA), the National Agricultural Research Organisation (NARO), Makerere University School of Veterinary Medicine, FAO, the Karamoja Livelihoods Programme (KALIP), the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI), and other actors concerned with animal health.

In addition to the dissemination of livestock disease surveillance information to stakeholders, these events provided excellent forums for the exchange of ideas and the promotion of awareness about livestock in Karamoja. The meetings enabled a wide range of actors to recognise the significance of veterinary services and disease surveillance in the livelihoods of the Karimojong people. Substantial time was devoted to debating and lobbying with political leaders on issues related to regional animal health and livestock development. Many participants praised these events as innovative and successful, for their ability to bring together different players in the animal health and production sectors, for sharing information with political leaders, and for properly informing development and contingency planning. Through these meetings the many stakeholders in animal health in Uganda are now better informed about the situation in Karamoja, and are able to plan, act and respond in more effective ways.

### Cross-Border Animal Health Committee

The Cross-Border Animal Health Committee grew out of an initial meeting that was held in Amudat District (which borders Kenya) in August 2011. The meeting was organized by ACTED with support from FAO, and brought together DVOs from both sides of the Uganda-Kenya border to discuss how to improve animal health through cross-border activities and a shared strategy. This first meeting confirmed interest from both sides of the border in increasing cross-border activities, planning and action. Further meetings were held in Nairobi and Kampala, in September and November 2011 respectively, with ACTED and FAO support. These meetings evolved into a broader and more inclusive group of participants: Not only were DVOs from Karamoja, West Pokot and Turkana districts involved, but national government actors were also present - represented through MAAIF in Uganda and the Ministry of Livestock

Development in Kenya. The meetings reconfirmed at the national level the importance of cross-border animal health cooperation, and led to the commitment to create a Cross-Border Animal Health Committee to focus, and strategically direct, communication and action on cross-border animal health issues at the Uganda-Kenya border.

The most recent meeting was held in Kampala in August 2012, and focused on finalizing a Memorandum of Understanding between the Ugandan and Kenyan Governments to officially create a Cross-Border Animal Health Committee. The creation of this committee is the first step in dramatically improving the communication between livestock authorities, and it is hoped it will lead to improved coordination and response to trans-boundary animal diseases. The MoU recognizes that both national policies and regional strategies and frameworks (including those supported by AU-IBAR, IGAD, EAC) mandate communication and coordination on cross-border livestock issues. There is great potential for this Committee to improve the animal health conditions at the border and between countries, as well as positively impact security and livestock trade in the region. The MoU is slated to be signed in the first half of 2013 and will mark a major achievement, committing to the animal health needs of the populations in Karamoja, Pokot and Turkana.

### Animal Health Budgeting Advocacy

The final initiative concerns increasing financial support to animal health interventions in Karamoja. Currently the majority of the Livestock Disease Surveillance and laboratory activities in the region are reliant on donor funds. As livestock is central to the livelihoods of the Karamoja population, and has the power to be a substantial contributor to Uganda's GDP, having healthy livestock populations is critical to national economic growth. In response, DCA and C&D are working with the MAAIF to ensure that the financial and human resources for animal health, specifically for the Karamoja region, are increased within the Ministry. If sustained advocacy initiatives are successful, it is hoped that the Government of Uganda will take on funding and effectively managing the animal health needs in Karamoja.

In summary, these three initiatives are all building upon the technical disease surveillance and laboratory work to go further, and to increase and improve the communication, coordination and action on animal health issues both within Uganda and between Uganda and Kenya. Healthy livestock populations are part and parcel of productive, well developed communities, and these initiatives are contributing to just that.

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## Ecosystem Recovery and Climate Change Adaptation through Community Based Resource Management - Ga'an Libah, Somaliland

Geno Teofilo, Oxfam Somalia

*A resource management intervention in Somaliland has rescued a valuable highland ecosystem and seems to have re-established the community's resilience to drought. This article demonstrates how community-based rehabilitation, with only a modest budget, can make a significant impact.*



Candlelight

Although once fertile land, Ga'an Libah became increasingly arid and barren.

### The loss of a highland ecosystem

The Ga'an Libah highland area of central Somaliland was renowned for its juniper forests, bountiful wildlife, and spectacular scenery. Strategically wedged between the three main urban centres of Hargeisa, Berbera and Burao, Ga'an Libah reaches an altitude of 1718m. The ecosystem of the highland plateau was maintained by moisture brought from heavy mists and lengthy periods of fog that occurred mostly during the cold season. The Somali communities that lived in this region followed a sustainable lifestyle: pastoralists and agro-pastoralists practiced seasonal mobility and livestock production in harmony with the environment and available resources, and followed traditional use rights under tribal controls. The mountain region was important not only to its highland communities, but also to those living in the nearby lowlands to the north and south, where more than a dozen villages and settlements depended on the seasonal water courses originating from the mountain. Ga'an Libah was first recognized as an ecologically important zone by the British colonial administration in the 1950s. The administration initiated soil and water conservation, grazing management, forest protection and reforestation work.

The highland area began to suffer with the outbreak of civil war in Somalia in 1988. As conflict engulfed the region the resource management system (both traditional and government) that had been in place for decades, disintegrated. Indiscriminate cutting of mountain trees resulted in the thinning of tree cover, grazing land became overused, and the environment became severely damaged. The transhumance of pastoralists, which in the past had made possible the resting of grazing land, now no longer took place. These negative effects were worsened by the impact of increases in temperatures and reduced precipitation: When the rains did arrive, the lack

of vegetation resulted in an increase in run-off and soil erosion.

With the ending of the civil war the communities who had been displaced by the conflict returned to Ga'an Libah. They found the remaining trees and grasslands to be overgrazed by the herds of the returning pastoralists, and those of new families. Private enclosures on the formerly open rangeland in the areas surrounding the mountain resulted in more grazing pressure on the mountain area itself. With fodder becoming scarce, herds became emaciated, and herd sizes declined, resulting in a loss of income and livelihoods. As a new coping strategy some households turned to harvesting the wood of the Acacia trees for charcoal, resulting in further reduction of water effectiveness, escalation of soil erosion, gully formation and increased desertification on the mountain. This once thriving ecosystem saw drastic environmental degradation and the loss of its herds of natural wildlife.

### Environmental recovery

An assessment of the mountain, commissioned by the World Conservation Union (IUCN) in 2000, comprehensively reported on the solutions needed to revive Ga'an Libah's environment. The report highlighted the need for soil erosion control measures through the construction of bunds, and for stone terracing to minimize water runoff and increase the moisture regime. The IUCN report also identified the need to revive the grazing management system that had existed previously—when pastoralists had left grazing land to recover during the rainy season and only reopened it during the dry season. The IUCN study laid the groundwork for discussions with the local people and the administration so as to empower them to manage the mountain's natural resources more effectively.

In 2001 Oxfam Novib and Candlelight recognized both the ecological and economic importance of the mountain, and that the community there was suffering. A long-term initiative was designed to mitigate the continuing environmental degradation of this important ecosystem. It would also improve the socio-economic wellbeing of the local community by enhancing the ecological sustainability of the natural resource base for resource-dependent production systems.

Oxfam Novib and Candlelight used the IUCN recommendations as the basis for a participatory, community-based, resource management intervention. Oxfam Novib supplied the funding, along with training and oversight; and as the implementing partner Candlelight was in charge of social mobilization and rehabilitation activities—working directly with the community. Candlelight began by meeting with the community elders and discussing programme implementation. A field office was established in the community to facilitate coordination. With Candlelight's supervision and guidance the majority of the rehabilitation work was done by members of the community.

### Rehabilitation activities and their impact

The Ga'an Libah intervention area covers approximately 240 km<sup>2</sup>, and incorporates the mist forest (which has been receding to the northwest) where higher mist levels are still present during the cold season. Towards the eastern side of the mountain are open grazing lands. The highland plateau's northern side is characterized by rocky cliffs, which fall abruptly towards the coast. The massif is uplifted limestone. The rehabilitation activities carried out in the area include: land area coverage demarcation, dirt berm (mound) construction, stone terracing, reforestation, and the creation of a camp for forest guards. A nursery with indigenous plants and trees has also been created to aid the reforestation efforts. As the programme has continued, the role of food for work (FFW) has also become an important component—with the added benefit of filling food insecurity gaps. The programme has acted as a catalyst for further environmental rehabilitation through soil and water conservation activities.

The resource management programme was designed as a long-term project, but it was not long before positive environmental changes became noticeable. After the community constructed dirt berms and stone terraces, runoff from the rains quickly built up sufficient topsoil. After only two rainy seasons there was already new vegetation growing along the lines of the terraces and berms. As the seasons went on, additional soil built up on the terraces and berms leading to increased vegetation. The grasses were thickened with bushes, and trees and shrubs began to thrive again—particularly the East Africa Pencil tree (*Juniperus procera*), Arrow Poison Tree (*Acokanthera schimperi*) and Hopbush (*Dodonaea viscosa*).

The construction of terraces was expanded to continue further down the mountain. Livestock began to benefit from the improved grazing land. It is particularly notable that the recent droughts have had far less effect on the beneficiary communities, in comparison to other neighbouring communities who have not had the benefits of the project. With improved grazing leading to increased livestock body weight, the target community has benefitted from selling their animals at better prices. Many households can now afford to send their children to school. The water levels of the shallow wells on the mountain slopes have also risen. Water effectiveness has also increased as a result of the natural barriers contributing to decreased water runoff, and increased water infiltration.

Ga'an Libah is now seen to be thriving once again. Where the plateau used to be nearly bare, the vegetation is now thick. Even wildlife have returned to the mountain, with cheetahs, gazelles, kudu, baboons, many bird species, and other wildlife returning to the ecosystem. For the local Somali communities around Ga'an Libah, pastoralism has once again become profitable, and with regenerated land now available for grazing, the herds of camels, cattle, sheep and goats have multiplied. Customary grazing management has also been reintroduced.

### Scaling up

Ga'an Libah is only one community, but much of Somaliland and Somalia have similar ecosystems and similar environmental problems. Berm and terrace construction, reforestation, and community-based conservation are low cost interventions, but they can provide sustainable and effective solutions to the environmental difficulties that face Somaliland and Somalia. The project's most recent three-year budget totalled the relatively modest amount of \$460,000.

Cyclical droughts are becoming more frequent and harder hitting than before. The common emergency relief responses adopted by development organizations are often expensive and unsustainable, although necessary in some circumstances. This project, however, has proven that communities with minimal support can build their own resilience to climate change and the effects of drought. The initiative could easily be replicated elsewhere in the country, where communities are bearing the brunt of the combined effects of environmental degradation and climate change. Environmental recovery programmes using these methods have the potential to achieve low cost, high impact benefits for both the environment, and for the local communities that are dependent on it.

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## Improving Livestock Markets in Northern Kenya

Jeff Arensen, Food for the Hungry, Kenya

*FH Kenya's pastoralist livelihoods strategy is founded on the belief that pastoralism is a viable and productive way of life in northern Kenya. The organisation seeks to strengthen livelihoods, and increase resilience, through a focus on improved livestock productivity and improved marketing. This article explains FH Kenya's progress towards creating more sustainable and effective livestock markets.*



The livestock market at Korr

In the ASALs of northern Kenya there are significant barriers and obstacles to improving household income, due to climatic conditions, disabling government policies, poor services, and low terms of trade between livestock products and staple foods. Despite these barriers, a significant proportion of those living in the ASALs retain valuable and profitable assets—in the form of livestock. Pastoral communities in northern Kenya face severe challenges in the marketing of their livestock however, including long distances and poor roads in reaching marketing infrastructure, lack of organized market days, limited connections between traders and livestock owners, and poor market awareness. FH Kenya's livestock marketing initiatives in Marsabit and Isiolo counties are seeking to address these issues through a set of key components that together will contribute to greater sustainability and efficiency of the marketing system.

### Market Locations and Infrastructure

Abandoned and dilapidated livestock markets are a common sight across the ASALs. This is due to a variety of factors including poor placement decisions, weak and corrupt maintenance revenue collection systems that have an impact on infrastructure, lack of ownership, and insecurity.

**Location** - It is critical that decisions on market construction or rehabilitation take into account livestock trade routes—ensuring that markets are situated in viable locations that are accessible to both producers and traders all year round.

Ensuring that there is adequate demand, from both traders and producers, for a market in a certain location is also essential. Critical location factors for producers include: the market being within a reasonable trekking distance; the site being accessible without infringing on other rangelands; and accessible livestock water sources are nearby. The main factor for traders is a road that can accommodate trucks. In addition, market placement must take into account the locations of other markets to ensure they do not undermine each other.

**Infrastructure** - The key infrastructure components of a successful market include:

- Sales yards: confined area within the market where animals are auctioned;
- Loading ramp: sloping incline used to load animals to a carrier/lorry;
- Sanitation: availability of toilets within the markets for people. Also a clean market environment – clean sales yards and ramps;
- Water: availability of a reliable water source near the market;
- Shade: resting area for people and livestock;
- Crushes: facilities for examining or isolating sick animals.

### Key Institutions

FH Kenya does not solely focus on upgrading and maintaining market infrastructure as this would be unsustainable, but instead it utilises a holistic approach

that also strengthens key institutions and actors within the market system.

### Livestock Market Management Committees

Community participation is of primary importance in ensuring that markets are managed efficiently and in a sustainable manner. FH Kenya has been supporting the creation of Livestock Market Management Committees (LMMCs), which are comprised of community representatives responsible for managing their markets. The first step is a meeting held with local leaders and members of registered groups (CBOs and other community groups) in the target area. The objective of the meeting is to introduce the project, assess the need for establishing or rehabilitating the market infrastructure, determine the role of the community in managing the livestock market, and assess the risks—such as environmental and conflict issues that may arise as a result of establishing a market within the community. Then, through a participatory process involving local community leaders, elders, youth, women and line ministry representatives, the role of the management committee and its members are discussed. Approximately 10-12 community members are then selected to be members of an LMMC.

The general selection criteria of LMMC members are as follows:

- Must be a member of an existing registered group with an interest in livestock marketing;<sup>15</sup>
- Must be a livestock owner living in the catchment area;
- Must possess understanding of the dynamics of the area and livestock marketing;
- Must be mature and command respect in community;
- Must have the ability to solve conflict within communities.

In order to ensure the LMMC is inclusive, and represents a range of stakeholders, the following minimum composition is required:

- 2 livestock traders;
- 1 community-based animal health worker (CBAHW);
- 1 peace committee member;
- 1 environmental management committee member;
- 2 representatives of a registered women's group;
- 2 livestock producers.

The composition represents different pastoral livelihood groups, or people involved in activities related to livestock production and markets. Traders and producers represent the interests of their groups in the marketing process. CBAHWs are important in taking care of contagious and other trade-sensitive diseases that arrive with the livestock, and for promptly alerting veterinary authorities. The peace committee members ensure safety of both traders and producers in the market by working closely with security organs. Environmental management committee members monitor natural resource usage around the market area—ensuring that rangelands and water sources are not over-

<sup>15</sup> A member from a registered group will bring more experience to the LMMCs, who must also register with the social services department to meet the legal requirement for LMMCs.

used and advise on trekking routes to the market. Women's group representatives are crucial due to the increasing role of women in livestock marketing.

Once the LMMC is selected their capacity on market management is built up through a series of training workshops. The training covers group dynamics, record keeping (including number and type of animals sold, market fees collected), market promotion, and conflict resolution. The LMMC is then responsible for setting market days and promoting market awareness in the surrounding communities, recording sales data, monitoring and sharing market prices to avoid exploitation of livestock keepers, promoting resolution of disputes, and overseeing maintenance of market infrastructure.

### Co-management model

FH Kenya is currently strengthening the sustainability of the LMMC approach by promoting and piloting a co-management model in two markets in Marsabit County. Here, the LMMCs and County Councils have developed a revenue sharing plan under which revenue (taxes) collected from the market is shared between the LMMC and the County Council. The LMMC splits their portion of revenue between community development projects, market maintenance, and incentive payments to the committee members for their services.

The co-management model promotes the sustainability of markets and ensures improved management as the communities and committee members are incentivized to ensure that the market is run efficiently; and that tax collection and utilisation are transparent and benefit the entire community. Community ownership and participation makes it less likely that people will avoid markets to make informal sales, and the existence and utilization of well organised and managed markets increases sales opportunities—benefiting both producers and traders.

An initial challenge with the model is getting acceptance within local government to share revenue with the committees. The primary incentive for County Councils to agree to the co-management model is the potential for an increase in revenue, even though it is shared with the LMMCs and communities. By involving the LMMC in revenue collection, accountability and monitoring is strengthened, thereby increasing total revenue that benefits both the county council and the community living in the area of the market. The model is already being expanded as Isiolo County has recently begun piloting the approach in two markets, and the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization is promoting it across other ASAL areas.

### Traders

Traders range from small and localised to large and external, and play a critical and influential role in markets. The development of any new market must take into account the types of traders that will most likely engage in the market and ensure they are consulted and included in the market development process. In markets where only a few traders are present, demand for livestock is low, and monopolistic practices are common—reducing the prices that producers receive for their livestock. FH Kenya has been addressing this issue by introducing external traders to markets, resulting in increased competition and expanding opportunities for producers to make more sales. Of critical importance to traders is reliability and consistency within a market. Due to the long distances that many traders must travel to satellite markets in rural areas, it is paramount that they have confidence that a market will function efficiently and consistently with an adequate supply of livestock. FH Kenya helps instil this confidence through exchange visits, where traders establish relationships with LMMCs and producers, and are able to witness the existence of an established market with adequate infrastructure.

### Financial institutions

Another critical issue that limits the scale of livestock marketing in the ASALs is access to financial capital. The limited presence of financial institutions, lack of financial products suited to livestock traders' needs, high interest rates, and lack of knowledge of financial services, have all historically contributed to minimal interaction and reduced opportunities to enhance livestock trade. FH Kenya has been linking livestock traders to financial services and capital through a partnership with Equity Bank, providing livestock related loans through a unique guarantee fund mechanism. The mechanism enables livestock traders to access loans at a low interest rate of 13% per annum, as the fund provides a 25% guarantee against any defaults on loans taken under the scheme. FH Kenya has successfully piloted this guarantee fund with the bank in Marsabit District over the past two years with \$240,000 disbursed through loans, and a repayment rate of 99%. Loan services are also coupled with financial training for traders, which is a key component in the high repayment rate. Loans are primarily used for livestock purchase and transport to sales points (terminal markets, primary markets).

**Table 1: Loans given via Equity Bank 2010-2012**

Total guarantee fund (deposit)	\$27,380.95
Total disbursements through May 2012	\$240,619.05
Performing balance through May 2012	\$78,771.56
Non-performing	\$880.17
Total loans	73
Average loan size	\$2,100

### Involvement of other key actors

There are also a series of other actors that influence and contribute to a viable livestock marketing system, and it is important to involve them in market initiatives. The following list is not exhaustive and will be context specific:

- District livestock marketing councils** - have the role of lobbying and advocating on issues affecting livestock marketing, pastoral communities and livestock. They conduct research, and provide livestock and market information through livestock monitors placed in every market. They also play a role in the development of market strategies, capacity building of pastoralist communities, and quality assurance of livestock produce. The councils are local representatives of the Kenya Livestock Marketing Council (KLMC), which is the national coordinating body whose role is to oversee all marketing activities in Kenya at a policy level. County Councils provide livestock trading permits, allocate land and support physical planning for livestock markets, in addition to maintaining and managing markets.
- The District Veterinary and District Livestock Production Officers** (under the Ministry of Livestock) - play key roles in livestock marketing, disease surveillance/control and issuing movement permits to traders.
- District Peace Committees** and the provincial administration - ensure/enforce security along stock routes to attract livestock buyers and sellers.
- The Kenya Meat Commission (KMC)** - is responsible for the major terminal market for all livestock and plays a critical role in the livestock value chain.

### Market Utilisation

By addressing the multi-dimensional components of the livestock market system, FH Kenya has witnessed encouraging results. Of significance were total sales worth over \$2.2 million in nine markets in Marsabit and Isiolo Counties during the drought affected year of 2011.

Despite the increase in market activity however, there is still a need for greater market utilisation. An FH Kenya commissioned market study completed in 2011<sup>16</sup> revealed that livestock sales are driven, mainly, by immediate spending needs, and not strategic destocking to take advantage of prices or off-take surplus stock. Producers perceive the market as a safety net for when they are in need. A more commercial mindset is found only with larger sales volumes. The study also found that the onset of drought does not necessarily play a role in the decision to sell, and that the majority of pastoralists do not plan the sale of livestock to maximise their profits, but respond instead to immediate cash requirements. This reluctance to engage more extensively in livestock sales is tied to the intrinsic role that livestock play in pastoral societies as key holdings of wealth, prestige and influence. It also

<sup>16</sup> Clark, Ben; Kihoro, Ouma and van Binsbergen. FH Kenya: Livestock Markets Study. August 2011.

relates to traditional drought coping mechanisms in which producers with more livestock are able to cope better with shocks than those with fewer assets.

Yet faced with the reality of cyclical droughts, and an increasing dependency on external humanitarian assistance, efforts are also needed to focus on pastoralists utilising the key assets they have to strengthen their resilience to shocks. Through community-based DRR processes, FH Kenya has recently begun facilitating community discussions on market utilisation. Sessions include analysis of vulnerabilities and opportunities related to assets, and how structures and processes influence livelihood strategies. Sessions enable participants to identify the different roles that assets, and specifically livestock, play in their lives as natural, financial and social capital. Contextualised tools provide opportunities for participants to explore the importance of livestock; the inherent vulnerabilities relate to not engaging with

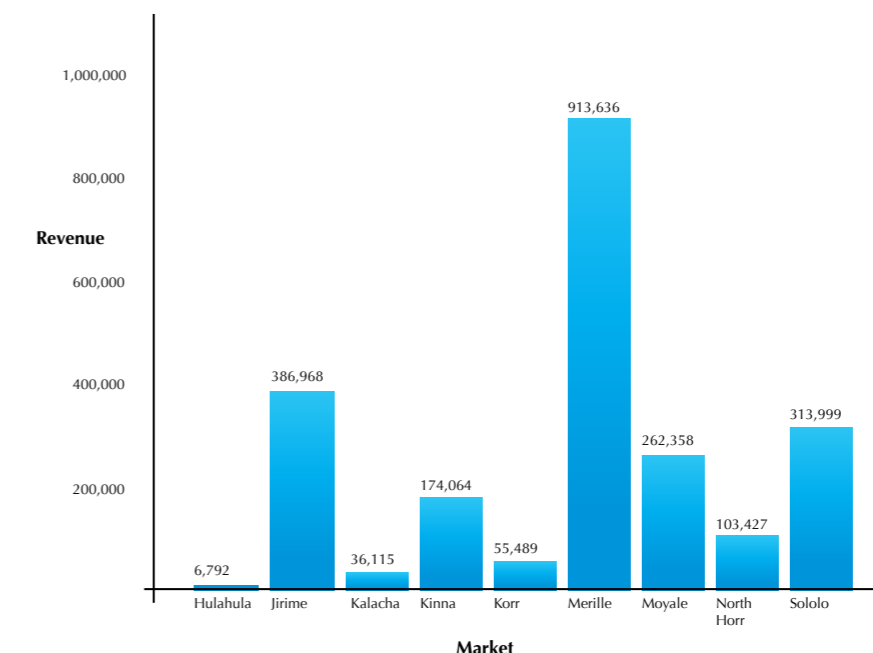
commercial markets in a context of cyclical droughts. These processes are designed to act as a catalyst for participants to start analysing their engagement in markets and why change in traditional behaviour is necessary.

### The future

A significant lesson learned through FH Kenya's livestock marketing activities, is the long-term commitment that is required to develop and sustain viable marketing systems. Consistent capacity building and support to the various market components is critical over a number of years, and short-term initiatives are rarely successful. Development agencies and other actors involved in marketing systems need to ensure they can provide the required long-term support to ensure growth and sustainability, and design their strategies to accomplish this.

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**Figure 1: Total revenue by market in 2011**



### Co-management will benefit the whole community



## The Cross Border Livestock Trade in Ethiopia and Somaliland - Benefits and Challenges

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Mustapha Muhammad - Senior Value Chain Advisor, Oxfam, Ethiopia

*The cross-border livestock trade in the Horn of Africa is considerable, and governments in the region need to better understand and recognise its valuable contribution. It is important to local and regional economies and also crucial for food security—particularly in marginalised and drought-affected communities. This article, focused on Ethiopia and Somaliland, identifies the many challenges that the cross-border trade has to face.*

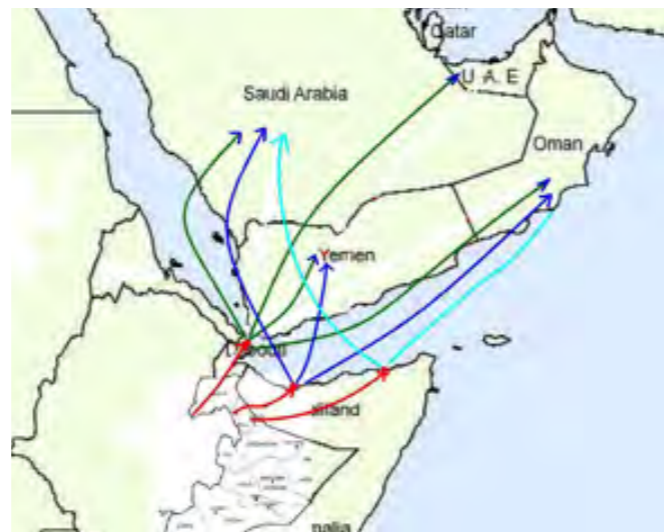
Livestock is the main household asset and a key productive resource for pastoralist communities living in the border areas of Ethiopia and Somaliland. Significant levels of cross border livestock trade exist, but the trade is unsupported and often actively blocked by governments on either side. This represents a lost opportunity for both the Governments and the populations in the border areas. Part of the problem is that the governments focus on only the undesirable consequences of cross-border trade: that it is untaxed; is a source of livestock disease; and the free movement of people and goods are associated with security threats. Most intra-regional livestock cross-border trade in the HoA is unrecorded, but estimates value it in excess of USD 60 million. However, only 10% of this commerce passes through the official trade channels.<sup>17</sup> Recognizing this trade, and then gradually supporting it to become more organised with formal modes of exchange, will be crucial if the potential for cross border trade in the region is to be realised.

### The Benefits of Cross-Border Trading

#### Vibrant livestock trading route

The comprehensive Livestock Value Chain Analyses (LVCA), conducted in Ethiopia<sup>18</sup> and in Somaliland,<sup>19</sup> show that livestock trading is the main economic activity, is a critical source of livelihood for the pastoral Somali populations, and is an important link between the borderlands of Djibouti, Somaliland, Puntland and Ethiopia. The cross-border livestock trade through the Somali Region of Ethiopia into Somaliland is one of the oldest and most vibrant cross-border livestock trading systems in the Horn of Africa. Ethiopia's Somali Region supplies approximately 60–70% of the livestock that is then exported from Somaliland to the Middle East. Complex market arrangements and chains, involving a wide range of actors, have created a web of cross-border trade relations that utilise clan affiliations.<sup>20</sup> The pastoral livestock marketing in these border areas is said to be the largest movement of live animals traded anywhere in the world.<sup>21</sup>

**Figure 1: Traditional livestock trading routes (Djibouti, Berbera & Bosaso Corridors)**



#### Links to the Middle East

The Ethiopia-Somaliland cross-border livestock trade flows are significantly influenced by seasonal factors, that affect both demand and supply. While livestock are exported all year round, the most important seasonal factor is the annual *Hajj* pilgrimage to Mecca in Saudi Arabia. Demand and prices hit their peak during the 70-day period between *Eid al-Fitr* and *Eid al-Adha* in the export markets, and also during major religious festivals and holidays in the domestic markets. Prices are depressed during the driest period of *Jilaal* (January to March) because of low quality livestock supply—due to scarcity of animal feed, consequent weight loss and poor body condition.

#### Driving the Somali Region's economy

Cross border livestock trading provides a livelihood for millions of inhabitants in Ethiopia's Somali region, including herders, traders, middlemen, and many other actors that benefit from the system. Women in particular are playing an increasing role. Its contribution can be seen in terms of the creation of direct jobs in the livestock marketing chain and in the indirect multiplier effects to other income generating activities—such as merchandise trade, food and beverages sales, transportation, hay making and animal pen or enclosure rentals. This makes it one of the drivers of regional economic diversification, savings and

capital accumulation, and a potentially significant long-term contributor to the national economy.

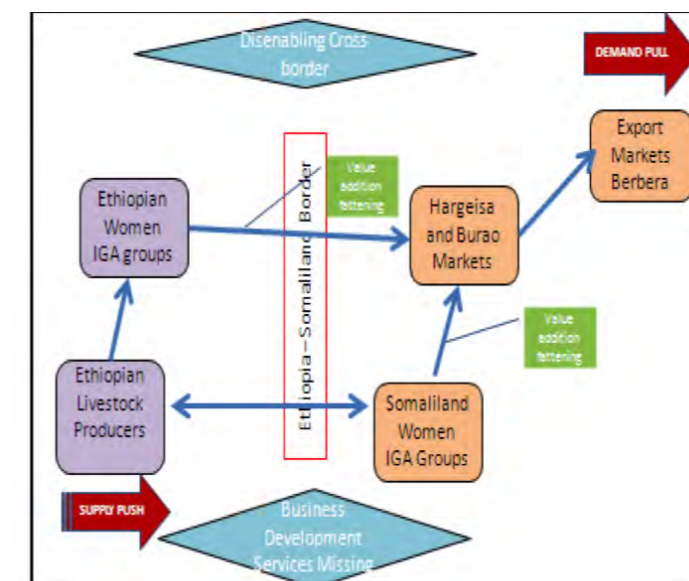
#### Crucial for food security

The cross border livestock trade plays a significant role in ensuring local food security, as almost all food items—especially cooking oil, wheat, pasta, rice, and sugar—are imported from the other side of the border with the profits from livestock trading. The occasional border closures result in local shortages of key foodstuffs and major price rises. The food security benefits of the cross-border livestock trading system are of paramount importance, and result from: [a] the higher purchasing power of livestock producers through the income generated from favourable export demand at higher prices; [b] the system being interconnected with the financing of cheaper food imports (because they are not taxed) which are then distributed locally at reasonable market prices; and [c] household incomes that are generated from cross-border livestock trading and related activities being used directly for food purchases.

#### An enabling environment for livestock

The key enabling environment factors for the Ethiopia-Somaliland cross-border live animal trade, and value chain, are its proximity and access to niche markets (Arab countries) and their preference for animals from the Horn.<sup>22</sup> Other factors include a positive correlation between a good year and livestock prices; increased demand during religious festivals; and the fact that Ethiopia is a livestock producing country endowed with huge livestock herds. Another factor is that there is increasing demand for milk as a result of accelerated urbanization, and women usually have full control over milk sales. With 60% of the milk produced at household level now destined for sale, livestock is a key part of women's economic growth.

**Figure 2: Ethiopia-Somaliland cross border livestock value chain**



### The export market

1. The Ethiopian five-year Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) aims to increase annual meat exports from 10 thousand metric tonnes achieved in 2009/2010, to 111 thousand metric tonnes in 2014/2015.
2. The domestic market provides an important outlet for women and poor producers who often supply products that cannot be used for high value export due to quality, quantity and access constraints.
3. The cross border trade to neighbouring countries (e.g. Djibouti or Somaliland) is more attractive for pastoralists living on the border, compared to parallel market prices in the domestic or official export markets.
4. The benefits from live animal export is high, but it carries high risk due to combination of sanitary requirements, lower competitiveness and changing diplomatic relations with importing countries.
5. On the basis of SPS requirements, meat exports are more beneficial and less risky compared to live animal exports.

### Price differences

Aysha communities in Ethiopia witnessed that domestic markets do not provide sufficient outlets for the sale of livestock and livestock products. This is because prices of livestock in the domestic market are much lower than anywhere in Somaliland or Djibouti. For example, the price of sheep was 500 ETB in Dire Dawa while it was 650 ETB in Dowele, or more than 900 ETB anywhere in Djibouti. Similarly, the price of sheep and bulls were 750 ETB and 4,230 ETB respectively in Jijiga market, while the corresponding price in Hargeisa was 960 ETB and 7,650 ETB, respectively. After selling livestock for better prices, producers buy consumer goods and other necessities at much lower prices.

### Challenges and Constraints

Despite its benefits, major market inefficiencies and challenges exist in the cross-border trade. These include: high marketing transaction costs; high transport costs; loss of weight and condition by animals on long trekking routes; lack of price transparency among most market brokers; minimal market infrastructure; and uneven and inadequate market information. The vital contribution of the cross-border livestock trade to the livelihoods of peripheral societies is an area of tragic neglect in Ethiopia's national strategic schemes on food security and poverty reduction. In order to benefit from this vast trade, Ethiopia needs to address a number of challenges.

*Lack of information:* The limited access to market information at the local level, and the lack of infrastructure, are the major constraints for pastoralists seeking to access major markets and urban centres—where the demand for livestock products is growing fast. The poor and uneven access to

17 [http://www.caadp.net/pdf/COMESA%20CAADP%20Policy%20Brief%202%20Cross%20Border%20Livestock%20Trade%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.caadp.net/pdf/COMESA%20CAADP%20Policy%20Brief%202%20Cross%20Border%20Livestock%20Trade%20(2).pdf)

18 Ethiopia Livestock Value Chain analysis, Lante Development Consultancy PLC, 2011

19 Somaliland Livestock Value Chain Analysis, Muthee A, 2012

20 Umar 2007 Risk-taking for a Living; Devereux 2006 Vulnerable Livelihoods in Somali Region.

21 Majid, 2010, Livestock trade in the Djibouti, Somali and Ethiopian border lands



market information also remains a major constraint for other livestock market actors: In order to make timely and well-informed decisions, both producers and sellers need access to a wide range of market information—including up to date prices, sales volumes, disease status and the levels of national and international demand. The market information that currently exists is not readily available to poor producers in the pastoralist areas. Exporters in Berbera and Djibouti port, being sources of market information, exploit the market information asymmetry by only transmitting their requirements to suppliers in a way that benefits them the most.<sup>23</sup>

**Restrictions on trading:** Trade restrictions, due to stringent livestock trading standards and the prevalence of trans-boundary diseases, are another major constraint to international trade. Any movement of goods or livestock across the Ethiopian border is considered ‘contraband’, unless it is accompanied by official paperwork. Engagement in cross border livestock or consumer goods trade within a 15kms radius of the Ethiopian border should lead to confiscations and prosecution. This restrictive trade environment encourages illegal cross-border trading, as reflected in the fact that only about 10% of the USD 60million cross-border trade goes through the legal trade channels.

### Marketing Transaction Costs

Exporting livestock to either Djibouti or Somaliland requires multiple steps in Ethiopia:

1. An export license must be obtained from regional governments.
2. A letter of credit (LC) or cash deposit of an equivalent amount in hard currency is needed. Public and private banks have opened banks at Tog Wachale to facilitate livestock export. (Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, Nib International bank, Wegagen Bank and Awash International) Exporters need to start bulking livestock destined for export after they acquire a bank deposit.
3. The period of the Bank Permit expires after only one month. Livestock traders complain that this is too short to fulfil all the export requirements. As a result, some traders fail to fulfil their shipment requirements before the due date.
4. The advance payment system is operational in the legal cross-border trade. The exporter has to pay money before his livestock exports - 500 USD advance payment is required per camel, 450 USD for cattle, and 50 USD for sheep or goats.

**Lack of reliable information for policy makers:** The absence of accurate livestock data, or the incomplete coverage of pastoral areas, is a common feature in Ethiopian national agricultural surveys. Lack of commitment from the national

<sup>23</sup> Ethiopia Livestock Value Chain analysis; Lante Development Consultancy PLC, 2011

authorities in maintaining an up-to-date livestock database, and unsympathetic attitudes of the political authorities towards informal cross-border trading operations, has a mutually reinforcing and negative impact. Without accurate data on the volume or value of cross-border trade (informal and formal), policy makers will overlook major areas of economic development potential, and make the wrong policies. **Lack of financial and business services support:** The most important services that benefit poor livestock producers are: access to non-collateral credit; the availability of veterinary services; access to market information; and improved capacity in adaptive herd management. Women and poor households have limited access to traditional and clan-based loan arrangements due to their lower social position and status. Access to loans would allow them to purchase livestock, access veterinary services, buy young animals for pre-market fattening, and also avoid the loss from preventable livestock diseases. The absence of strong formal micro-credit support in the area of cross-border livestock trading is also part of the central authorities’ perception of the “illegality” of this sector. Small traders, and women’s groups in particular, repeatedly express the crucial need for support in the form of micro-credit.

**One-way flow of livestock and benefits:** The flow of livestock in the cross border trade between Ethiopia and its neighbours is largely one way, with Ethiopia the major supplier of live cattle, camels and shoats to Djibouti and Somaliland. The Ethiopian livestock that crosses these countries is transacted illegally, without the use of hard currency, but is estimated at between US\$250 million and US\$300 million per year<sup>24</sup>, which means these animals are imported with no foreign payments to the Ethiopian government. Instead they generate local and foreign revenue as the livestock re-exports in other countries.

**Inertia:** Ethiopia shares a very long border with Djibouti and Somaliland/Somalia, and borderland communities operate as one ecological/economic unit. The livestock trade forms an economic system that underpins the social and political relations between Ethiopia, Djibouti, the Somaliland Republic and the state of Puntland; and it follows that Ethiopian efforts to re-direct the livestock trade to the domestic market in the borderlands is not only economically unfeasible but will have other negative impacts. The Somali region of Ethiopia is not well linked to the central markets of Ethiopia, and so the domestic market would not be an alternative outlet for Somali livestock.

### The Way Forward

Experience from southern Ethiopia shows that market stability, access to consumer goods, and to some extent prices—rather than clan affiliation or border control—can determine the direction of livestock trade.<sup>25</sup> The Ethiopia-

<sup>24</sup> SPS-LMM, 2009 (Ethiopian Sanitary and Phytosanitary Livestock and Meat Marketing Program)

<sup>25</sup> Ethiopia Livestock Value Chain analysis; Lante Development Consultancy PLC, 2011

Somaliland milk value chain map below clearly shows that demand-pull determines the direction of the flow of livestock and livestock products like milk. The cross-border value chain analysis and market mapping has clarified that the demand-pull at the consumer level creates the pull of livestock from the producer areas. Since Somaliland is linked to the external or export markets through Berbera and Bosaso ports, this creates and locates the demand centre in Somaliland for the livestock and livestock products from Ethiopia. It is estimated that 60% of both livestock and livestock products from Ethiopia cross the border into Somaliland.

**Figure 3: Ethiopia-Somaliland Milk Value Chain Map**



The demand for livestock and livestock products from both domestic and international markets is increasing, but the scale of the poverty in pastoral areas demands that pastoralists need to be assisted to respond to this demand. Poor women and men in particular need to be targeted through value chain and value-added livestock production and marketing. Live animals and camel milk can provide high economic returns for women, and their increased income can have a positive change, leading them into more prominent leadership roles in their communities. The value added sector has the potential to give a significant proportion of the pastoralist population more viable livelihoods, and benefit the economy as a whole.

Infrastructure development can be used to intervene directly on behalf of those afflicted by poverty. Government authorities and long-term development actors need to improve services in pastoral areas and jointly develop basic livestock market centres, which are equipped with a fence, separate compartments for shoats, cattle and camels, loading ramps, feeding and watering troughs and shaded areas. In developing countries inadequate infrastructure services have negative impacts on economic growth and welfare. It is crucial for the government to invest in infrastructure (roads, water, and animal health), animal feeds, and financial facilities in order to make the regional cross-border livestock trading networks more efficient and well-functioning—thereby guaranteeing fair and equitable benefits to all the actors in the value chain.

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### Livestock trading is critical to livelihoods



## The Potential of Dryland Products as a Livelihood Option in the ASALs

Susie Wren, independent consultant

*The ASALs of East Africa and the Horn are rich in biodiversity, and there is now increasing demand from national, regional and international markets for products from the ASALs made from indigenous natural ingredients (honey, beeswax, healthcare, body-care and beauty products). Potentially this represents a tangible development opportunity for governments and private sector actors to assist dryland communities. This article looks at the factors involved in developing an environmentally sound and viable enterprise based on natural products, and the challenges of making it community-driven. The added incentives are that dryland product enterprises can encourage long-term management of critically important resources, and help diversify and supplement declining livestock-based incomes.*

### The market for natural products

At the international level the market for natural products is both sophisticated and diverse, with a major trend towards organic ingredients and ethical product certification. Consumers are looking for quality, authenticity, and a 'feel-good' factor. These market characteristics provide a potential opportunity for African dryland enterprises to harness their particular competitive advantage as a pure and unpolluted source of materials. Africa also benefits from lower production costs, and in some cases lower costs for processing raw materials into finished products. Other advantages include the usage of a persuasive background story—ethical trade, community empowerment, incomes for women and families, support to the least advantaged, conservation through trade etc.

The natural product market includes a consistently strong demand for Gum Arabic and aromatic gums, resin extracts for food ingredients, and the fragrance products market. The market for African honey and other bee products (such as wax, pollen, *propolis* and royal jelly) is also increasing in both size and price return. The body-care and healthcare markets in Europe, the US, Australasia and Japan are becoming more diverse in character, with natural ingredients now being the most significant growth trend. There is also considerable interest in sourcing new natural ingredients, particularly those with superior health giving properties, rather than the standard (mostly synthetic and oil based) formulas. This has created cosmetic and body-care markets for equatorial tree seed oils at prices at, or over, other existing high quality ingredients of their kind.

Within Africa itself the market for natural products is also evolving. The bulk of the natural products used in the majority of homes will either come from the traditional individual/family village-based small businesses (that make natural body oils and hair oils formulated and presented in a rudimentary way), or from the larger manufacturers of body-care products that are often based on poor quality ingredients. Herbal medicines, largely sold as dried or semi-processed raw materials, are also used. However, there is also a significant number of middle and higher income earning consumers that now demand well formulated and attractively presented body-care products, herbal medicines/supplements, fragrances, and other domestic

products. Although many of these products are currently being imported, there are a few companies within the drylands of East Africa and the Horn that are producing small volume, high quality, natural products—products aimed at both the tourist industry and high income earning local and expatriate consumers.

### Current dryland products enterprises in the ASALs of East Africa and the Horn

A number of the plant-based dryland enterprises that exist in the ASAL regions have been established with the objective of improving rural and pastoral livelihoods, and providing incentives for communities to conserve the natural environment. Some are particularly inspired and successful initiatives, while others have failed due to insufficient/ineffective business planning, business acumen or market awareness. Most of those that are successful are relatively small-scale operations with low levels of investment.

Successful bio-enterprise models include Desert Edge within Laikipia and Lower Samburu in Kenya, Lulu Works in Sudan, Wild Living operating across East Africa, and Arbor Oils and Saltlick in northern Kenya and Somalia. These enterprises produce and market bee-products, gums and resins, essential oils, ethno-botanicals, and other non-timber forest products. They are well planned and well structured so as to qualify for organic certification and ethical trade. As well as the well-known international fair trade and organic certification standards (i.e. EU-ISO 65 and the US-NOP), new tools have now been developed that provide accredited certification specifically for sustainable wild harvesting systems. The internationally endorsed FairWild Standard provides market recognition of a product's sustainability where they contain indigenous materials sourced from the 'wild'. The FairWild Foundation is actively promoting the standard so that compliance enables natural resource-users to receive rewards for their management efforts, by gaining better incomes from accessing attractive global markets. The additional advantages of using 'wild' products is that indigenous plants tend to be more drought resistant than introduced commercial species, providing a more robust and reliable crop for dryland conditions.

Unfortunately, although the existing dryland enterprises

established and developed by, or with, the private sector have been sustained and are growing, those that have been established purely as NGO community projects (unless there has been involvement of independent operators or active CBOs) have either not progressed, or have dwindled and in some cases collapsed. This is despite the initial level of investment in training and equipment provided to producer groups. Community members report the main difficulties as being: little understanding of the market; no/limited market linkages; low levels of business ownership; and lack of post-market finance e.g. for purchasing raw materials, investing in equipment, infrastructure etc., in the first few years of operation.

### Ingredients for a successful community dryland enterprise initiative

For a dryland enterprise development to be successful the following is crucial:

- Clear ownership structure
- Commercial partnerships developed from the inception stage onwards
- On-going training in all technical and business areas
- Organisational and financial management, traceability and transparency
- Product design in line with market awareness and information
- Appropriate value addition technologies, especially those suitable for women
- Business mechanisms based on group involvement
- Micro-banking and credit systems

Development agents that wish to coherently and responsibly develop community owned/led plant-based dryland products enterprises, should have sufficient knowledge of what is entailed in setting up and developing a successful, viable and community driven business. The indigenous dryland products must first and foremost be marketable—including meeting quality standards and statutory compliances. From the onset a detailed assessment of the selected product types and a feasibility study must be made. Commercial trials should be conducted for the cultivated/domesticated natural products, to provide basic data to test the viability of the targeted natural products. Sustainable wild harvesting protocols need to be determined, and methodologies developed for the collection of indigenous natural products. Enterprises should be developed as commercial pilots initially and monitored over a given period. At the end of the pilot period the initial trial information can be built upon, and adjusted, to provide sound data for the drafting of full business plans for communities and investors to scale up into viable enterprises.

Development agents should also have sufficient capacity to provide the necessary training, extension support, infrastructure and equipment, trade finance and operating capital. A collaborative dryland enterprise development

initiative will need to take into account the main facets in business development; be based on strategic partnerships; and have carefully designed support activities that are time-framed and budgeted. As for many other similar models across the world, this can be achieved through a combination of public and private investment, grants and loans.

A full assessment of the resources and commitment of the core parties should be made during the pilot phase, and full funding and implementing partnerships secured. Partnerships that can aid the successful adoption and implementation of commercial dryland enterprise activities include: landowners; owners of existing indigenous plant-based enterprises; resident CBOs; and other active NGOs/institutions operating in the region. Throughout the pilot period, training, management assistance and organisational support will need to be provided to the communities engaged with the targeted enterprises. On-going support will be needed after the pilot phase, i.e. for at least for 5 years, to enable effective building and strengthening of the organisational structure of the participating community members. On-going support will also be needed for the sound development of the value chain to ensure maximum economic returns to community groups, as well as for continued product development and marketing.

### Investing in the ASALs

The drylands of East Africa and the Horn are not seen as promising areas for private investment. It is necessary to have a certain level of development, or government driven, assistance to these areas in order to raise their business potential sufficiently to attract private sector partnerships. In the absence of the private sector, initial public investment and support to these areas is likely to make the difference between success and failure of any new enterprise, and can be seen as a highly legitimate application of development funding. Once the conditions are achieved for engaging commercial partnerships, care should also be taken to ensure that these partnerships are based on transparent and equitable agreements with local communities. Partnerships with relevant NGOs and government departments will therefore continue to be important throughout the first development phase.

For further information or advice in establishing and developing dryland enterprises please contact Susan Wren: [bioent@gmail.com](mailto:bioent@gmail.com)

Domestication of indigenous species (*Hypoxis rooperii*) for processing into medicinal products



## Northern Kenya Investment Fund: An innovative tool for investment

Farid Mohamed, Pipal Limited

*The need to engage the private sector is being increasingly mentioned in discussions on resilience in the Horn of Africa. However, successful models for promoting private investment in dryland areas are few and far between. One model that is emerging is the Northern Kenya Investment Fund (NKIF). This article highlights some of the key findings of the studies behind establishing the fund, outlines the innovative NKIF concept, and identifies the steps needed to make the fund operational.*

The Northern Kenya Investment Fund has been in development since 2009, when CARE Kenya, under USAID's Enhanced Livelihoods in the Mandera Triangle (ELMT) Programme, undertook a number of studies on the investment environment in Northern Kenya and the need for an Investment Fund, in conjunction with the Ministry of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands.<sup>26</sup> In the last three years a more detailed review on the investment potential in Northern Kenya, and the design, development and testing of the viability of the Fund, has been carried out with the support of the Financial Sector Deepening Trust (FSD). The NKIF is now ready to be presented to potential investors.

### Myths and misconceptions that prevent investment in northern Kenya

The initial study on the constraints to investment in Northern areas included interviews with major financial

institutions, to explore their perceptions on investment in the region. The findings were revealing as many of the constraints identified related to myths, misconceptions and a lack of information—rather than real barriers. Some of the constraints identified, both perceived and real, are presented in table 1 below, together with some of the quotes from the interviewees.

In contrast to these views, a new and interesting finding is that individual districts differ in terms of their ease in undertaking investments, and in fact it can be easier to do business in dryland areas than in other areas of Kenya. This is illustrated by the recent World Bank 'Doing Business in Kenya' Report 2012.<sup>27</sup>

**Table 1: Extracts from CARE Kenya study**

Perceived constraints	A few quotes
Culture	'These people lack an entrepreneurial culture to commercialise the resources they've got'; 'They don't even allow the cattle from another clan to drink their water'
Population	'People are always on the move'; 'people are not educated'.
Donor dependency	'These donors and the government are dishing out the money for free, no wonder that communities wait for handouts rather than undertaking their own initiatives'.
Local Government /Corruption	'Government officials, posted from other parts have no interest in/experience dealing with locals', 'If you create a fund and you don't protect it well, local politicians will put all the money in their own pockets'; 'Local councils do not believe in the private sector'.
Infrastructure	'Why would I go for a 15 hour drive on a bumpy road to Turkana if I can do business in Nairobi'; 'The Government needs to put the basic infrastructure in place before we consider investing'.
Costs	'For small things we have to go all the way to Nairobi'; 'We tried to implement projects but the unit costs are just too high'; 'The region has poor purchasing power';
Land tenure	'Title deeds are not available and the process takes years to complete'.
Security	'I would never go up there even if you paid me. It is too dangerous'.
Financing	'Financing from traditional sources is not suitable and costs are too high'; 'Islamic financing is not available';
Vested interests	'Key players in the industry [livestock] do not have an interest in changing market dynamics in favour of the North, e.g. the establishment of an abattoir in the North would negatively affect business interests in other parts of the country'
Lack of information	'To be honest I know nothing about that region'.

**Table 2: Doing Business in Kenya 2012**

Doing business in Kenya—where is it easiest?					
City	Aggregate rank	Ease of starting a business	Ease of dealing with construction permits	Ease of registering property	Ease of enforcing contracts
Malaba	1	6	1	4	3
Narok	2	8	5	5	2
Thika	3	1	7	3	7
Garissa	4	12	3	8	1
Eldoret	5	10	2	7	5
Mombasa	6	9	7	1	8
Isiolo	7	2	4	13	4
Kisumu	8	13	10	2	9
Kilifi	9	3	11	11	6
Nyeri	10	10	6	10	10
Kakamega	11	6	9	9	12
Nakuru	12	4	13	6	11
Nairobi	13	5	11	12	13

Note: The aggregate rank is based on the 4 indicators measured. See the data notes for details.  
Source: Doing Business database.

### The untapped potential of the drylands

In addition, reviews of investment potential have found that there are significant opportunities for investors wanting to do business in these areas. The key sectors of livestock/livestock products, tourism, and dryland products are all identified as having major untapped potential for commercial returns, and also having the potential to increase the incomes and the resilience of the poorest.

The Overview Report on Northern Kenya's investment potential elaborates on some of the advantages of Northern Kenya for private sector development:

**1. Strategic position:** The region's geographical location and its social and cultural attributes make it well positioned to benefit from surplus capital in the Middle East—one of the fastest growing parts of the world. It is also the bridgehead to a regional economy of over 100 million people. Countries such as Ethiopia, Sudan and Somalia need outlets for their products, want imports of manufactured goods and, in the case of South Sudan and Somalia, need materials for reconstruction.

**2. Domestic trade:** The economies of the lowlands and highlands are complementary. Opening up the north will generate greater demand for Kenyan products. There is already significant movement of capital between parts of the north and Nairobi, which is set to grow.

**3. Livestock trade:** As populations increase, urbanise and become richer, they create more demand for meat and other livestock products. Kenya is already a meat-deficit

country. One study suggests that 400,000 jobs could be created if 50% of that deficit were to be met by increased livestock production from North Eastern Province alone.

**4. Tourism:** Most of the protected areas, such as game reserves and national parks, are found in the ASALs, giving the region a comparative advantage in tourism—an industry that is usually Kenya's highest foreign exchange earner and contributes around 12% to Kenya's GDP. There is an important linkage between pastoralism, conservation and biodiversity. Over 70% of Kenya's wildlife is found outside protected areas on land occupied by pastoralists. With the right incentives in place there is evidence that wildlife numbers and diversity can be higher in areas adjacent to national parks than even within the parks themselves.

**5. Natural wealth:** Efforts to determine whether Kenya has commercial deposits of oil and natural gas are already underway in the north and east of the country. Other natural resources include sand and gravel for construction, a wide range of precious minerals, plus soda ash, gums, resins, and medicinal plants. Dryland soils and vegetation store carbon, suggesting that through grasslands restoration and preservation the ASALs have the potential to generate payments for environmental services—such as carbon sequestration.

**6. Urban development:** Carefully planned urban development in the ASALs will benefit the region, particularly in terms of employment creation, whilst also opening up new economic and investment opportunities for the country as a whole, reducing population pressure in high-density areas and strengthening national cohesion through the intermingling of social groups.

**7. Climate change:** Pastoralists have successfully managed climate variability for centuries. Their skills and knowledge will become more valuable as the impact of global climate change becomes more pressing.

**8. Social cohesion:** Social networks in the north are comparatively strong, and provide important safety nets for people in highly vulnerable environments. They may also be one factor in the region's generally low level of crime.

On infrastructure returns the NKIF Overview Report states:

*'The potential for growth is arguably higher because the region is starting from a lower base. Research in India*

<sup>26</sup> [http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user\\_upload/drought/docs/Final%20Report%20-%20Market%20assessment%20Feb%202010%20-%20Logos.pdf](http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user_upload/drought/docs/Final%20Report%20-%20Market%20assessment%20Feb%202010%20-%20Logos.pdf)

<sup>27</sup> <http://www.doingbusiness.org/reports/subnational-reports/kenya>

<sup>28</sup> Northern Kenya Investment Fund Overview Report, Pipal Limited August 2011

and China shows that some of the highest returns to investments in roads, electricity and education, as well as the greatest effects on poverty, occur in marginal, rain-fed areas rather than irrigated or more fertile areas. What has been lacking is adequate attention to the region, a proper understanding of its needs and potential, and a deliberate political commitment to address them.'(p. 12)<sup>28</sup>

### Key Features of the Northern Kenya Investment Fund

The Fund will address the major challenges facing start-up and expanding firms in the region, which often require substantial capital and need to seek external funding. Firms characterised by significant intangible assets (e.g. professional service firms, companies with rights to develop mineral resources), can anticipate years of initial negative earnings, or have uncertain prospects, and are unlikely to receive bank loans or other debt financing. The Fund can help to alleviate these problems.

The focus of the Fund will be to *enhance the environment for high potential new ventures*. It will not dwell on micro-enterprises or subsistence businesses, which need to be dealt with differently. NKIF will be set up as *an impact fund*. Impact investments are those intended to create



Northern Kenya is renowned throughout the world for its marathon runners

positive impacts beyond financial returns. As such they also require the management of social and environmental performance—for which early industry standards are now gaining traction among pioneering impact investors—in addition to financial risk and return. Impact investments are distinguishable from the more mature field of socially responsible investments (“SRI”), which generally seek to minimize negative impacts rather than proactively create positive social or environmental benefits.

Impact investing offers a new alternative for *channelling large-scale private capital for social benefit*. With increasing numbers of investors now rejecting the notion that they must face a choice between investing for maximum risk-adjusted returns, or donating for social purposes, the impact investment market is at a significant turning point and entering the mainstream. Investors range

from philanthropic foundations, to commercial financial institutions, to high net worth individuals. Measuring social performance is complicated, expensive and can be subjective. Impact investors have therefore supported the development of standard reporting and social measurement frameworks. The Impact Reporting and Investment Standards (“IRIS”) provide a tool with which to standardize social impact reporting, and facilitate the creation of industry benchmarks.

The Fund will consider *investments at all stages of development*. Using a broad guideline of US\$ 1m as a minimum investment and maximum equity holding of 50%, the smallest pre-investment company capitalisation will be US\$ 1m (US\$ 2m post-investment). At the other end of the scale, the Fund could invest US\$ 10m for a minimum 25% equity stake.

The Fund will also take a lead role in developing projects where it sees a potential opportunity that would not otherwise be developed.

The provision of *technical assistance* will be an important component of the NKIF, with assistance supplied at a number of different points in an investment:

- **Feasibility studies** – often entrepreneurs will lack the funds and the technical capability to put together a feasibility study that is of sufficient reliability and detailed enough to convince potential investors to commit funds.
- **Project implementation** – the lack of even very basic infrastructure, which is taken for granted in the more developed parts of Kenya, makes setting up businesses in Northern Kenya particularly difficult. There is a case for providing temporary implementation support for businesses that have to compete with companies from elsewhere with better access to power, roads, communications and water supply.
- **Business tools** - it can be expensive in countries like Kenya to access information. New companies are often handicapped by a lack of market information because they have not yet developed the informal networks which longer running businesses have established. Good accounting systems, which will also be required by institutional investors, are expensive but are essential tools for business monitoring.

The *Fund capitalisation* is targeted at US\$50 million with an additional technical assistance fund of US\$ 5-10m.

The Fund will be *independently managed*, but will work closely with the ASAL Secretariat (see next article) in which it is proposed there will be a 2-3 person support unit for helping potential investors to navigate and acquire the necessary permits issued by the appropriate government body. This strategy will ease permit issuance, which can be subject to unclear and difficult processes, and which is

likely to become more complex with the newly devolved government structures. It is felt that the most efficient way to ensure permits are granted is to force clarity, and for procedures to be forged through a government organ which can advocate for the system to function.

### The role of the Kenyan Government and NGOs

The Government will be responsible for the following aspects to complement the investments:

#### General

- Prepare regional development plans and identify priority infrastructure requirements;
- Publicise infrastructure development requirements;
- Negotiate ‘in principle’ financing commitments with potential investors;
- Undertake preliminary evaluation and selection of projects against pre-determined priority measures and regional development plans;
- Determine regulatory requirements and prepare plans for regulatory compliance alongside project development milestones;
- Ensure GoK agencies comply with their commitments so as not to hinder project development.

#### Commercial Enterprise Development:

- Keep and update market and economic data on priority investment sectors;
- Facilitate regulatory compliance with GoK agencies and local councils.

#### Ministry for Northern Kenya (MNKOAL)/ASAL Secretariat:

- Role as focal point in the provision of permits;
- Contract specialist advisors to provide services, develop working relationships with other institutions carrying out relevant economic surveys (e.g. World Bank, GTZ, etc.).

The MNKOAL/ASAL Secretariat will also have responsibility for promoting the enabling environment for investments in the ASALs, which will include policy recommendations to address the unique realities of drylands areas, as outlined in Table 3:

In addition to advocating for the recommendations outlined above, and developing and piloting models that the Government can then upscale, NGOs can play a major role in complementing the initiative to promote investment in Northern Kenya by building local community capacity. Key areas include: advocating for communal land rights and compensation; business and financial literacy; local savings; promoting governance, accountability and corruption monitoring; encouraging local government to fulfil its responsibilities; and ensuring social and environmental impact assessments for all developments and investments in the region.

For many investors Northern Kenya will remain a place where the wealth potential is not immediately obvious, and the difficulties of doing business there will seem insurmountable. But the NKIF is not designed for a ‘business as usual’ scenario. With its specific focus as an impact fund the target is investors that want more than just a financial return. Northern Kenya is challenging and diverse, and the potential for making a difference there in terms of commercial, social and environmental performance is significant. With the right investors, and the right governance and technical support, the NKIF may be just the model that northern Kenya is looking for.

For more information on the Fund please contact Farid Mohamed, Pipal Ltd: [farid@pipal.com](mailto:farid@pipal.com), or Pauline Akinyi Gogo: [asalsecretariat@northernkenya.go.ke](mailto:asalsecretariat@northernkenya.go.ke)

Table 3: Regional Realities

Reality	Some policy implications
A <i>remote</i> region, with rudimentary transport, energy and communications systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▲ Incentives to attract investors and public servants to the region</li> <li>▲ Strategies to strengthen national cohesion</li> <li>▲ More conscious efforts with regard to public information and extension</li> </ul>
A <i>dispersed</i> population, scattered across a large area in relatively small settlements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▲ Higher per capita cost of service delivery</li> <li>▲ Alternative approaches to extension and community organisation</li> <li>▲ Potential for technology to overcome the challenges of distance</li> </ul>
A <i>mobile</i> population, for whom mobility is a rational response to environmental conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▲ Innovation in service delivery methods</li> <li>▲ Flexibility within the design of national projects, such as the census, household surveys and elections</li> <li>▲ Frameworks to negotiate mobility across borders, both domestic and international</li> </ul>
A social system which places a premium on <i>communal</i> patterns of decision-making and ownership and which is driven by <i>customary institutions</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▲ Decentralised management of land and natural resources</li> <li>▲ Alternative/hybrid systems of justice</li> <li>▲ Reconciling individual and group rights (eg. with respect to gender)</li> </ul>
An <i>arid</i> environment, with a distinct livelihood system (pastoralism), and a population vulnerable to drought and the impact of climate change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▲ Environmental and social impact assessments of all interventions</li> <li>▲ Investment in risk reduction (drought &amp; conflict management) and social protection programmes</li> <li>▲ Adaptation strategies for climate change</li> </ul>

## Kenya's ASAL Transformation Secretariat: coordinating development in Kenya's arid and semi-arid lands

Helen de Jode<sup>29</sup>

This article looks at the institutional framework that has been established in Kenya to track development in the arid and semi-arid lands. Initiated in 2010, the ASAL Secretariat provides the leadership to deliver coordinated development in the ASALs. With the National Policy on Sustainable Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands that provides the legal basis for the Secretariat having recently been approved by Cabinet, the article pre-emptly some key questions on the Secretariat's role and function, and why it is crucial for all ASAL stakeholders to become involved.



Cattle are an essential part of Kenya's economic wealth

Jane Beesley/Oxfam

### 1. Why do we need an ASAL Secretariat?

A rebalancing of regional development is now seen as critical to securing social justice, economic prosperity, and national stability. This rebalancing is part of Kenya's Vision 2030—the government blueprint for medium-term development from 2008 to 2030—and also Kenya's Constitution of 2010 which guarantees the social and economic rights of marginalised groups, including pastoralists.

The objective of the Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands (MDNKOAL) is to fast-track the development of the region and reduce regional inequality. However, the structure of government will change after the elections in March 2013 so it is possible that the MDNKOAL may be lost. A more secure institutional framework for championing and coordinating ASAL development is thus required, which ensures that commitments made by all sectors and stakeholders are followed through and build resilience in the ASAL region.

### 2. What is the ASAL institutional framework?

The framework has four elements.

i. **Cabinet-level oversight** of the progress made across government in delivering the National Policy on Sustainable Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands (the 'ASAL Policy'). An ASAL Cabinet Sub-Committee has been constituted, which will be chaired by the President or Deputy President, and supported by an inter-ministerial

coordination committee that will hold each sector to account.

ii. **Specialist institutions** to ensure that the ASALs are given the attention they require within each sector. Most are now established while others are in development. They include the National Drought Management Authority (and associated contingency fund), the National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya, which is provided for within the Basic Education Bill currently before Parliament, and the Livestock Marketing Board under the Ministry of Livestock Development. Some of these institutions are independent of government, such as the Northern Kenya Education Trust registered in 2010, and the proposed Northern Kenya Investment Fund (see previous article).

iii. **Stakeholder coordination** through the ASAL Stakeholder Forum (ASF) and related networks (such as the ASAL Alliance of NGOs, and the ASAL donor group now in development). The ASF provides a single platform for dialogue between government, UN agencies, development partners, NGOs, the private sector and ASAL citizens.

iv. **An ASAL Secretariat**, to support all these structures and ensure stronger integration of policies, institutions and practices for poverty reduction and growth in the ASALs.

Figure 1: The Institutional Framework



All the elements of this framework are now in place. However, they will need support and capacity development in this early stage of their evolution and as they navigate the transition to the next government.

### 3. What will the ASAL institutional framework deliver?

The ASAL institutional framework has three particular qualities, each of which addresses a limitation that has undermined ASAL development in the past.

The ASALs have a major comparative advantage in livestock, tourism, and renewable energy, and are strategically located as the bridgehead to new markets beyond Kenya's northern border. The new approach offered by this institutional framework increases the likelihood that this potential will be harnessed for the benefit of the region and the nation as a whole.

Until now, policy has been insufficiently nuanced. The same models have been applied across Kenya with little regard for the diversity of production system, ecology, culture or society. The failure to recognise and support pastoralism appropriately has been a particular concern. The ASAL policy seeks to protect and promote the mobility and institutional arrangements that are essential to productive pastoralism, and effectively domesticates the African Union's Policy Framework for Pastoralism.

Different approaches have been tried in the ASALs at different times, using a variety of mechanisms (projects, departments, ministries). There has been no sustained and coherent approach from one government to the next. This matters because poverty and inequality can not be reduced within the lifetime of a single parliament.



Most activities in the ASALs have been in humanitarian response or the food security sector. The ASAL policy and institutional framework embraces the full range of sectors essential to the region's development.

### 4. What will the ASAL Secretariat do?

The ASAL Secretariat has three functions:

Knowledge management	To strengthen the use of evidence in policy-making and the flow of knowledge between stakeholders
Policy coherence	To evaluate all policies against best practice and ensure their alignment with the ASAL Policy.
Coordination	To promote stronger harmonisation of actions across sectors and by different stakeholders.

In delivering these functions the Secretariat seeks to complement, rather than compete with, what others are doing. Its aim is to amplify their efforts by sharing and using specialist knowledge or by mobilising additional resources. Through its coordination mandate it wants to see that:

- Plans and programmes respond to the unique constraints and attributes of the ASALs, particularly mobile pastoralism;
- Service providers adapt their practice to the distinct needs of the region;
- Resource allocation is more equitable and allows ASAL citizens to enjoy the same rights as others;
- Organisations are committed to collaboration, learning, and change;
- Participation is improved so that community priorities are clear and the collective power of ASAL citizens is strengthened;
- The region is secure and at peace within itself and with others.

### 5. What are the benefits of the ASAL Secretariat for ASAL stakeholders?

The ASAL Secretariat is now the principal reference point for all stakeholders working in the ASALs. For non-state actors the Secretariat provides a way in to government, and a 'one-stop-shop' through which to access the range of sectors represented in the ASAL inter-ministerial structures.

A key institution for non-state actors is the ASAL Stakeholder Forum (ASF). Until now, NGOs have lacked a mechanism through which to coordinate and harmonise their efforts beyond the humanitarian sector. The ASF is a platform through which non-state actors working on any issue can now engage with each other, with potential partners and supporters, and with both the national and the county level governments, in order to strengthen their practice. Membership is open to any organisation or institution working in, or interested in working in, the ASALs, or supporting development in the region.

<sup>29</sup> Based on information provided by the ASAL Secretariat in the Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands

The ASF has four roles:

**Networking and coordination:** sharing information and learning between members to improve the quality of ASAL development policy and practice; to strengthen coordination of stakeholder activities in the interests of efficiency, effectiveness and impact; and to encourage joint action.

**Joint action:** maximising the collective voice and influence of ASAL stakeholders by planning, implementing and evaluating joint activities.

**Advocacy and resource mobilisation:** advocating the interests of the ASALs to those with power, influence and resources—including governments, media, investors, and development partners.

**Accountability:** building consensus about effective approaches to ASAL development based on a greed standards and best practice, and thus mutually ensuring compliance.

The inaugural meeting of the ASF was held in July 2012. It is made up of a national forum and county forums, each with a steering committee.<sup>30</sup> A National Coordinator, working closely with the ASAL Secretariat, will support the ASF. The ASF is now seeking partners willing to finance this position.

### 6. What can you do to support the work of the ASAL Secretariat?

The ASAL Secretariat would like to see that all stakeholders reflect on their work in light of the five key messages contained in the ASAL Policy:

- **Think differently about the ASALs**, accepting them for what they are instead of seeking to turn them into something else. Look at the ASALs as an opportunity rather than just as a problem.
- **Act differently in the ASALs** in recognition of the unique realities that underpin them, in terms of their ecology, economy, population distribution and social system, and the important role of mobility.
- **Build the foundations for development** in the ASALs by investing in the structures and systems needed to spur innovation and productivity: namely security, infrastructure, human capital, and disaster risk management.
- **Rethink the way planning is done** for ASAL development by improving participation and accountability, mainstreaming climate adaptation, and developing common plans; planning beyond small administrative or project boundaries is vital for long-term sustainability of rangelands; and
- **Rethink institutional and financing mechanisms** in order to improve the coordination of inputs, reorient these towards risk reduction and resilience, establish

<sup>30</sup> County forums will be established after the elections in March 2013 and the advent of the county governments.

new institutions where necessary to address the unique needs and opportunities of the ASALs, and support regional and transboundary approaches.

### 7. Challenges and needs

The ASAL Secretariat and the broader ASAL institutional framework offer new hope for the region. However, the framework is as yet unproven, and many challenges lie ahead. It will be important to guard against complacency.

- i. New institutions need the right skills and resources to function effectively. Various donors, including DFID and Danida, are offering technical assistance and other finance. This support must be used strategically in ways that strengthen the capacity of the framework and deliver its goals.
- ii. The core costs of the Secretariat, and other parts of the institutional framework, need to be met by government. While the ASAL Policy charts a new path it will only result in change if the necessary finance is secured.
- iii. There is still significant misunderstanding about ASAL development (and particularly about pastoralism) – for example, an assumption that it concerns only the productive sectors. All sectors are important, and all have a contribution to make.
- iv. The ASAL Secretariat in particular should be located in a place in the next government where it can work effectively with all sectors and access the resources and authority necessary to ensure strong coordination. Given this, the MDNKOAL proposes that its optimum location will be the Office of the President or Deputy President, where responsibility for the coordination of government business will lie.
- v. Kenya is going through a process of transition, with major institutional reforms taking place at both the national and the county levels. The various parts of the ASAL institutional framework, particularly the Secretariat and the Stakeholder Forum, will need to navigate this period and ensure that the focus on the ASALs is not lost in the transition to the next government.

The ASAL Secretariat can be contacted at: [asalsecretariat@northernkenya.go.ke](mailto:asalsecretariat@northernkenya.go.ke)

### What has happened to the African Union's Policy Framework for Pastoralism?

Odokorach Shanty Francis, Oxfam Uganda and Achiba Gargule, REGLAP

*The AU Policy Framework for Pastoralism<sup>31</sup> lays out a vision for the development of Africa's drylands in which extensive livestock production plays a key role. The policy framework resulted from over three years of consultation and studies of the evidence by experts and drylands dwellers, and provides a strong basis for country and regional implementation strategies. This article outlines recent attempts to promote its roll out, and highlights the urgent need for more resources and efforts to promote the framework as part of the resilience agenda for the HoA.*



Since the approval of the AU Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa by African Heads of State in January 2011 very little evidence of impact has been seen at country level in the region. It has been mentioned in several IGAD declarations relating to the ending drought emergency initiative,<sup>31</sup> and in the associated Kenya Country Programme Plan the East African Community has expressed its support. Various NGOs and CSOs have also carried out targeted awareness raising including, in Uganda, in relation to the proposed Rangelands and Pastoral Policy for Uganda. However there is not yet a coordinated strategy for rolling out the framework, or its monitoring, either nationally or for the continent as a whole. In an attempt to address the issue the African Union Commission's Department of Rural Economy and Agriculture (AUC-DREA) hosted a stakeholders meeting in Addis Ababa in August 2012, to present a proposed implementation strategy for the framework and to articulate a mechanism for stakeholder participation. The meeting also validated the draft institutional and resource Mobilization Strategy Frameworks.

The meeting resolved that:

1. Focal points for the AU Policy Framework for Pastoralism should be established at the continent wide level (AUC-DREA, Regional Economic Committees), and at the national level, in order to support the coordination of implementation activities.
2. A Pan-African Pastoralism Forum should be formed to promote the implementation of the framework and

<sup>31</sup> See article below on IGAD

<sup>31</sup> See <http://128.121.86.38/~au/en/dp/rea/sites/default/files/Policy%20Framework%20for%20Pastoralism.pdf> and [http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user\\_upload/drought/docs/FINAL%20AU%20FLYER.pdf](http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user_upload/drought/docs/FINAL%20AU%20FLYER.pdf)

be linked to existing regional and national pastoral committees and programmes.

3. Priority issues for supporting the AU Policy Framework for Pastoralism at continental, regional and national levels should be mapped and documented.
4. A Pan-African Pastoralism Funding Facility should be established under the framework of the Pan-Africa Pastoralism Development Fund to support the implementation of the policy framework.
5. The resource mobilization process should link directly with other existing programmes and initiatives at the continental, regional and national level (including the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme – CAADP process, Regional Economic Communities' initiatives, and national governments and non-state actor's processes).
6. The AUC-DREA should coordinate and facilitate the development of a communication strategy to support and ensure the implementation of the Policy Framework for Pastoralism, and also knowledge sharing of pastoralism development best practices.

These recommendations help define a strategy for roll out of the framework, although resources and structure for implementation are still required. It is clear, however, that the AUC alone is not in a position to ensure implementation at country level, and this requires much more action by government agencies, RECs, donors, and civil society.

The Policy Framework for Pastoralism outlines a holistic, multi-sectoral and multi-partner view of development in the drylands, and therefore responds to many of the elements in the newly emerging resilience agenda. The IDDRSI process and support from the Global Alliance provide opportunities for encouraging the domestication of the framework, although much capacity building and advocacy to government line ministries, and development partners, will be required to help translate the framework into locally appropriate actions.

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### Learning from West African Policy and Practice Towards Reform in Ethiopia's Drylands

Abay Bekele, Senior Pastoral Program Manager, Oxfam, Ethiopia

*The Ethiopian Government and the dryland development community in Ethiopia have embarked on a mutual learning process over the past year in order to develop an improved understanding of the dryland system. An experience-sharing visit to West Africa and a national debate have identified valuable inputs to the on-going pastoral development efforts in Ethiopia. This article identifies some of the key lessons identified and the outstanding challenges ahead.*



Niger values pastoralism and recognises the need for pastoral mobility

#### Background

In November 2011, 36 people drawn from across Ethiopia, Somaliland, Uganda and Kenya visited Niger and Mali to learn from the land and resource management reforms in West Africa. Lessons that could be of relevance were explored in three areas: the policy and legislation design process; the content of the legislation; key issues grouped under four themes of legislation, rangeland development, mobility and livestock services.

In March 2012 a consortium of Government ministries, NGOs (including Oxfam) UN agencies, and donors (including USAID and Pastoral Forum Ethiopia) organized a National Workshop on Pastoral Development in Ethiopia, held in Adama, the regional capital of Oromia region. The workshop aimed to share lessons from the West Africa visit amongst 100 participants representing local communities, ministries, civil society organizations, donors and the Government's Pastoral Affairs Standing Committee. The workshop consisted of presentations and group discussions on the West Africa visit based on the four key themes. Reports were also given from participants who took part in a learning route across Kenya and Tanzania on 'Making Rangelands Secure' (supported by International

Land Coalition and partners) and a visit just prior to the workshop to the Fentale Irrigation Scheme, located west of Addis Ababa. Lessons were contextualized into the Ethiopian situation through group discussions. The Adama workshop concluded with an agreement on eight key lessons and action points.

Land and resource management reform in West Africa in particular is providing an overarching institutional framework at regional and local levels, which has the potential to support national and regional economic growth and improve pastoral livelihoods under conditions of climate change. A major innovation has been the passing of specific pastoral laws at national levels that explicitly address pastoral land use, livestock mobility, conflict resolution, and crop-livestock integration. Bilateral agreements have also been established between Niger and its neighbours that govern and facilitate livestock mobility. These laws reduce the risks associated with cross border mobility and shifting investments to enhance the viability of pastoral livelihoods, as well as to increase their contribution to the national economy.

#### Extracts from paper presented at Adama workshop 'Mobility and Cross-Border Trade in Niger'

- Niger values pastoral mobility internally and recognizes the need for trans-boundary mobility.
- To avoid conflict between pastoralists and agriculturalists, the land use of the country has been divided into clearly demarcated pastoral and agricultural areas through the Rural Code.
- The government owns the land in the pastoral areas, but individuals can acquire ownership over the land in the agricultural area.
- All the 15,000 villages in Niger have a 'Village Land Committee/Commission,' which ensures that livestock migration corridors are not encroached by farmers.
- The Government has developed a clear strategy to support pastoral mobility – the Pastoral Code.

#### Core lessons learnt from the visit to West Africa and their implications for Ethiopia

*1: Pastoral issues can best be addressed through a specific pastoral policy.*

The experience from Niger shows that pastoralism is a complex system that requires its own specific policy within a holistic framework that supports pastoral livelihoods and their resilience to disaster risks. Positive progress towards a pastoral policy is starting to emerge in Ethiopia with the Ministry of Federal Affairs now responsible for pastoral development and pastoral affairs, although as yet there is no specific pastoral policy to guide regional policies. At the regional level, Oromia and SNNP (Southern Nations and Nationalities) have designated a Pastoral Commission that coordinates the various government sectoral ministries concerned with pastoralism, but Afar and Somali regions have no such arrangement. All pastoral regions have now formulated land policies and related legislation, and Somali region is in process the doing so. However, improvements are required in terms of the quality of discussion and the level of community participation towards harmonising customary and formal legal frameworks.

*2: Recognition and protection of mobility, and investment in essential services along migration routes, are critical in managing risk.*

The manner in which crop-livestock integration is designed and implemented in Niger offers key lessons for the Ethiopian drylands. The land use plan (zoning) of Niger allows pastoralists to access farmlands after harvest, promoting synergy between pastoral and agricultural zones. At the regional level ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) transhumance agreements recognize seasonal mobility within and between ecological zones and across national borders, whilst also providing the framework for a more coordinated delivery of essential services to manage risks associated with mobility. For example, the bilateral agreement between Mali and Niger authorizes cross border mobility in the dry season, not

exceeding 30 days, through specific entry/exit points and along specific routes, and requires pastoralists to inform in good time the authorities in 'welcoming areas'. In Ethiopia allowing livestock mobility between ecological zones and across national borders would be a rational and productive form of land use, if supported and guided by a specific policy and clear bilateral agreement. It would also allow secure access to strategic water resources and dry season grazing lands in the dry season and during periods of drought.

*3: Legal recognition of the cross-border livestock trading system provides a more 'productive' use of pastoral land.*

The livestock trade is a factor that binds dryland communities in Ethiopia with their counterparts in neighbouring counties, but it lacks national policy support compared to that of West African countries. A comparison between Mali and Ethiopia, which are both landlocked countries, demonstrates the difference. Mali has managed to regulate the cross border livestock trade by establishing bilateral agreements<sup>32</sup> and shifting its investments towards enhancing the economic viability of its pastoral communities across the border, and thereby enhancing their contribution to the national economy. Implicit in this effort is improved access to markets while simultaneously supporting market places and services. By contrast the cross border trade along the Somaliland, southern Somalia, Kenya, and South and North Sudan borders of Ethiopia is considered illegal, even though it is estimated at US\$300 million per annum.<sup>33</sup> In West Africa the common currency and harmonised taxes, which do not exist in East Africa, provides an additional incentive to pastoralists to trade. But, despite the lack of a common currency in East Africa, there are still opportunities for Ethiopia and its neighbours to exploit the cross border livestock trade if they build on the economic integration of the East African Community (EAC) and opportunities presented by such as IGAD, and engage in bilateral agreements.

*4: Legal recognition of customary land management, based on nested rights of access and the protection of pastoral resources from encroachment, is essential to maintain ecosystem services.*

Both Niger and Mauritania have laws with specific provisions that outlaw the privatisation of pastoral resources. They also recognize the changing conditions and the set of consequences that are pushing the poor to turn towards more intensive use of the rangelands, as they require viable alternative livelihoods for their survival. A much-contested provision within these laws is that the state will compensate pastoralists when they lose their land to public interests. Tanzania's Land Use Planning Act (2007), Village Land Act (1999) and Regulation 2002 (No. 26-35) provide the legislative framework for villages to secure and manage

<sup>32</sup> Mali has cross-border agreements with Burkina Faso, Niger, Mauritania, Senegal and Cote d'Ivoire.

<sup>33</sup> COMESA (2009) Hidden Value on the Hoof: Cross-Border Livestock Trade in Eastern Africa. Policy Brief.

their land communally under the authority of village councils. And opportunities exist within this legislative framework for cross-village sharing of resources, and the protection of livestock corridors. All these international experiences can provide lessons for Ethiopia on managing the variability of its drylands environments, better securing resources for rangeland users, based on reciprocal resource sharing between user groups within and across borders.



ECOWAS transhumance certificate  
Boureima Dodo, reproduced from Modern and Mobile (2009) IIED and SoS Sahel UK (<http://pubs.iied.org/12565IIED.html>)

5: Awareness-raising on policy provisions, and negotiation and consensus building using local institutions at different levels, are the basis of conflict resolution.

Other features of the West African experience that provide useful lessons for Ethiopia include: their investment in cross border information exchange; communication outreach and the training of paralegals; and the development of operational guidelines for consensus seeking between local institutions in different countries to lay the foundation for mutual co-existence. The international pastoral gathering that the visiting East African group attended at Higo, Niger—attended by pastoralists from Niger, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Mali and Chad—was a good example of consensus building between communities for peaceful coexistence across borders. The cross border CMDRM/Elders Forum between Ethiopia and Somaliland has a similar objective, but is only informally recognized by both governments. CMDRM could be a first port of call and guide external assistance towards more coordinated cross border development.

### Further challenges within Ethiopia

While the engagement of the Ethiopian Government and the dryland development community in these learning experiences and the Adama workshop is encouraging, there are still some critical issues in Ethiopia that must be resolved:<sup>34</sup>

- *Contradictions between different livelihoods are reducing former levels of ecosystem services such as pasture and water.* There is an enormous diversity of interests among the dryland communities based on wealth classes (better off, medium and poor), gender (men and women), and livelihood groups (herder, agro-pastoral, and charcoal producers)—and all require access to rangeland resources. Customary institutions may need to become more inclusive, transparent and accountable in their decisions in order to deal with the interests of all these.

- *The clash between local practice and formal policy must be reconciled.* The two systems need to be studied and harmonised so that there is greater clarity in the way resources are regulated. Experience from West Africa demonstrates the importance of reconciling the twin objectives of enhancing national economic growth and trying to improve local livelihoods within the framework of the formal policy. For example, the Ethiopian government aims to promote export trade for livestock but the dryland communities prefer cross border trade to selling in the domestic market. At the level of national policy, strategies for export trade in pastoral areas is based on the ways in which formal export trade is perceived and defined by the central government ministers. However, these indicators are mostly drawn from an understanding of non-pastoral settings and try to impose these policies without recognizing the informal nature of cross border trade. As a result the Ethiopian government loses the tax revenue that could be generated from more than 300million dollars of trade annually, and people's livelihoods are compromised due to confiscation and the long bureaucratic processes that need to be followed to engage in formal export.

- *Coherence between the different government departments in support of pastoral livelihoods is critical:* Dryland development in Ethiopia is not contained within a single government department, rather it requires a constant interaction between multiple line ministries. While the various humanitarian and sector focused task forces or platforms (including such as Sustainable Land Management) could take on the role the Pastoral Areas Development Commission of Oromia plays, the Somali and Afar Regions in particular

<sup>34</sup> This experience links to the findings of the cross border dynamics analysis that Oxfam carried out in Medeweyn, Ethiopia

may need an innovative coordinating body that brings together the various bureaus supporting pastoralists in line with their priorities and aspirations. (Currently a Pastoralist Working Group is being established as part of the RED&FS Agriculture Growth Technical Committee in the Ministry of Agriculture. This could provide a new opportunity for doing this.)

- *Cross border interaction carries risk unless there is cross border risk management:* Often communities' resilience to drought is linked to their ability to move across borders and secure resources. However cross border mobility in its current form carries a number of risks that compound the consequences of drought—such as livestock diseases. Government and non-governmental organization's interventions can reduce risks when essential services are coordinated across the border, and community institutions are strengthened to negotiate their use.

### Conclusions

Ethiopia's regional pastoral land use policies still need to be fully developed but opportunities now exist to improve them. Currently Afar's policy and a draft Somali Pastoral Land Legislation already exist. Dialogue on these reforms, based on experiences gained from West Africa and elsewhere, is now needed to strengthen the legal provision, such as those related to aligning local practices with the legal framework. A broad based dialogue with key stakeholders, such as community representatives from different livelihood groups, local and regional bureau

heads and ministries such as Ministry of Federal Affairs and Ministry of Rural Development, is required to bring all actors together on the same page.

Cross border programmes need to be promoted urgently. A number of cross border programmes exist with the capacity to create incentives, including Oxfam GB's Ethiopia and Somaliland cross border Community Managed Drought Resilience Project. These projects are piloting a number of innovations that could encourage national governments to implement reforms. For example, a recent preventive livestock vaccination campaign in the Somali region of Ethiopia has been synchronized with one in Somaliland, where more than 14 million shoats are found. There are also examples of cross-border landscape level planning both within and across ecological zones.

Experience from West Africa helps highlight the potential and challenges ahead for Ethiopia. The way forward lies in Ethiopia linking together the four themes in a coherent manner: rangeland management, livestock services, mobility and legislation. The contradictions between local practices and policy context, the interaction between different government departments, and the risks associated with unregulated cross border mobility, are all key challenges. But in the final analysis providing adequate security of tenure and alternative livelihoods will be a condition for, and a means of achieving, disaster resilience.

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Peuhl walking the animals





### IGAD's Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI): Towards a New Partnership on Ending Drought Emergencies in the Horn of Africa

Achiba Gargule, Policy and Advocacy Advisor, REGLAP

IGAD's Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative raised expectations that significant progress could be made in ending drought emergencies in the drylands of the HOA. This article looks at some of the challenges the initiative has already faced in the development of Country Programming Papers and the involvement of non-state actors.



Responding to drought disasters with emergency intervention

Andy Hall/Oxfam

#### The need for a partnership framework

Following the 2010/11 drought in the Horn of Africa, which affected over 13.5 million people mainly in the drylands, various organisations came together to collaborate on an initiative dubbed 'Ending Drought Emergencies' in these areas. A series of meetings were held with national governments, donors, IGAD and the AU to develop what is now called the **IGAD Drought Disaster and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI)**. It was agreed that IGAD would lead the initiative and support member states to develop **Country Programming Papers (CPPs)** and investment plans to highlight national investment priorities, and a Regional Programme Framework (RPF), which is to focus on regional and cross border interventions.

To complement and coordinate this initiative and to link demand driven research to sustainable action for development, USAID funded the **Technical Consortium for Ending Drought Emergencies and Building Resilience to Drought in the Horn of Africa**. This consortium is led by the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) on behalf of the CGIAR centres, in partnership with the FAO Investment Centre, and provides expertise in investment planning. In addition a **Global Alliance (GA) for Action on Drought Resilience and Growth** has been formed by development partners to co-ordinate support for resilience building in the HOA, while a **Regional Donor Sub-Group for Technical Assistance** has been established to coordinate capacity building support to IGAD.

The CPPs follow a **Common Architecture for Resilience** focusing on: Natural Resource Management, Disaster Risk Management, Access to Markets and Trade Issues, Livelihoods and Access to Basic Services, Knowledge Management and Research, and Conflict Resolution and Peace-building. A series of **Technical Briefs** was developed by the Technical Consortium on these issues to provide the technical rationale and evidence base to support the priority interventions emanating from the CPPs. The CPPs for Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda among others, were developed and reviewed by a range of experts, most have now been finalised and adopted by their respective governments. Although the plans show a new commitment by IGAD member states to promoting resilience in dryland areas (unlike parallel initiatives such as CAADP: the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Initiative, which are much broader), there are a number of **critical concerns with the CPPs**:

1. The plans are **insufficiently transformative** in their content and **do not address the underlying causes of vulnerability** or ensure time bound progress on the **fundamental building blocks for development and resilience**. These should include providing **access to appropriate education to all children** in the ASALs; **protection of community rights to land** and **adequate compensation mechanisms; economic empowerment of vulnerable groups**

(including ICTs, business training and financial services) in order that they can take advantage of infrastructural development and new market opportunities; and **civic education** on rights, services, and resources devoted to the ASALs.

2. There are no guarantees that all investments will be **appraised for their socio-economic and environmental effects** to avoid **negative impacts on the resilience of vulnerable groups and the lack of compensation witnessed** recently in energy, mineral and crop agriculture investments in the ASALs in the HOA.
3. There are no mechanisms in place to ensure that **communities are engaged in determining their local development priorities and visions** for a resilient future.
4. There are no public **transparency, accountability and monitoring mechanisms** outlined to ensure that **all funds** devoted to the IDDRSI are addressing the priority issues **and benefiting vulnerable ASAL communities**.

Despite the commitment to CSO consultation throughout the process, the first Non-State Actors (NSA) consultation meeting was only organised in October 2012. Member States invited non-state actors, many of whom had little or no understanding of the drylands and virtually no dryland community representatives were invited. In the end, the **NSAs present agreed in their declaration that:**

1. **NSAs at regional and national level should be involved in the design, implementation and monitoring** of the initiative in future.
2. IGAD should continue to consult with NSAs on the IDDRSI including a **more systematic and wider representation of relevant non-state actors including community representatives**.
3. **All member states carry out national level consultations** on the country plans and that community input into defining resilience priorities be included as part of their implementation.
4. **Transparency and accountability mechanisms are put in place to monitor use of funds** devoted to the initiative and country plans.

Whether these suggestions will be taken forward is yet to be seen. However at the moment there is little evidence of community consultations at national levels and most of the CPPs and investment plans have already been approved, although there are still opportunities for community input in the design of detailed implementation plans for investments as long as this is prioritised by all involved.

The IDDRSI process will now depend on the commitment of member states and donors to maintain the essence of the initiative by ensuring community consultation, referring to the evidence base contained in the Technical Briefs and provided by the Technical Consortium and IGAD and to address the concerns outlined above.

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IDDRSI's aim is to create a vision for development in the ASAL regions based on reducing vulnerability and promoting economic growth



Alejandro Chaskielberg/Oxfam

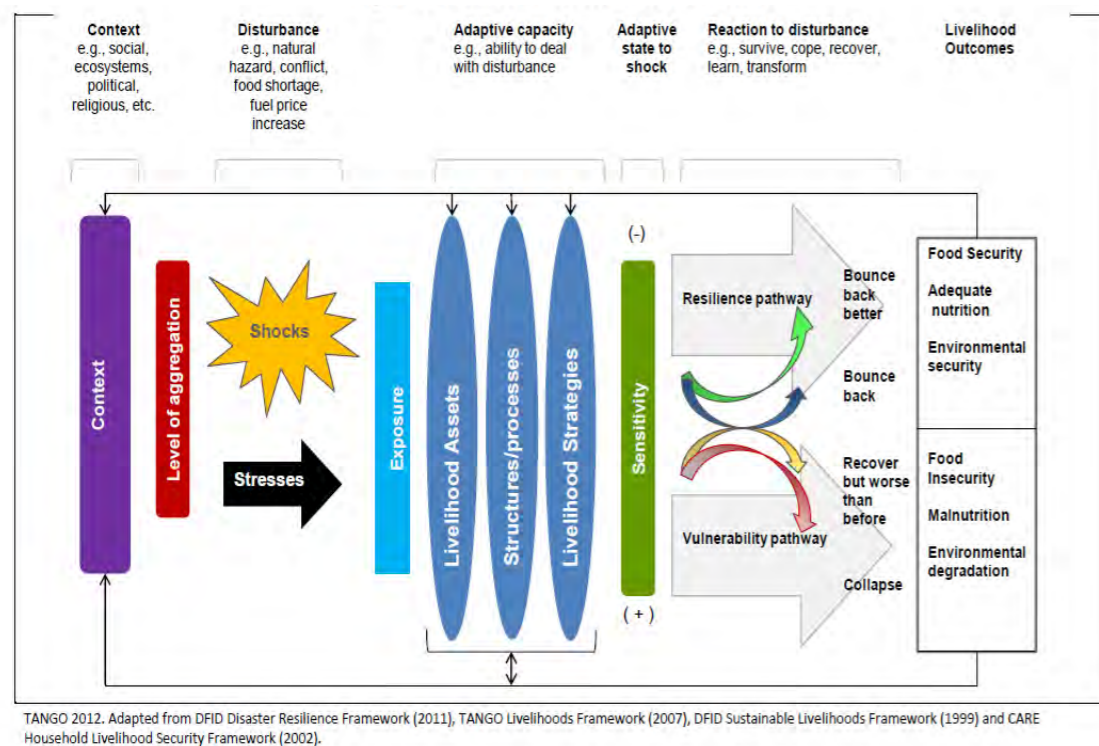
## Resilience in Practice

Vanessa Tilstone, Monitoring, Learning and Communication Manager, REGLAP

The recent frenzied debate around resilience has been bewildering both in the way in which so many organisations feel the need to develop their *own* frameworks, and in the way that there has been so little clarity of what practical value these frameworks bring. With the new DFID, World Bank and USAID discussion paper on 'Enhancing Resilience to Food Security Shocks in Africa'<sup>35</sup> there finally seems to be some coalescence in terms of what is meant by the concept and some of the principles that are fundamental to it.

The DFID/World Bank/USAID paper defines resilience as: *'the ability of countries, communities, and households to anticipate, adapt to, and/or recover from the effects of potentially hazardous occurrences (natural disasters, economic instability, conflict) in a manner that protects livelihoods, accelerates and sustains recovery, and supports economic and social development.'* (p.1) The TANGO conceptual framework has been chosen to illustrate the process. This clearly integrates a livelihoods, disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation approach, reinforcing the link between relief and development as well as promoting more coherence among different disciplines.

**Figure 1: Resilience Assessment Framework**



35 [http://www.fsnnetwork.org/sites/default/files/discussion\\_paper\\_usaid\\_dfid\\_wb\\_nov\\_8\\_2012.pdf](http://www.fsnnetwork.org/sites/default/files/discussion_paper_usaid_dfid_wb_nov_8_2012.pdf)

The paper outlines some key principles that are widely accepted in the development community but are seldom seen in practice. Much work remains to be done to ensure that these principles are put at the forefront of the 'resilience agenda':

1. Putting communities and their main duty bearers (local government) at the centre of development and humanitarian efforts;
2. Recognising and responding to the different needs, capabilities and aspirations of different individuals, households and communities;
3. Understanding and focusing on social and ecological systems rather than individual components of those systems.
4. Promoting integrated multi-sectoral approaches;
5. Increasing emphasis on longer-term investments and addressing the underlying causes of vulnerability.

Putting communities at the centre of resilience efforts requires respect for communities, their institutions and knowledge systems; and a spirit of mutual learning between development partners and the communities. Considerable capacity building will be required to bridge the gap in understanding between communities and development actors, including local government.

### A fine balance

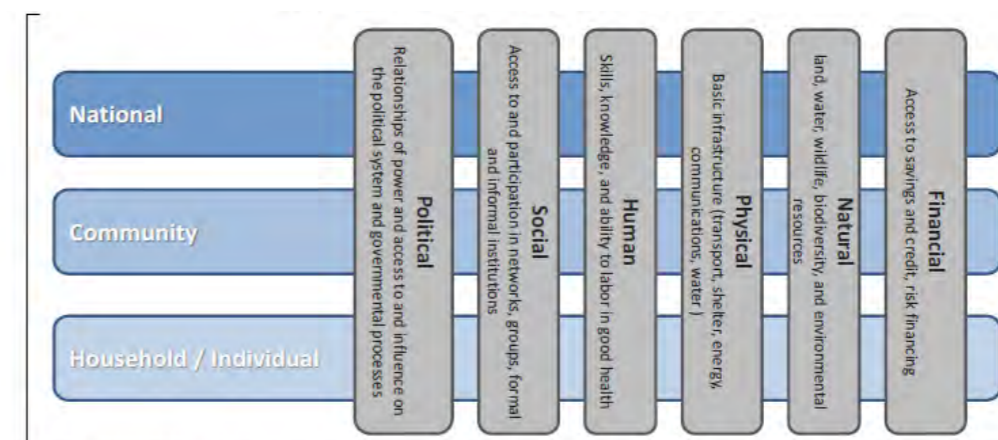
The importance of understanding the dynamics and rationale of the ecological and livelihoods systems in drylands is particularly relevant in resilience, given how much this is being ignored even within recent initiatives that are being labelled as 'resilience building' (e.g. inappropriate crop agriculture promotion). Dryland areas, because of their unique aridity and climate variability, are most productive when managed as an ecological and social system. Extensive livestock production in the past balanced the use of scarce resources over vast areas to ensure survival and expansion during drought and plenty. However, when more productive areas are converted from dry season grazing areas to crop agriculture, or mobility is constrained and traditional management undermined, this system no longer functions.

In a situation where the ecological and social system has already been permanently impaired, the redefining and building of productive and resilient systems needs much thought and effort. Given that alternative livelihoods options currently available have little chance of supporting all people involved in livestock production in the short term [Heady's analysis suggests that at most irrigated crop agriculture can support 3% of the dryland population in the HOA<sup>36</sup>], the protection of remaining dry season grazing areas and key migration and marketing routes is a first urgent step in slowing further damage.

### Coordinated vision

The recognition that resilience has to be built across sectors and scales in order to have impact is highlighted as critical in the DFID/World Bank/USAID paper. Obviously one organisation cannot address all the levels and components required (see Figure 2 below), however by promoting co-ordinated planning, particularly of the government where priority interventions are addressed and linked to a common vision, this can be improved—with donors playing a critical role.

**Figure 2: Building Resilience Across Sectors and Scales**



36 <http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/ifpridp01176.pdf>

Taking a resilience approach will involve much more than inserting the word into debates and discussions. NGOs and donors have already started to re-brand their programs as resilience building with little or no change in content, often with narrow social welfare measures such as social protection and cash transfers being put forward as key resilience building mechanisms. The concept will only become useful if it translates into a wide and consistent understanding of the priorities and processes for implementing it; i.e. the promotion of locally defined and owned visions of resilient futures that everyone contributes to.

The promotion of integrated planning processes is difficult and challenging, and will require major strengthening of community and local government capacity to ensure that locally appropriate and co-ordinated planning happens.<sup>37</sup> There are multiple planning processes taking place both within and outside government: land use planning, contingency planning, community planning and a whole range of sectoral planning processes—few of which link to or recognise the existence of other processes or have reference to a holistic vision of the future of the drylands.

### Embracing difference

There is much talk about innovation and doing things differently in resilience discussions. Innovations that incorporate lessons from the past, prioritise and strengthen the delivery of universally accepted goods—education, governance, community organisation and voice—and address the underlying causes of vulnerability, are essential. But doing things differently for the sake of it, bringing innovations without understanding why efforts have failed in the past and ignoring local context and perceptions are a recipe for disaster.

37 See 'Promoting integrated planning in dryland areas, a review of experiences and opportunities, REGLAP (forthcoming)

One of the problems that the drylands has always had to confront is the assumption that technological solutions designed for highland areas and cultures can automatically be transferred. There are many useful lessons and good practices from the highlands, however there is a need to combine these with local knowledge and realities to identify opportunities for impact. Embracing the differences of dryland populations present a major challenge to us all, particularly governments in the region. As Duncan Green (2012) states:

*'Pastoralism, with its strong emphasis on family and clan loyalties, and on common, rather than individual, ownership of land and forests, throws down a profound challenge to many of the assumptions that underlie 'modern' governance. Whether such visions can co-exist is a test of the ability of governments and societies to recognise and encourage pluralism, rather than uniformity' pp.223.*

This difference is particularly important in discussions around measuring resilience. Local perceptions and quantitative measurements are essential in order to ascertain where or if resilience is growing or declining. But the multi-dimensional nature of resilience means that current national measures fail to capture some of the most important issues affecting resilience e.g. governance, peace and security.

### The way forward

Donors regularly raise the issue of cost effectiveness when discussing which resilience interventions they should fund. However, the value for money argument should always consider the alternative, which is the repeated and ever growing costs of humanitarian relief. We must also not forget that globally we have agreed to fundamental rights to education, health care etc. and should focus on finding the most cost effective and innovative ways to deliver these basic needs, rather than questioning whether we should be providing them at all. What's needed from both donors and NGOs is a greater focus on long-term programming and the flexibility to adapt to changing realities and difference in needs. The tricky underlying issues which NGOs often avoid/leave to government—power, land, governance and basic service provision—must also be tackled.

The articles in this journal provide a range of interventions that need to happen within the new resilience agenda in the drylands: understanding community perceptions, promoting governance and accountability, planning at scale and across borders, engaging with the private sector. There are other issues mentioned that also need to be better understood e.g. successful initiatives to build the capacity of local government and communities to prioritise and plan resilience interventions that take a systems approach and recognise different needs. It is now up to us individually and organisationally to ensure these issues are prioritised in our 'resilience' programming and in the resilience agenda more broadly.

## Regional Learning and Advocacy Programme for Vulnerable Dryland Communities

The Regional Learning and Advocacy Programme (REGLAP) for Vulnerable Dryland Communities is a consortium that promotes lesson learning and good practice documentation on strengthening dryland resilience (in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda) and advocates to governments, NGOs and other stakeholders for improved policy and practice.

The REGLAP programme has been operating since June 2008 and is funded by ECHO. It is now its 4<sup>th</sup> phase, which will operate from Jan 2012 to June 2013.

REGLAP 4 has the following structure:

**Regional Learning Groups** on key issues for DRR in the drylands to develop good practice models and guidance and strengthen the evidence base for dryland resilience promotion:

- 1. Community based approaches to DRR** (CARE, VSF-G, Cordaid, COOPI, ACTED, FAO): **CMDRR, cross border approaches, conflict sensitive programming, PNRM.**
- 2. Water development for DRR** (IUCN, Oxfam, FAO): **developing and promoting good practice models for integrated water planning.**
- 3. Strengthening the evidence base for DRR advocacy** (Save, ILRI-TC, FAO, CARE, Mercy Corps): **analysing available research, promoting/filling research gaps to get clearer and shared understanding of resilience in the drylands, promote joint messaging.**

**Country Advocacy Groups** advocate on the key constraints to resilience building for the drylands to governments and other key actors.

- 1. Kenya:** (Cordaid, PDK, RECONCILE, FAO, ISDR, Oxfam): **ASAL Policy and structures, NDMA roll out and establishment of contingency fund, communal land bill.**
- 2. Ethiopia** (Oxfam, Save, CARE, Cordaid, FAO): **woreda level integrated planning, land use, cross border co-ordination.**
- 3. Uganda** (DCA, C&D, ACTED, COPASCO, Oxfam, FAO): **DEWs, livestock disease surveillance, pastoral code/rangeland management policy**

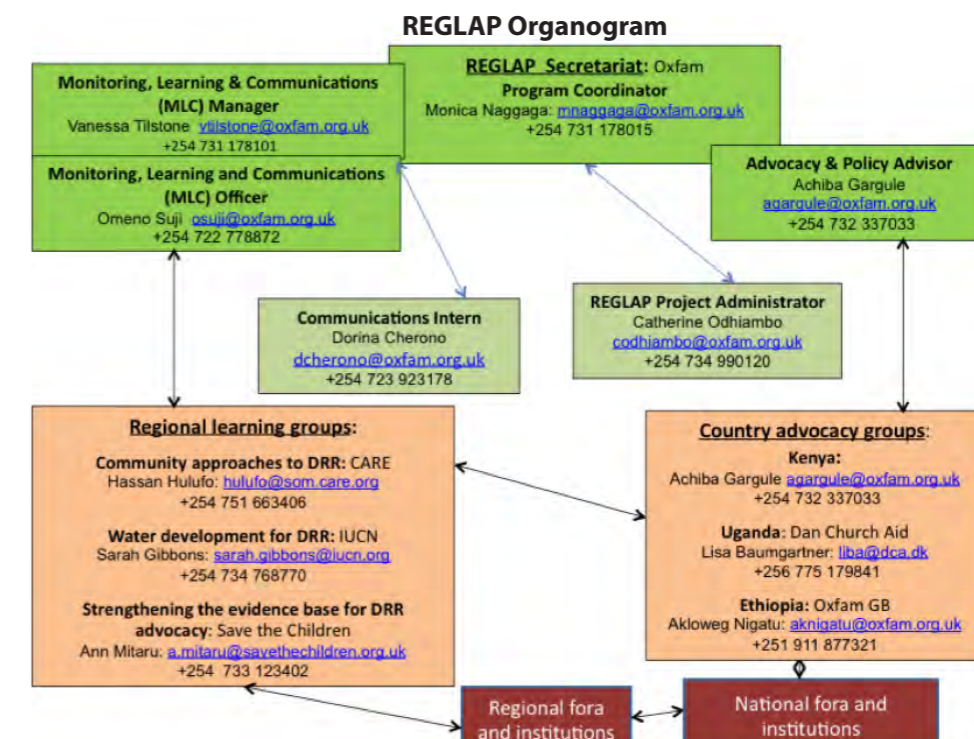
**The REGLAP Secretariat** provides overall co-ordination and supports the country and learning groups; publishes a biannual journal, good practice principles and technical briefs; and oversees targeted strategic studies to strengthen the evidence base for advocacy.

**The REGLAP consortium** currently includes: CARE, Cordaid, Dan Church Aid, IUCN, Oxfam GB and Save the Children, and collaborates with a range of local CSOs and networks, governments, research organisations and ECHO DRRAP partners.

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Tume Racha carries water

Geoff Sayer/Oxfam







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Humanitarian Aid  
and Civil Protection

The project is funded by the European Commission Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection Department (ECHO)

Copies of this newsletter and other REGLAP outputs can be accessed at:  
<http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/east-central-africa/reglap>