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The IGAD region covers an area of approximately 5.2 million km². It has a population of about 240 million people and is endowed with a considerable range of natural resources, providing huge potential for wealth and progress. Despite this great potential, the region is challenged by harsh ecological circumstances and climate variability. Seventy percent of its area is categorised as arid and semi-arid land (ASAL), which receives less than 600mm in annual rainfall and is characterised by recurrent droughts, advancing desertification, land degradation and other climate change-related phenomena. These conditions have been linked to diminished productivity, persistent food insecurity, extreme poverty and chronic vulnerability, which have severely affected the pastoralist and agro-pastoralist communities inhabiting the region.

In light of this, the strategic priorities of the IGAD member states reflect the region’s greatest single defining imperative: the urgent need to build the resilience of the communities to environmental and socio-economic shocks by investing in sustainable development and optimising the productivity of the region’s resources. To this end, IGAD embarked on the implementation of the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) in 2011. This is a comprehensive, holistic undertaking which is being executed in a concerted, coordinated manner throughout the region, and which is aimed at building the resilience of drought-prone communities by addressing their vulnerabilities and challenges including food insecurity, poverty and environmental degradation.

IDDRSI’s objective of ending drought emergencies, building drought resilience and achieving growth and sustainable development is the region’s most versatile development paradigm so far designed. It has assumed transformational significance and has brought an array of actors working together. It has evolved into an integrative mobilisation force, driving the region’s development agenda and providing a common framework through which the key drivers of instability and vulnerability can be understood and addressed. Built around the principle of identifying holistic resilience-enhancing factors as priority areas for intervention, the IDDRSI exercises national action backed by regional thinking, and it provides an effective blue print for collective sustainable development. IGAD member states and their development partners duly agreed to form the IDDRSI Platform, a mechanism by which the implementation of IDDRSI can be coordinated, bringing together all partners and stakeholders and providing the modalities through which the region’s priorities and options for achieving the objectives of the drought resilience initiative can be collectively discussed.
In the past, the approaches used or advocated by governments, development partners and humanitarian agencies to respond to drought and related emergencies, took the form of reactive humanitarian relief interventions, usually based on the action of individual member states or international agencies. IDDRSI, on the other hand, advocates a coherent architecture of international action which involves the coordination of actors in all member states, as well as strategic linkages between humanitarian relief interventions and development initiatives.

The implementation of IDDRSI is guided by a strategy which enables all actors to plan and work in a concerted manner, accentuating their cooperation as joint participants in one regional initiative. The relevance and significance of IDDRSI across the IGAD region is attested by the demonstrated willingness of all member states to translate the IDDRSI Strategy into the objectives of country programming. Added to this is the concurrence expressed by all stakeholders to align development and humanitarian interventions with the objectives of the Strategy. The IDDRSI Strategy has been translated by IGAD member states into their respective Country Programming Papers (CPPs) for activities at the national level, and into Regional Programming Papers (RPPs) for interventions planned at the regional and cross-border levels. Inter-connected coordination mechanisms at local, national and regional levels, all of which are required for the harmonised implementation of the initiative, have been established in all seven IGAD member states.

The IDDRSI Strategy's priority intervention areas (PIAs) target households as primary beneficiaries. The Strategy recognises the need for the empowerment of groups and individuals to develop the capacity needed to withstand the effects of drought and related shocks. This is achieved through effective drought-disaster risk management in general, and resilience building in particular. The IDDRSI Strategy is fully harmonised with the newly adopted regional, continental and global frameworks which reflect priorities in current thinking and address emerging challenges. The Strategy's focus and approach to disaster management and livelihoods enhancement is similar to that advocated by the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (2015 – 2030): it addresses all 17 of the Sustainable Development Goals of 2015 – 2030 and it is fully harmonised with both the IGAD Regional Strategy of 2016 – 2020 and the AU’s 2063 Agenda.

Progress to date includes the establishment of IDDRSI coordination structures, interpretation of the IDDRSI Strategy into CPPs and RPPs, and the translation of these CPPs and RPPs into investment plans for resource mobilisation to secure soft loans and grants from various sources. These sources include the African Development Bank, the World Bank, the Government of Germany, the European Union, USAID, the Islamic Development Bank and the Government of Denmark. In addition to this progress, it is gratifying to note the hugely positive response and goodwill expressed by the affected countries and their development partners to support the implementation of IDDRSI in spite of global economic downtrends and alleged donor fatigue. Announcements of support are highly welcome in the region, and it indeed appears that the problem of drought emergencies is finally receiving the attention it demands.

With inputs from the IGAD member states and with support from various partners, IGAD’s capacity to optimally perform its assigned leadership and coordination functions in the implementation of IDDRSI has been greatly enhanced. The member states have been active in the development and funding of field programmes and projects aimed at building drought resilience. The leadership and coordination roles served by the IGAD Secretariat in the implementation of IDDRSI, including the management of the IDDRSI Platform, are clear illustrations of IGAD’s comparative advantage as an agent of change and progress in the region. Nowhere is the role and mandate played by the IGAD Secretariat in the implementation of IDDRSI more crucial or relevant, meanwhile, than in the planning and
execution of cross-border interventions. Cross-border programming is consistent with the IDDRSI Strategy in that it employs a multi-sectoral, holistic approach.

The tremendous response mounted by the IGAD member states, as well as the goodwill shown by the development partners to support the implementation of IDDRSI in spite of global economic downturns and donor fatigue are noteworthy. IDDRSI has become both a regional plan and a commitment to building drought resilience and to achieving growth and sustainable development throughout the IGAD region.

This edition of the Resilience Focus Magazine, which comes at the end of Phase 1 of IDDRSI addresses a range of issues along the IDDRSI pillars. To set the tone of the magazine, Dr. Saif El Din Daoud Abd El Rahman, the former Regional Resilience Analysis Unit Coordinator reviews chapters of the IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) which were presented at the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) Steering Committee, held in Addis Ababa in January 2017. In his article titled *Resilience over the decades: the IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) at a glance*, various definitions of resilience, as well as measurements of resilience from both short- and long-term development points of view, were also debated at the Steering Committee meeting. The article finishes by offering some conclusions from recent works on vulnerability, livelihoods and resilience.

In his article titled *A regional approach to pastoral resilience: the case of the Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP)*, Dr. Dereje Wakjlira reports on the achievements and lessons learnt from the project that is implemented by the governments of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. The RPLRP seeks regional solutions to the challenges faced by pastoralists who reside in the cross-border ASALs of the three countries, aiming to enhance their opportunities for livelihood development.

*Cross-border pastoral resource sharing - Reciprocal grazing agreements* presents model (inter-) community practices of pastoral resource sharing as well as suggested enabling work at international and bilateral levels – in light of the often cross-border contexts of pastoral movement. The article debunks some common misconceptions that are contained in the public narrative on pastoralism.

The use of Information, Communication and Technology in resilience building initiatives has been on the rise in the region and is reported in this edition. One example is the *Regional Early Warning and Action Communication Tool (REACT) app*, which uses mobile technology to build resilience. The Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Federation of the Red Cross (IFRC) developed this innovation in safety, disaster response and risk education, that brings citizens into a culture of safety and rapid information exchange with responders.

Nathan Morrow and Mohamed Tahir report on the *High-frequency mobile monitoring for resilience learning and responsive programming* initiative, implemented by CARE and Tulane University. In their article, they explain how surveys were used to leverage mobile phone technology in gathering relevant, near real-time information, as well as to facilitate information exchange between individuals, communities and other partners for joint learning, reflection, process improvement and action on climate vulnerabilities and resilience capacities.

In their article, *di-Monitoring: a tool for regional drought resilience strategies*, Anthony Awira and Jemal Mensur explain the web-based project monitoring tool that was identified to facilitate the tracking of the implementation of the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) at regional, national and sub-national levels.
The Greater Horn of Africa Climate Risk and Food Security Atlas is the result of partnership between many institutions working in the IGAD region, including the IGAD Climate Prediction and Application Centre. This article outlines key messages from the atlas, which help to make it a strategic tool to guide adaptation planning, programme design and policy making for national and sub-national government agencies, UN agencies and non-governmental organisations.

The Resilience Index Measurement and Analysis (RIMA-II) model and its application within the IGAD region reviews the RIMA-II methodology and its application within the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) region. The article also propagates the two-pronged methodology of hands-on training combined with institutionalisation through Resilience Measurement Units (RMU) as a tool for governmental decision making. RIMA-II model has been developed by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations as a tool for both resilience measurement and project impact evaluation.

Dr. Jarvice Sekajja reports on the Technical support and coordination to strengthen resilience programming for Karamoja, Uganda by the USAID/Uganda Karamoja Resilience Support Unit (KRSU). The unit provides a platform for development partners to coordinate development efforts and to harmonise shared approaches – through reviews, studies and syntheses – in Uganda’s Karamoja sub-region. The unit also provides capacity-building support to the Ministry for Karamoja Affairs, as well as supporting joint multi-donor analyses and planning processes. He outlines how mapping has been used to improve planning, coordination, and programming.

In his article titled Information is power: the urgent need for improved information provision on critical policy and practice issues in remote dryland communities in Kenya, Mr. Jarso Mokku of The Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI) describes findings of a study that was undertaken as part of a grant to identify and address the critical information needs of remote communities in Isiolo, Marsabit and Turkana Counties. The study concludes, therefore, that remote communities require much more information on policy and practice issues that affect their lives.

Mr. Mohamed Tahir and Mr. Abdirahim Salah Gure write about the role of savings and loans associations in drought resilience. The article draws its content from a study of CARE’s Somalia Towards Reaching Resilience (STORRE) project, which has been working with village savings and loans associations (VSLAs) in Sanaag Region of Somalia. The study found that while VSLAs provide critical assets, services and vital safety nets, severe and prolonged droughts overwhelm and can erode the associations’ effectiveness, thus threatening their sustainability.

Finally a short communications about technical support to enhance livestock and meat trade from IGAD region by Dr. Ameha Sebsibe outlines the trade potential of this sector, some challenges and the main technical support provided by the IGAD Centre for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development (ICPALD).
A Boran pastoralist takes her livestock to a communally managed water point in Garba Tulla, Isiolo county, northern Kenya.

Photo: ILRI/Fiona Flintan
Resilience over the decades: the IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) at a glance

by Dr. Saif El Din Daoud Abd El Rahman, Regional Resilience Analysis Unit Coordinator

Abstract

Can individuals overcome persistent systematic shocks to their own economic circumstances as caused by extreme weather events? Is there sufficient space for public policy and households to react differently?

The ways in which households react to shocks has been subject to considerable research and debate, as evidenced by the rapidly growing quantity of literature on resilience analysis. What explains limited policy responsiveness to the incidence of drought at household level? The ways in which governments react to rectify policies aimed at strengthening households’ response to shocks are central to questions about resilience analysis from a public policy point of view. Much of the recent debate also tries to link climate change with resilience or building resilience under certain ecological stresses. Although this may be useful in a specific case, it may not be the case when debating within a broader, ‘macro’ perspective, considering the history of failure of ‘targeted programmes’. This article reviews chapters of the IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) which were presented at the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) Steering Committee, held in Addis Ababa in January 2017. Various definitions of resilience, as well as measurements of resilience from both short- and long-term development points of view, were also debated at the Steering Committee meeting. The article finishes by offering some conclusions from recent works on vulnerability, livelihoods and resilience.

Background

The IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) is a response to recent developments and policy discourse on resilience between IGAD member states. The Report is also a specific response to the sixth IGAD-IDDRSI Steering Committee recommendations, made in Nairobi, to publish some policy findings.

The aim of the IROR is to capture the progress and ongoing discussion and debate among scholars, policymakers, practitioners, and thereby to develop innovative tools and measures for tracking resilience to drought and other disasters such as flood within the IGAD region. The report also attempts to respond to recent claims, resentment and discontent by majority of the IGAD member states that disasters have been exaggerated by external actors who failed to objectively present the state of resilience of the region as a whole.

Given the ambiguity of the resilience concept, however, selecting chapters for this volume required some difficult choices in topic selection. Editorial decisions were based on two main criteria. First, topics (or chapters) were selected which presented the opportunity to develop arguments related to resilience in the context of both humanitarian and development initiatives. Second, the authors were interested in developing a report
which would detail achievements over a period of decades, ever since the great drought of 1984-5.

The report recognises that resilience analysis is not an end in itself, but rather that it serves as a tool for enhancing our understanding of how policies should be distinctive. This is especially important after decades of steady improvement in dealing with shocks caused by weather events. In the past, debate within IGAD was informed by some much-publicised failures, as well as by shared frustrations over the huge poverty challenges that characterised the region at that time.

This article also intends to unveil the IGAD Resilience Analysis Unit (RAU) platform. The RAU brings together specialised IGAD institutions and UN partner agencies to contribute to knowledge while also enhancing the capacity of IGAD member states to analyse and showcase their thoughts about resilience. Recent discussions on the topic have gone beyond traditional national development plans, instead reshaping the debate on territorial or regional development through cross-border programmes.

Extreme weather events caused by climate change pose grave risks to all IGAD member states. Taking the great drought of 1984-5 as a benchmark, the IROR examines the ways in which resilience has changed over time, as well as how countries have responded to extreme events. The chapter on El Niño offers more extensive insight into this phenomenon. The other selected chapters focus on four other themes which are each central to the resilience debate: socio-economic development, methodological aspects, humanitarian issues and approaches, and the institutions-and-climate-resilience nexus. It is hoped that exploration of these issues will trigger positive discussion towards deeper understanding and domestication of the resilience concept into mainstream policy making. Against this background, the article reviews and summarises the key findings of various chapters of the Report.
IGAD member states

Sustained economic growth in a number of member states has not necessarily translated into increased adaptive capacity for resilience to drought, especially within arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs). This discrepancy reflects a gap between national-level and local-level capacities.

For instance, the El Niño-induced drought of 2015-16 hit Ethiopia very hard, placing more than 10 million people in need of humanitarian assistance. However, even with over 80% of the country's population still engaged in agriculture, lives were not lost, as was the case in 1984-5. This example suggests that some IGAD member states have greatly improved their responses to challenges, and so there is good reason for optimism.

Given the fact that most economies within the IGAD region are predominantly agriculture- and livestock-based, what have we learned from past experience in terms of dealing with shocks and extreme weather events? As we confront the substantial challenges posed by climate change, drought, floods and land degradation, growing population, the nature of economic geography between leading and lagging areas within the region, economic features of high and lowland, extreme weather events and commodity prices, shocks become an integral part of resilience analysis throughout the region. These challenges have been most noticeable with the frequent El Niño and associated La Nina phenomena. Resilience analysis presents a great opportunity for determining whether or not recent development advances in IGAD member states are evenly inclusive, responsive to adverse events and sustainable. Utilisation of the growing knowledge base on resilience is vital in guiding public policies to promote the well-being of deprived high-risk individuals throughout society.

Recent discussions on resilience have contributed to creating positive regional and international momentum for the IGAD region to mobilise both financial and technical support in ending drought emergencies. Translating the initiative into operationalised investment programmes is subject to considerable debate about what it is that constitutes ‘resilience-oriented investment’. This healthy debate aims to rectify a history of repeatedly failed development programmes in deprived development regions.

What helps countries to build resilience?
A common vision for bridging research, policy and practice

Resilience, a concept concerned with how socio-ecological systems, communities and / or individuals deal with disturbance, surprise or change, is framing current thinking about sustainable development in an environment characterised by growing risk and uncertainty. The background note of this article summarises the evolution of resilience within the context of IGAD member states, including institutional issues and rigidities that affect various national public policy and development agenda.

While researchers continue to strive for deeper understanding of the factors driving resilience, an approach that focuses on transforming persistent shocks and making famine history across the IGAD region is currently on track. Although research clearly matters, there remains the need for systematic understanding of exactly what constitutes resilience within the arena of development policy.

As economies steadily move from lower to higher income status, production is becoming spatially even more concentrated. Some places — such as cities, coastal areas and connected countries — may be favoured by producers and trade development. However, the most successful developing countries also
institute policies which make living standards of people more uniform across space. This includes the provision of safety nets for the populace. This results in a drive toward long-term benefits in the concentration of production, as well as a convergence in living standards and economic integration (WDR, 2009).

With regards to policy, meanwhile, focus on resilience strengthening should be calibrated to match the difficulty of development challenges. It should also be determined by economic geography – such as places where member states share common resources and borders. For example, northern Kenya, southern and eastern Ethiopia, northern Uganda and most of Sudan, Eritrea, Somalia and Djibouti share the characteristic of having economically lagging regions.

Under the theme of resilience over the decades, the IGAD Resilience Outlook Report (IROR) concludes that frequent drought threats and incidences of shocks will persist in the region, and that only through economic development and diversification can vulnerability to shocks be reduced. Along a similar line of argument, resilience is not an end in itself, but addressing it makes it possible to achieve other important core objectives at household, community, national and regional levels, including along socio-ecological scales. At the regional level, recognising that the risks of drought are shared across borders requires collective monitoring. This article calls for greater commitment and improved governance of cross-border issues.

**Institutions as pillars of resilience**

In recent years, focus on understanding the political processes driving the development of institutions has increased. At the same time, wider debate on aid and development has been strongly influenced by cross-country econometric studies showing that aid is effective in spurring growth and poverty reduction in countries with good policies, but not in countries with poor policies – see, for example, Burnside and Dollar (2000). How robust is such a conclusion? What constitutes true aid? How should we measure the efficiency of aid?

Do these results imply that greater targeting of aid is necessary? Can aid be used to improve policies?

Nicholas Stern (2004) outlines the main development challenges, as summarised by the Millennium Development Goals, and explains the need for scaling up the international community’s efforts to combat poverty. By ‘scaling up’ he means not only increasing the quantity of assistance, but also — and equally importantly — changing it qualitatively away from past modes of promoting development. In Stern's view, our understanding of development and poverty has progressed, as has our ability to apply that understanding, the combination of which is cause for optimism about the future of development. In particular, Stern argues that experience and analysis have shown that development rests on two pillars: improving the investment climate and empowering poor people. Stern applauds the recent move toward greater targeting of aid on countries that can use it effectively, but he also underlines the need for alternative approaches in those countries which lack the policies, institutions, and governance necessary to use aid well. He discusses how the World Bank has already reoriented itself in this regard, while calling for further development of measurement and evaluation of the effectiveness of these new directions.

A tendency to oversimplify complex messages, as well as to bundle together policy reforms that are not necessarily inseparable from a technical point of view, is a consequence of imperfect knowledge. It has important implications for the path of future policies whenever politicians construct messages attempting to separate themselves from supposedly ‘bad’ policies.
At the same time, development researchers continue to debate the relative importance of geography and institutions as fundamental causes of differences in prosperity between countries – see, for example, Sachs and Warner (1997). In this context, considering how factor endowments and geography might affect how institutions evolve is important.

While the resilience discussion is helpful and clarifies many policy debates, discussing the specific policies that are likely to promote high and pro-poor economic growth is critical. The latter task is difficult, mainly because researchers and policymakers continue to disagree on key elements of the topic.

Resilience from humanitarian and development perspectives

It is now widely accepted that disasters are not unavoidable interruptions to development, to be dealt with solely through rapid delivery of emergency relief. Rather, they are the result of unmanaged risks within the development process itself. Disasters are created when a hazard, such as a flood or earthquake, occurs where people, assets and systems are exposed and vulnerable to its effects (Turnbull, Sterrett and Hilleboe, 2013).

As the first major agreement of the post-2015 development agenda, the Sendai Framework and its implementation is an important catalyst for achievement of the goals and targets set forth in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, as well as in the Addis Ababa Action Agenda on financing for development, agreed in July 2015 and in the COP21 climate agreement of late 2015.

The development–humanitarian nexus within the IGAD region is a very lively debate, due to the complexity of geopolitics and the combination of both natural shocks and conflicts. Despite remarkable progress in building resilience in a number of member states, humanitarian assistance will continue to be necessary to save lives in some IGAD countries when they are faced with shocks. The humanitarian perspective to resilience in this report reviews and frames these debates, providing a fresh guide to the future for policies and humanitarian coordination in the region.

There is much debate about the meaning of resilience from both humanitarian and development points of view, but the emphasis of this report is on why some countries do better than others in overcoming adversity of shocks, including their capacity to enhance or diminish resilience over time.

Recent debate on resilience and development has been strongly influenced by the backgrounds and mandates of agencies conducting resilience. Current approaches limit space and make progress difficult for policymakers and practitioners, raising a number of important questions. How robust are the conclusions about resilience analysis? How can the development–humanitarian nexus improves our understating and responses? What lessons can be learned from IGAD member states in responding to extreme weather events, including recent and previous El Niño phenomena? How should we measure the efficiency of our resilience programmes? Do these different resilience results imply that greater targeting and focus is necessary? Can resilience analysis be used to improve policies, programs and generate new project designs?

This article attempts to answer some of these questions, although all of them are queries to be addressed in order to better understand resilience trends in the IGAD region.

Measuring resilience: ‘The devil is in the details’

The resilience initiative has opened up new paths for developing improved
methods of monitoring and evaluating the ambitious objectives assigned to IGAD member states in implementing the IDDRSI Framework.

Resilience has become a central concept in much of the development literature, but what does it mean? In recent years, discussions about institutional reforms have moved to the centre of the development debate, with a corresponding shift away from a static, technocratic approach toward more dynamic perspective, participatory state transformation.

This report tries to assimilate and digest the cumulative experience of member states and of the UN agencies dealing with resilience in analysing the way in which those countries respond to shocks, as well as how development and humanitarian actors have responded over the decades. Careful and thoughtful policy analysis in a wide spectrum of fields is needed, and this report is a first step towards achievement of this objective. The report does not intend to settle all outstanding issues or to arbitrate ongoing debates related to resilience and resilience measurements. Rather, it seeks to foster complementary practices and coordination between multiple actors working towards a common goal. Outstanding issues will be dealt with over time as academic and policy research progress.

The report also aims to share its findings with political leaders, senior researchers and practitioners in the field, as well as policy makers who are focussed on dealing with frequent shocks and with devising the best ways to tackle the recurrent problems of drought. Also targeted are the next generation of leaders, international financial institutions and national investors in the areas of risk transfer, development actors and relevant UN agencies.

The current development context requires a shift of emphasis to more intangible elements such as knowledge, institutions, and policies, in an attempt to forge a more comprehensive framework of ideas that benefit from the evolution of development thinking and do not simply repeat past mistakes. Although the creation of ideas is a necessary condition for development, it is not sufficient if decision makers do not listen to these ideas or if they require political conditions or institutional reforms which are not affected.

The ambiguity that surrounds the concept of regional economic development is compounded by the fact that two definitions of the notion can be found in the ecological literature, where the idea has perhaps been most debated. The first (and more traditional) definition, so-called ‘engineering resilience’, concentrates on the stability of a system near an equilibrium or steady state, where resistance to disturbance and the speed of return to the pre-existing equilibrium are used to define the idea of resilience – see Hollings (1973); Pimm (1984). Some believe that the concept of resilience has migrated from the natural and physical sciences into the social sciences and public policy, with the identification of global threats such as economic crisis, climate change and international terrorism focusing attention on the responsive capacities of places and social systems (Hill et al., 2008).

Either way, resilience goes beyond the broad development approaches to reduce poverty. In essence, it aims to understand the systemic shocks and stressors that people are exposed to, as well as the mechanisms present in their community to withstand them. While shocks, whether man-made or natural, cannot always be anticipated or prevented, translating the concept of resilience into an actionable framework of analysis can equip governments and communities with the tools to respond to shocks, and eventually to reduce communities' vulnerability over time (USAID, 2012).

Most of the approaches, tools and methods currently available to measure resilience reflect strongly the diversity of disciplines and sectors that have appropriated the term. Recent cross-disciplinary attempts to develop ways for measuring resilience
have focused on assessing such elements as technological capacity, skills and education levels, economic status and growth prospects, the quality of environment, natural resource management institutions, livelihood assets, political structures and processes, infrastructure, flows of knowledge and information, and the speed and breadth of innovation and communication (Mitchell and Harris, 2012). The specific combination of measures chosen tends to be based on available data rather than on a normative approach. Regardless of disciplinary preference, however, measuring resilience requires bounded temporal and spatial scales. It is, therefore, the decisions about which aspects of a system to delineate, and, indeed, how a system itself is conceptualised, that continue to shape our knowledge of the interaction of processes that determine resilience in different contexts (Carpenter et al., 2001).

The bottom-up, experience-based derivation of resilience measures in the context of risk management is a promising avenue of definition, although these measures of resilience have their critics. Silva Villanueva (2011), for example, raises three concerns about popular measures of resilience: (i) their deterministic approaches that focus on inputs and outputs rather than processes, (ii) their capture of static rather than dynamic scenarios, and (iii) their narrow focus on system effectiveness and efficiency rather than assessing processes of transformation. Further research is needed here in order to compare, contrast and link methods of measuring resilience and risk management effectiveness. In sum, there is no single comprehensive framework that measures resilience. Rather, measurement depends on purpose, and careful empirical studies are needed. Caution also needs to be exercised in extrapolating findings or measures of resilience at one scale – such as spatial and / or temporal – versus making assumptions based on those findings for other contexts or other parts of the same system.

**Concluding remarks**

Irrespective of what can been learned from recent resilience debates, both in the IGAD region and elsewhere, it is now clear that, unless it is possible to influence policy, the problem of persistent shocks cannot be solved. Creation and debating of ideas is necessary as a prerequisite for any endeavour or initiative, meanwhile, as the absorption of ideas may facilitate the development of sound
frameworks for measuring resilience from both rigorous analysis and empirical testing.

The task of this report has been to provide evidence that resilience agenda can support the transformation of the IGAD region. It is hoped that the report will reshape business models and development thinking for the IGAD member states. Development of resilience agenda will certainly be strengthened and accelerated if the exchange of ideas continues and if new partnerships are actively nurtured.

References


Abstract

Pastoralism is the mainstay livelihood in the arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) of the Horn of Africa, where conditions can be so localised that a good rainy season and a drought may be only a couple of hours’ walk apart. Herd mobility enables pastoralists to harness this environmental variability to enhance livestock production.

Meanwhile, modern national boundaries cut across traditional livestock mobility routes. Three countries of the IGAD region, Kenya, Ethiopia and Uganda, have embraced a regional solution to enhance pastoralists’ opportunities for livelihood development. The three countries, guided by the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) framework, have collaborated in shared objectives targeting cross-border communities. Key achievements of this Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP) include synchronised transboundary animal disease (TAD) surveillance and vaccination and strengthening infrastructure (in the form of markets, water sources and border posts) along identified stock routes which cross the international borders. The RPLRP is an impressive model of what is possible, even though limited experience in implementing multi-sector approaches, donor’s procedural requirements and a project coordination unit that is required to satisfy government regulations and procedures have all slowed progress towards the project’s ultimate development objective of strengthening pastoralists’ resilience.

Background

Pastoralism is a production system which encourages mobility of livestock in order to maximise the utilisation of available natural resources (de Jode, 2009; Fratkin, 2001). The system has been in operation for centuries in ASALs, where rain-fed agriculture and other forms of land use are not suitable, and where a good rainy season and a drought may be only a couple of hours’ walk apart. The ASALs of the Horn of Africa are generally located in countries’ border areas, where social and economic situations are less developed than in the hinterlands.

Pastoralism has been subject to considerable debate, with questions being raised about its viability and about land-use systems. Opponents have advocated for sedentarisation, which they consider as the best form of land use in the ASALs (Hesse, 2009). Contrary to the views that have traditionally dominated development practice in arid and semi-arid lands, in recent years scholars have strongly argued that improving productivity in dryland environments is possible by working with climatic uncertainty rather than seeking to control it (Krätli, 2015; Opiyo et al., 2014). Herd mobility is not only essential for effective risk management: it also
enables pastoralists to harness the environmental variability and enhance livestock production. While mobility is crucial to the pastoralist way of life, modern national boundaries frequently cut across traditional livestock mobility routes. A regional approach is therefore called for over separate country-level interventions, in order to address some of the challenges and build resilience to disaster risks such as epidemic livestock diseases, drought, flood, conflict and water stress.

The Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP)

Developed within the auspices of the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI), the Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP) is a five-year regional initiative implemented by the governments of Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. The three countries accessed a soft loan from the International Development Association (IDA). They also availed additional resources from their national and sub-national states in terms of staffing, office space and operations.

The RPLRP seeks regional solutions to the challenges faced by pastoralists who reside in the cross-border ASALs of the three countries, aiming to enhance their opportunities for livelihood development. Figure 1 shows the project target areas in the three countries. The project’s specific objectives are built around four of the seven IDDRSI pillars. They are:

- To enhance the sustainable management and secure access of pastoral and agro-pastoral communities to natural resources (water and pasture) with trans-boundary significance;
- To improve the market access of agro-pastoralists and pastoralists to the intra-regional and international markets of livestock and livestock products;
- To enhance the livelihoods of pastoralist and agro-pastoralist communities; and
- To enhance drought-related hazard preparedness, prevention and response at the national and regional levels.

The preparation process of the RPLRP was unique in that each of the three countries instituted a coordination unit which was responsible for consultation and planning at both national and regional levels. The regional consultation was facilitated by IGAD through financial and technical support of development actors such as the German Development Cooperation (GIZ). The three countries duly identified priority issues in pastoral areas and developed a plan of action comprising a project development objective, components, outputs and results framework. Project preparation largely adopted the IDDRSI Regional and Country Programming Papers (RPPs and CPPs).

The loan from IDA amounted to USD $192 million, allocated to Kenya ($77m), Ethiopia ($75m), million and Uganda ($40m) and targeting a total of 267,000 pastoral and agro-pastoral households. Furthermore, IGAD secured an IDA grant equivalent to USD $5 million in order to complement the countries’ efforts at the regional level through coordination of cross-cutting issues, supporting policy harmonisation and facilitating sharing of experiences. In order to acquire their loan, each of the three countries independently negotiated with the World Bank through country-specific loan approval procedures. This took a shorter time for Ethiopia and longer for Uganda, which meant that the date of project commencement was staggered.
Figure 1. RPLRP project areas in the three countries
© IGAD/RPLRP
Key achievements

Since the inception of the RPLRP, the three countries have been closely working together towards the same objectives, targeting communities in the borderlands. Staff from the three countries discussed issues affecting cross-border pastoral communities, which helped to coordinate and harmonise planning. The project focuses on cross-border areas, targeting pastoral and agro-pastoral communities to improve natural resource management, animal health, livestock markets, alternative livelihoods and disaster risk management. As such, mobility is implicitly accepted and most of the infrastructural improvements in water, market and animal health service facilities are positioned on livestock mobility (or ‘transhumance’) routes to grazing or market areas.

The IGAD Coordination Unit was assigned with clear tasks which cut across the countries and, in so doing, demonstrated the importance of a regional approach to facilitation. More specifically, IGAD supported and facilitated regional and cross-border planning, harmonised baseline data collection, harmonised the monitoring and evaluation system and ensured infrastructural development along livestock mobility routes.

Figure 2: Distribution of invasive woody plant species in northern Kenya and southern Ethiopia © IGAD/RPLRP
IGAD has been supporting the three countries in mapping, as well as in other areas. The maps compiled display cross-border livestock market and market infrastructure inventories, existing water infrastructure, land use and invasive species distribution (see Figure 2) and mapping of conflict dynamics, latent and existing, in the cross-border areas. The maps are used by the countries as planning tools.

Most IGAD member states have already signed a memorandum of understanding (MoU) for collaborating in prevention and control of trade-sensitive TAD, through the support of the IGAD Center for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development (ICPALD). Through RPLRP, the three countries have synchronised TAD surveillance and vaccination. Veterinary teams duly operate together often across the international borders.

The full impact of the project, including its contribution to pastoral resilience, can only be discussed after the planned infrastructures has been delivered by the three countries. Activities carried out by the RPLRP have shed light on the lives of the cross-border pastoralists. These were regional and national studies and meetings in different thematic areas which include pastoral feed security, cross-border livestock trade, mainstreaming pastoral risk management, cross-border livestock trade, complementary livelihoods in pastoral areas and the like.

At regional level, policy harmonisation is moving in the right direction despite a slow start. Among the policy initiatives covered, harmonised grade and standards of live animal, meat and skin is at an advanced stage. Such harmonisation can facilitate smooth operation of cross-border trade and regional integration. Furthermore, at least two regional strategies – animal disease control and sanitary and phyto-sanitary (SPS)– were developed through the participation of countries in order to guide their policy development for harmonisation.

**Lessons and challenges**

There are lessons that can be drawn and shared even though implementation is at its early stage. For example, the three countries have each followed a different approach in terms of setting up the project implementation unit: some countries established the Project Coordination Unit (PCU) using the existing government staff (Uganda and partly Kenya). Under such arrangements the PCU has full support from departments and host ministry staff, institutionalised within the host ministry. In Ethiopia the PCU was established as an independent entity by recruiting short-term contract staff. However, the project is under the close supervision of the Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries. Observations so far have shown that such an arrangement is actually weak at mobilising ministry staff fully, and similarly weak in quickly adapting and responding to priorities of the host ministry.

In the case of Uganda, tsetse fly infestation is acute in two of the project districts, while tsetse control was not planned into the project. By considering its impact on livestock and livelihoods, the PCU has committed resources to support tsetse flies control. This has helped the affected communities very much.

In all arrangements, the RPLRP is going through the government fiduciary, recruitment and procurement procedures. These procedures are slow and less efficient, hence limiting the progress of project implementation.

In terms of realising cross-border TAD control, the project has been supporting the national and sub-national veterinary departments in the three countries through provision of vaccines and logistical support for surveillance and vaccination. However, as with project commencement times, procurement and delivery of vaccines has been staggered in the different countries, and synchronised vaccination has been challenging. Having said this, so far 22,131,221 doses of different vaccines (5,828,612 Kenya, 15,702,690 Ethiopia and
600,000 Uganda) have been administered in cross-border areas. In Ethiopia this translates to 220,960 households benefiting from the vaccines, and 13,200 households in Kenya.

Even where key resources such as water and rangelands are found to be shared by communities from two or more countries, investments in cross-border areas remain unilateral. It means that budgetary allocation, infrastructure building and resource management are determined by the country where the resource is located. More effort is needed to popularize the concept of cross-border development in order to achieve investment on communal resources regardless of geographic boundary.

In Kenya and Ethiopia, the PCU was constituted both at national and sub-national (County/Regional State) levels. There seems duplication of effort and burden project overhead cost. It is important focusing on strengthening PCU at sub-national level so that more resources are channelled to target areas to build local capacities.
References


Livestock mobility is an essential resilience strategy of pastoral communities\(^2\). Erratic rainfall requires herds to move to areas far beyond a single community’s land in order to find sufficient vegetation and water. The most cost-effective, resilience-improving investments in arid and semi-arid lands, therefore, are those which preserve livestock mobility while simultaneously facilitating social transformation and innovation.

Pastoral resource sharing is a traditional institution through which clans or communities agree to share their grazing areas and water sources. In order to better address new challenges and opportunities, this traditional institutional practice can be ‘upgraded’ to be:

- more inclusive of external parties\(^3\) and different groups within a community;
- better documented in maps and cross-border written agreements;
- increasingly knowledge-based, thereby providing opportunities for learning and innovation.
- **Gender consideration**: Empowering women as members of resource-sharing committees allows them to advocate that grazing areas be reserved close to settlements in order to reduce workload.

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1 Geographical coverage: Border areas of 4 countries: Kenya, Uganda, South Sudan, Ethiopia
2 Pastoralist communities; regional, national and local authorities
3 Partners: IGAD, AU, FAO, international development agents including NGOs (ACTED, VSF, IUCN, etc.) and national NGOs. Financing: Donors supporting multi-country, cross-border funding mechanisms: EU, USAID, SDC, NORAD, GAF and the German, Danish and Japanese governments
Resilience Focus

- **Nutrition:** The holistic livestock management concept links livestock and human health to pastoralist resilience strategies such as resource sharing and keeping herds healthy and productive.

This document presents model (inter-) community practices of pastoral resource sharing as well as also suggested enabling work at international and bilateral levels – in light of the often cross-border contexts of pastoral movement.

‘If you’re not at the table, you’re on the menu’

The public narrative on pastoralism often includes some common misconceptions:

1. *High livestock numbers alone determine levels of degradation; destocking is therefore a must in times of crisis.* No, animals are critical to the maintenance of rangeland, as grazers co-evolve with grassland itself. In other words, a lack of animal density can also cause degradation. Overgrazing is rather a question of over-staying in one place: animals need to keep moving to avoid it.

2. *Governments must intervene in rangeland management.* Traditionally, governments have never governed rangelands: instead, pastoral communities’ traditional institutions do. These institutions regulate the use of vegetation and water. At higher levels, meanwhile, national legislation and international guidelines (such as AU-IBAR) combine to promote preservation by strengthening traditional the institutions. In this way, community governance of land and natural resources is championed.

3. *Ranching is the solution.* Ranches require a formal transaction. It delineates and removes communal land from a communities’ pastoral mobility options. As with any such transaction (including enclosures for commercial grass production), a community needs to first assess the cost benefits of the transaction, considering all resources, including water, firewood, non-timber forest products (NTFPs), medicinal plants, beekeeping, wildlife and tourism options. How would ranching affect the community as a whole, as well as vulnerable groups and women?

4. *Pastoral children need education in order to transition out of pastoral livelihoods.* No, pastoralism has a future, but one which requires adaptation to a socio-economic transformation through which pastoralist institutions are upgraded and good practices championed and up-scaled. Such a transformation calls for society to offer pastoralist-relevant education in order that pastoral children become better, more knowledgeable herders and leaders.

**Box 1**

**Pastoral resource sharing as a precondition for development of additional good practices:**

- Holistic natural resource management or ‘holistic grazing’ works best when resource sharing is properly organised.

- Pastoral resource sharing builds community organisation and NRM planning, paving the way for formal devolution of the governance of community land and natural resources – land adjudication.

- This adjudication then allows communities to formalise land transactions, such as granting some of its members exclusive use a given area of land for fodder
Resilience Focus

Challenges, opportunities, drivers of change and their effect on mobility

Climate change has resulted in reduced and more erratic rainfall, combined with human-induced degradation. More pastoralists and herds are coming down from dryer areas and from fishing communities (such as dams, degrading fishing resources) and increasing trans-boundary animal disease (TAD) outbreaks.

The presence of additional herds from ‘absentee herd owners’ – individuals with economic and/or political power who maintain herds remotely stretches resource management beyond communities’ governance and often ignores traditional grazing practices and by-laws – herds’ untimely grazing in dry-season pastures exacerbating degradation, for example. Absentee herd owning also erodes traditional justice and governance, as well as ignoring communities when converting community land to public or private land – such as for mining, oil exploration, ranches, irrigation or urban development, for example.

Access to formal justice, especially justice over land tenure, is generally poor for pastoralists, due to mainly to friction of distance, weak infrastructure and political interference.

Increasing insecurity: all of the factors outlined above drive competition for natural resources and cause human-wildlife, inter-communal and cross-border conflicts. Insecurity is further enhanced by population increase, youth unemployment, urban expansion, smuggling, banditry and the increasing presence of illegal fire arms. In some places, terrorist activity may even spread through youth radicalisation.

Administrative power and security infrastructure are often unable to cover large areas, and so poor communications networks and dispersed populations remain vulnerable to the unchecked consequences of political competitiveness.

Increasing market access: cross-border pastoral resource sharing facilitates (i) trading

Box 2

Success factors - community

• Engagement of local authorities can be welcomed at all stages; holistic NRM platforms can link communities and government and can help communities to mobilise government support; however, steps 1 to 7 may also be done without significant government involvement, allowing for an uncompromised bottom-up approach;

• Capacity building for both local and traditional authorities;

• Community representatives’ explicit endorsement of negotiation;

• Use validated local knowledge;

• Effective inter-community exchange to discuss plans, new practices, visits, joint exercises and resource sharing;

• Taking time to focus on processes rather than reaching agreement;

• Local government can authorise some of its representatives to take up dialogue after disruption.
of livestock, (ii) offloading herd stocks before a drought, (iii) development of new value chains (such as for camel milk or slaughterhouses), (iv) improved fodder from preserved rangeland or from irrigated farming, (v) services such as animal health care, (vi) engagement of the private sector through CAHWs, (vii) water services for livestock (which is subject to market forces), and (viii) ICT services which improve mobility and link to financial services (see box 1).

Societal changes: thanks to exposure and legislation, space for young people and women is expanding, which is affecting the power balance in traditional institutions.

Devolution of administration: new-found power at lower level expands reach, reducing influence of pastoralist institutions, affecting pastoralist mobility, causing resistance, confusion and divisions within communities.

Innovation at two levels: Communities benefit from external facilitation. This is the opportunity to introduce new concepts into an established traditional institution, or to change an approach from fighting over NRM towards more peaceful holistic, integrated, inclusive NRM.

Connecting inter-community cross-border pastoral resource sharing to bi- or multilateral cross-border collaboration allows governments:

- To create a more enabling environment for cross-border pastoral resource sharing;
- To develop more comprehensive, multi-sectoral cross-border collaboration. In addition to trade-related issues and TAD control, the agreements can now also cover cross-border security, early warning information sharing, better spatial planning water supply and other issues.

Policies: especially in countries where most people live in more humid climates or urban environments, pastoral livelihoods are easily misunderstood, lacking supportive policies and investment. New legislation on communal land governance is an opportunity to formalise its devolution to communities – see box 2.

Methodological approach

Cross-border pastoral resource sharing is a process which is implemented at two inter-dependent levels, sometimes simultaneously. These levels are community governance and government enabling. The latter combines international collaboration, national transboundary regulation, local cross-border coordination and service provision to support communities' pastoral resource sharing across borders.

I. Community-governed cross-border pastoral resource sharing

It is important to perform an accurate initial territorial diagnosis, including recognising power imbalances and identifying all territorial stakeholders. Land issues play a key (but often overlooked) role in protracted crises. The FAO promotes a people-centered, negotiated approach rather than just a technical one. It addresses access, use and management rights of land while reducing asymmetries.

In line with current practice, there are several methodologies which guide the process of cross-border pastoral resource sharing. These methodologies including participatory integrated community development (PICD), community-managed disaster risk reduction (CMDRR), participatory and negotiated territorial development (PNTD) and improving gender equality in territorial issues (IGETI). These last two have evolved into Green-Negotiated Territorial Development (GreeNTD), which integrates environmental issues into the proposals negotiated by the actors.
Box 3

Success factors – international collaboration

Regional resilience policy, AU Pastoral Policy Framework:

- Documentation sharing at different levels;
- Cross-border learning events;
- Community leadership strengthening, ensuring ownership.

Cross-border taskforces:

- Focus on resource sharing – not only trade and TAD control – and follow-up of cross-border resource sharing agreements;
- Raise critical issues to national level: policy/legislation, services, security, harmonisation across borders;
- Resume communications after disruption;
- Back up communities with more robust security services;
- Investigate any incidents which disrupt implementation

National policy:

- Strengthening traditional institutions of land governance and justice, valuing their NRM plans and maps as preparation for devolution to community land governance;
- Integrating pastoral resource sharing in national and local policies, long-term plans and multi-sectoral partnerships improves cost-effectiveness of interventions and services;
- A local pastoral resource sharing (or HNMR) taskforce is to be adequately resourced, hosted by a department related to communities and able to coordinate multi-sectorally;
- Implementing agency with existing relationships facilitates quicker build-up of trust.

Step 0:
Community selection based on information about whose herds are grazing where and when. ‘Community’ is defined as a group of neighbouring, similar or complementary settlements which are typically grouped around a common market or service. It is important to begin by identifying any existing resource-related conflicts. Steps 1 to 4 are duly conducted within the community.

Step 1:
Mobilisation and sensitisation of communities (or groups of communities), using PICD or CMDRR. The process is repeated for each community and/or group. Sensitisation takes two perspectives on natural resources: their use for livelihoods and their use for governance. Pastoral Field Schools (PFS) can be set up and engaged to play a role in facilitation.

Step 2:
Establish core working groups which are inclusive of women, youth and men.

Step 3:
Groups draw resource use maps showing boundaries, resources, dry-, wet-season and

For all of these methodologies, the importance of good quality, impartial and independent facilitation cannot be underestimated. Facilitation can be conducted by any reputable NGO, team or organisation with appropriate credentials for the purpose. Local government cannot serve the purpose, as it cannot necessarily be considered a totally impartial party. Also, facilitation can include the capacity building of certain parties to better prepare them for negotiations. The process of facilitation can last up to five years. Speed is not a success factor, and externalities are what determine the rapidity of progress. For example, disarmament can accelerate progress, while drought slows it down; pre-existing relationships can help in the first steps due to the time needed to build up trust and buy-in.

The steps described below practised by Vétérinaires Sans Frontières (VSF) – see the resources section – and significant results were achieved by them. For success factors see Box 3.
special-reserve grazing areas, migration routes to markets, water and grazing areas and conflict-prone zones. While reviewing each group’s map, drought resilience strategies and coping capacities are discussed. Guiding questions include: What resources are to be negotiated beyond community land boundaries? Who else shares resources? How is access within conflict-prone areas? Options are then formulated for a proposed resource-sharing plan and, through plenary discussion, the most comprehensive and suitable options are decided upon for adoption.

**Step 4:**
Community validation of resource use maps

**Steps 5 to 8 are negotiations for reaching inter-community agreement:** Overseen by the facilitator, the participants discuss and agree on clear rules and representation for each party. Representatives are drawn from an array of parties with different interests, including sections of the community such as Pastoral Field School (PFS), Village Community Banks (VICOBAs) and women’s groups, as well as local authorities and sometimes even a mining or oil company. The community representatives form a CMDRR sub-committee which negotiates on the community’s behalf. A council of elders later endorses the sub-committee’s conclusions, recommendations and activities.

**Step 5a:**
Inter-community meetings between community representatives

In the first 2-3 meetings maps are not shared and resource sharing is not discussed. This is to avoid boundary disagreement; the initial meetings instead aim for attitudinal changes and trust building. They cover softer topics such as trade facilitation and PFS visits. It is in the later meetings that conflict areas are identified; representatives then focus on pasture, water and other resources which may be poorly or under-utilised as result of conflict.

**Step 5b:**
Sharing the results of inter-community meetings by representatives in order to acquire feedback, amendments and approval.

**Step 6:**
Strategic planning of inter-community resource use which translates to a plan or framework outlining (i) the principles of sharing resources and (ii) the details – which resources, where, when, responsibilities, how to implement, the nature of penalties etc.

**Step 7:**
Ratification and validation in the community is carried out, first within the core committee(s) and then within the whole community, in order to achieve common understanding, dialogue and then endorsement by the council of elders (traditional leaders).

**Step 8:**
A resource-sharing agreement is signed officially by community representatives and as many members as possible. The signing is officially witnessed by local opinion leaders, political leaders and government security.

**Step 9:**
Implementation is the responsibility of committees, leaders, and the general community. Outreach events are conducted at community meetings, chiefs’ barazas\(^4\) and in market centres.

**Step 10:**
Monitoring is conducted by the committee(s) through scheduled meetings. Violations and emergency situations are recorded and shared with leaders and government representatives for reinforcement. Written agreements need regular revision.

**Step 11:**
Evaluation of the agreements by communities builds confidence and encourages commitment to sign further declarations on resource sharing and co-existence.

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\(^4\) Village meetings
II. Government enabling and international collaboration

Various actors in the Horn of Africa and East Africa advocate for programming at cross-border level as an imperative for guiding investment, controlling transboundary animal disease (TAD), avoiding degradation and minimising conflict over resources. The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), supported by its various centres and initiatives as well as by the FAO, brings member states together to plan regionally, to bring communities to the centre of cross-border policy and investment discourse and to enhance resilience. Official bilateral, cross-border government collaboration includes both TAD control and local government presence when communities sign their agreement (step 8). This is facilitated by project implementers (such as VSF-Germany).

IGAD’s Centre for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development (ICPALD) / IDDRSI facilitates preparation of the Regional Programming Paper (RPP), and Programme Papers (CPP) and implementation framework. It details (i) intervention areas, (ii) TAD control, (iii) livestock trading issues (protocols, numbers of animals, duration etc.), (iv) support for cross-border pastoral resource sharing (linking community plans to resources, responding to service requests such as issues arising over water, livestock, health or ICT services), (v) and capacity building in conflict resolution – such as for the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism (CEWARN).

IGAD recommends multi-country, cross-border funding mechanisms to avoid lop-sided interventions and/or contrasting approaches. Good examples of this are the FAO’s Regional Initiative in Support of Pastoralists and Agropastoralists (RISPA) project, which is SDC funded, and the Disaster Risk Reduction Action Plan (DRRAP), which is ECHO funded. Projects directly based on a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) receive ICPALD support. Examples of this are:

- **Peste des Petits Ruminants (PPR)** control project, which supports the country strategy by establishing PPR coordination committees for joint surveillance, simultaneous vaccination and learning.
- Inviting NGOs (such as VSF, Oxfam and ACTED) to harmonise approaches to cross-border pastoral resource sharing in order to improve engagement of government authorities, to honour MoUs and to support projects that contribute to realization of the implementation framework.

**Impact**

Pastoral communities have mentioned the following impacts of organised, community-governed cross-border pastoral resource sharing efforts:

- Increased trust between communities as a result of better

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5TAD control is covered by bi- and multilateral MoUs; these fall under the umbrella of Regional Program Papers (RPP) and Country Program Papers (CPP) for cross-border collaboration.
facilitation skills, more communication and understanding; this is critical for improving security and adding grazing opportunities in areas which were previously insecure.

- Improved security as a result of community collaboration (in activities such as returning stray cattle to their owners), as well as communities being able to call security services for reinforcement.

- Improved natural resource management (NRM) or holistic NRM, which increases livestock grazing opportunities and reduces drought vulnerability. This, in turn, improves livestock and human health.

- Rejuvenated customary institutions have become more inclusive: women have been empowered as members of grazing committees, negotiating grazing areas for milking herds closer to settlements and thereby reducing their workloads considerably.

- Increased access to public and private services such as animal healthcare, human healthcare, education, roads, disaster relief, microfinance and insurance.

- Increased livestock trading due to better contact with traders and participation in trade fairs.

- Increased opportunities for small businesses.

In addition to these positive impacts, communities are not always aware that endorsed agreements can enable and support the legitimacy of more formal devolution of land governance. In light of this, impacts for governments, as well as for the private sector, can include:

- Greater security in terms of the reduced frequency of adverse events and conflict arising from uncontrolled invasion.

- Improved relations with, and trust between, administrations of neighbouring countries, enabling joint cross-border action and opportunities for TAD control.

- Open borders increases cross-border trade, such as livestock trading for commercial destocking before a drought which is a very cost-effective resilience investment.

- Improved links with communities facilitates the integration of community plans into local government planning, which increases disaster preparedness.

**Tips on project management in Cross-border:**

- **Policies, rules for both countries to be understood:** import/export, labour, vehicles, immigration;

- **Clear, decentralised management structures with strong communication;**

- **Administration:** letters from local officials for speedy immigration, maintenance of both currencies, cross-border health and vehicle insurance packages;

- **Communication:** investigate the cheapest modes of communication – dual sim cards, internet, multiple networks, web-document sharing;

- **Vehicles:** strong fleet management, adequate budgets;

- **Budgeting:** realistic budgets, avoiding under-funding.

**Cost benefits:** According to the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), bringing together cross-border communities to discuss resource management and to resolve potential conflicts has modest costs – such as resources for the design platform and regular dialogue – which are more than offset by its benefits.
These benefits include improve climate change resilience, peace and trade.

In order for a project to achieve 3 cross-border agreements (ie. for 6 communities) it takes 2 years and an estimated budget of 170,000€ - broken down into three staff salaries plus allowances, ie. driver, field officer, project officer, transport, office. (Source: VSF-Germany).

**Sustainability**

IGAD, partnering with the FAO, all of the practices which it sustain, improves and rejuvenates traditional pastoralist institutions. Resilience to disaster and drought is contingent upon pastoral communities' recognition that they have always governed land and natural resources to suit mobility and they have always managed conflict with the aim of peace. Their capacities are to be sustainably enhanced – an activity which is to be integrated into planning and implementation of the resilience agenda.

**Replicability and upscaling**

The most important condition for upscaling is political: it requires long-term commitment to pastoralism, as evidenced by the following measures:

- Providing and training human resources to ensure adequate facilitation;
- Providing financial resources;
- Implementing relevant legislation to underpin communal governance of land and natural resources;
- Improving cross-sectoral communication, collaboration structures, capacity and methodologies to enable pastoral

Figure 1: Cross-border pastoral resource sharing - Reciprocal grazing agreements
resource sharing along national, sub-national administrative and/or ethnic boundaries.

In order to harmonise this methodology, the FAO proposes to set current practices against other methodologies (such as GreenNTD) in order to develop a practice which better analyses environmental issues, adequately recognises power imbalances (and does not just drive for simple consensus), retains inclusivity of actors as much as possible, and builds capacity, empowering actors to fend for themselves in the negotiated part of the approach – actors not treated as victims who need to be represented by others but rather as protagonists of their own development. Better analysis also creates more opportunities for the government to offer an enabling environment.

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Technical support and coordination to strengthen resilience programming for Karamoja, Uganda

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Abstract

The USAID / Uganda Karamoja Resilience Support Unit (KRSU) provides a platform for development partners to coordinate development efforts and to harmonise shared approaches – through reviews, studies and syntheses – in Uganda’s Karamoja sub-region. The unit also provides capacity-building support to the Ministry for Karamoja Affairs, as well as supporting joint multi-donor analyses and planning processes. Technical support from the Unit has led to improved communication, dialogue and information exchange among donors in Karamoja, improved working relations between the development partners and the Government of Uganda, as well as between the donors and the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). Mapping reports have increased awareness and recognition of the scale and scope of the contribution of donors. The maps have also become useful tools for local-level development coordination efforts by district officials. A number of reviews and assessment reports providing the evidence for informed decisions on programming and development investment in the region have also been produced. Key words: programming, coordination, Karamoja, resilience, KRSU.

KRSU’s technical-support and coordination approaches

Armed conflict in Karamoja has dramatically declined in recent years, even though the region is still prone to humanitarian crises and periodic drought. It is now more open, however, two groups of donors supporting sectors ranging from education, trade, agriculture, environment and education to mining. Domestic and foreign investors are also creating new opportunities for marketing and trade, and transport and communications links are improving.

For some years, various development aid donors, UN agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have implemented fragmented, uncoordinated development interventions which have not yielded positive development outcomes. Implemented by Tufts University, with the aim of increasing resilience through economic development in the Karamoja sub-region, the USAID / Uganda Karamoja Resilience Support Unit (KRSU) fosters collaborative learning, a strengthened policy environment and improved programme impacts. KRSU, through the Karamoja Development Partners Group (KDPG), provides technical support for the coordination of ten multi-lateral donor agencies working in Karamoja, as well as over 50 implementing partner NGOs and UN agencies.

This technical support includes compilation of three mapping reports analysing the humanitarian and development work being carried out by NGOs, bilateral donors and
UN agencies. The report presents a compilation of 54 NGOs, listing their geographic spread and sectoral priorities – in health (18), livelihoods (16), education (12), governance, accountability and human rights, (9), water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) (9), market systems (8), nutrition (6), livestock (6), environment / climate (6), crops (6), conflict (4) social protection (3) and water (3). The report also compiles activities of ten major bilateral donors, their geographic spread, their estimated spending plan for 2017, their programming focus and their alignment with the Government of Uganda's strategic objectives for Karamoja. The programming focus of all partner agencies is even broader. It includes coordination, learning and knowledge management (2), climate and environment (5), gender considerations and women's empowerment (5), water for production (2), WASH (8), social protection (2), nutrition (7), market systems and value chains (7), livelihoods diversification (3), health and HIV (12), governance, accountability and human rights (10) food security (5), education (6), conflict mitigation and peace building (8), capacity building and civil society support (10) and agriculture, crops and livestock (7). The UN report presents the list of UN projects, their sources of funding, their implementation modalities and their implementing partners. The mapping reports have increased recognition of the scale and scope of the contribution of donors. The reports have also become useful tools in local development coordination by district officials.

In addition to the mapping reports mentioned above, the KRSU has also carried out a review of veterinary service delivery, a rapid assessment of micro-finance and related approaches in Karamoja, an assessment of wage labour and employment, a rapid review of regional policy and programing initiatives related to pastoralist-area development and a synthesis of existing literature on conflict-sensitive programming approaches in Karamoja. These studies’ findings and recommendations have already been made used by ten donor members of the Karamoja Development Partners’ Group (KDPG) and 39 implementers to design, programme and implement resilience interventions for Karamoja. For example, Belgium Technical Cooperation has used the KRSU Labor, employment and migration study findings to design the skills development for a youth programme in Karamoja; Mercy Corps has found the findings vital in partnering with Belgium Technical Cooperation to move the vocational training institute strategy in Karamoja forwards, as well as to support identification and selection of vocational training institutes.

The KRSU has also produced and disseminated evidence briefs on priorities for livestock sector development in Karamoja and on the role of veterinary governance and coordination in improving animal health delivery system in the Karamoja sub-region. Also compiled is an evidence checklist to help development partners in assessing the quality of evaluation reports and impact studies. The KRSU has also conducted a rapid assessment of the capacity of district planning units (DPUs) to coordinate the development of District Development Plans.

Targeted capacity building support to the Government of Uganda for their policies and programmes in Karamoja is being given by KRSU. Specifically, a course on pastoral policy and practices is being integrated into Uganda's education system at higher institutions of learning, while support to the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) comprises repackaging and reformatting the medium-term Karamoja Integrated Development Plan (KIDP-II) of 2015 – 2020.

In terms of facilitating learning and knowledge management, KRSU has organised and hosted peer-learning sessions for implementing partners and other stakeholders in Karamoja. Session contents have included social and behavioral change communication for improved health and nutrition, Strategic Resilience Assessments (STRESS), youth engagement and skills development, and the state of micro-financing in Karamoja.
KRSU provides the necessary platform for donors, implementing partners and government authorities to come together and discuss issues of livestock development, water, food security, nutrition and overall development coordination issues for the Karamoja sub-region.

During the course of these diverse support efforts, however, KRSU has faced challenges in providing a robust platform for coordination. Agencies have varying mandates, programming approaches, timeframes and concepts; these often prolong the consultation and decision-making processes, affecting timely consensus building and delays to decisions. Each agency often views their own approach as the best one, believing that other agencies should align with them. In addressing some of these challenges, KRSU regularly engages the donors and partner agencies to collaboratively identify areas shared for research and implementation. For example, peer learning sessions are held at every Karamoja Development Partners’ Group meeting in order to help the partners cooperate, as well as to appreciate the need for evidence to inform programming. KRSU will continue to coordinate the
donor efforts through the Karamoja Development Partners’ Group, facilitating and providing logistical support for the Group to deliberate on resilience programming and development interventions.

Key outcomes of improved coordination in Karamoja include resource identification and allocation of development interventions among donors, NGOs and UN Agencies. This improved coordination has reduced duplication of interventions, aided targeted programming and has increased engagement and involvement of local district leadership and communities in the design and implementation of interventions.

KRSU’s coordinating role has also generated evidence that is being used by the donors and partners under the umbrella of the Karamoja Development Partners Group to make programming decisions, design targeted interventions and address resilience programming challenges. KRSU role here has also extended to coordinating the Government of Uganda’s meetings, discussions and programming of joint interventions with development partners and donors as part of the Karamoja Integrated Development Plan.
Introduction

Despite increased investments in northern Kenya since devolution, there remains a huge vacuum of information at community level about critical policy and development processes. This inevitably leads to misinformation and manipulation, often resulting in disillusionment and tensions within communities, as well as inability to hold stakeholders to account.

The Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI) is a Kenya-registered NGO that promotes dryland voices within policy and practice in the Horn of Africa. Since 2008, the Initiative has been synthesising and disseminating information to policy makers and development practitioners – through studies, briefs, leaflets, journals, websites and interactive events. Through experience, its communications have become increasingly focused on the primary stakeholders: communities themselves.

The DLCI recently secured six months’ funding from USAID / AHADI6 to identify and address the critical information needs of remote communities in Isiolo, Marsabit and Turkana Counties. Consultations with civil society organisations (CSOs), communities and governments stakeholders in each of the focus counties indicated that there were huge information gaps, as well as a great hunger for accurate information on a range of issues. Even information on weather and marketing was said to be lacking, despite both government and NGOs claiming to have provided this information for many years. In other parts of the country, huge resources have been put into civic education about the 2010 Constitution and its devolution; however, it was found that confusion and gaps persist in the more remote drylands. Even information about basic services – such as health provision or how to secure a national identity card – was found to be lacking. Understanding the legal requirements for public participation in government planning and budgeting was found to be particularly poor, despite citizens’ rights to participation being clearly outlined in both the Constitution and the County Government Act. How can genuine citizen engagement be realised when so little information is provided to these communities?

6 Agile Harmonized Assistance for Devolved Institutions (AHADI)
The current status of information provision

It was found that the county government civic-education and public-participation departments have limited resources and no strategies for information provision. Development partners occasionally provide information on specific issues, but it is not usually consistent throughout the counties, with remote areas rarely reached. Information is also usually short term, with no opportunity for follow-up due to limited funding. Information is not provided in ways that people understand – it is often generic and does not speak to the realities of communities in the drylands.

FM radio was initially suggested as the easiest and cheapest way of reaching large numbers of people. However, some parts of the studied counties are still not reached by FM stations, and where they are, the language was not always found to be relevant. It was also found that most stations have a very specific target audience; remote communities are rarely served. In practice it was found that although village meetings or ‘barazas’ are only attended by people from the immediate vicinity, the information shared at such events is disseminated through local and traditional channels, reaching a wide audience. Visual information such as durable posters placed in chief offices and markets helped to reinforce key messages. Ideally, a combination of varying methods should be used to provide information to communities. More creative approaches such as acted plays or dramas and festivals should also be used where funding allows.

Another huge constraint to information dissemination was found to be the culture of paying people to attend meetings. In Turkana, the county government staff in the wards and sub-county offices insisted that it is the policy of county government to pay community members for attending meetings, but senior county government officials in Lodwar denied knowledge of such a policy. This is something that the government has to urgently take in hand, and all donors, NGOs and UN agencies should strictly work together limit the expectation of payment, as it perpetuates dependency and distorts engagement.

Most county government websites were found to be only irregularly updated – the one for Isiolo County has not been updated since it was launched in 2013, for example – and there was found to be no space or pages for public information on the sites. Similarly, information on county government policy and practice is not regularly shared. For example, in Isiolo, even though a Public Participation Bill (PPB) was passed, the civic education department did not have a copy. In Marsabit, many people had not seen the draft Public Participation Bill even though it had been finalised almost two years previously. The draft of the Turkana PPB had also not been widely shared. The study also found that information from county governments was often not trusted as it was regularly politicised. This is an issue that urgently needs addressing for the future, perhaps through increased autonomy of civic education and public participation departments and/or increased collaboration with CSOs and other actors.

Priority information needs

The following issues were prioritised by the three study counties for community information provision. They therefore require greater emphasis in the future:

1. **Community land-law and community benefit-sharing legislation:** Many people expressed confusion on the state of the Community Land Act, including concern that it would lead to ‘grabbing’ of community land. Concern was also expressed about losing land rights and benefits from mega-national projects such as LAPSSET.
People were also not clear on the status or implications of the mining and the natural-resource sharing bills.

2. **County planning and budgeting processes:**

There was found to be very limited information about county planning and budgeting processes, particularly in terms of opportunities for public engagement. Very few people, other than those directly involved, had seen the county Public Participation Bills or knew how the public could engage in county processes, particularly in remote areas. Opportunities for collaboration between the county governments and CSOs were also being missed.

3. **Climate / weather and livestock information:**

Although early-warning bulletins and weather forecasts were being produced by the National Drought Management Authority (NDMA) and other agencies, it was felt that information was not reaching communities and was not always understood or practical enough. Information was also lacking on livestock diseases and market prices, despite a number of initiatives by various agencies in these areas.

4. **Basic services:**

Many people lack information about basic government services and programmes, including about health outreach services, safety nets, youth, women’s credit programmes, employment opportunities, recruitment procedures and how and where to get national identity cards. Nationally, the GOK prides itself on open data, accessible information about services online, and on the one-stop-shop Huduma service centres in the county capitals, but these are not accessible to rural communities in the ASALs.

5. **Conservancies:**

There was found to be considerable concern and confusion around the push to promote conservancies as a vehicle for wildlife protection, particularly in Marsabit County, as communities view the protection of the rangeland and pasture as a priority and promotion of wildlife and tourism as a complimentary role. Concern was also expressed over rights in relation to human-wildlife conflicts, particularly the location of wildlife corridors and access to compensation.

Of the five priority needs listed above, DLCI focused on the first two. It developed a brief on the community land act and a poster on county budgeting and planning. DLCI also developed a guideline in Swahili and conducted barazas in each study county, as well as FM radio call-in shows in local languages. The intention was that other, better funded organisations would be trained alongside the county governments so that they could disseminate the information in their respective areas. However, without per diems and support, not all county government officials or CSOs attended the workshops and barazas. They were therefore unable to disseminate the materials to remote areas.

The 2016 Community Land Act

Community land registration is a hugely emotive and potentially conflictual issue, and although people appreciated the fact that the Act had been passed and the information provided on it, there were many concerns and clarifications needed. Communities want help and support in the process of registering their land. They also want to be consulted in the development of the regulations that will detail the registration process and the adjudication of programme development. The regulations will need to be gazetted and should address the many gaps and confusions that exist in land policy. In addition, community land registrars need to be appointed in each county, who appreciate the culture and livelihoods of the communities, and a land-adjudication programme needs to be established before registration can take place.
Although the communities appreciated the intent of the legislation in protecting community land and interests, they were very concerned about many issues, including the likely hidden control of the process by both national and county governments, the likely misuse of county government role on unregistered land, and how the community land registrars could use their ability to reference other land laws which are contradictory – such as the Land Registration Act and the Physical Planning and Adjudication Acts. The communities were also concerned about the government taking community land for public use without consultation or compensation, as well as confusion over county and community boundaries.

Public participation in county budgeting and planning

The inhabitants of the focal counties were found to be disillusioned with public participation in county budgeting and planning, as they don’t see how their engagement has influenced county plans. The communities said that public participation was carried out purely to fulfil auditors’ requirements, and that the government manipulated the process to ensure that their input had no effect. ‘Professional workshoppers’ were invited to consultation workshops off the streets, to rubber-stamp the process in exchange for per diems. The meetings on planning that was done by the county executive were never carried out in the same areas as those on budgeting (carried out by committees of the county assemblies), so there was never any follow-up or coherence in the processes.

Communities in the three counties reported that they had never seen any material on the approved budget published by the County Executive Committee member (CEC) for Finance in a form that is easily understood and accessible to the members of public, as required by law within 30 days. In Turkana, no one even knew what the total county budget was, and the County Administrator became anxious when the fact was shared at the meeting, even though it is public information. When told, all of the participants expressed incredulity at the amount. It was felt that there is a need for an independent mediator to bring county government and communities together, as well as to develop a process of trust and a system for genuine participation.

Conclusions and recommendations

Accurate, trusted and comprehensive information is essential to promoting public engagement and to dispelling distrust and disillusionment in remote dryland areas, where information access is low. None of the three counties had a comprehensive strategy on information provision to communities about development issues and policy processes, nor was there any adequate coordination between county government and development partners. Information was not easily accessible and often politicised. Several CSOs had promoted community awareness on specific issues, but this was neither done comprehensively nor consistently, and the impact of such initiatives had not been evaluated. Community information is rarely funded by donors, and when it is it lacks sustained support, impact assessment, learning and coordination.
The process concluded, that remote communities require much more information on policy and practice issues that affect their lives. There exists serious distrust between communities and government which needs to be urgently dispelled. Both the Community Land Act of 2016 and public participation in county planning and budgeting are seen sensitive and contentious issues which require careful handling. Meanwhile, illiteracy, combined with the culture of per diems that is perpetrated by NGOs, UN, donors and governments, present major obstacles to public participation and information dissemination.

It is strongly recommended, therefore, that:

1. There be a third party mediation process to improve trust between remote communities and county governments, as well as to support constructive models of engagement. This is a long-term undertaking which needs to be carried out by skilled and sensitive individuals and organisations.

2. There is urgent need for community interests to be protected in the development of regulations on the registration of community land. The roll-out of the Community Land Act needs to focus on protecting land for communal use and reciprocal resource agreements rather than a rush for registration which pits one community against another and exacerbates tensions or conflict.

3. When disseminating community information, county governments should regulate and limit the use of per diems. Meetings and consultations should be carried out in communities under trees rather than in towns in order to avoid the aforementioned ‘professional workshoppers’.

4. With female literacy as low as 6% in some ASAL counties, and primary school enrolment at around 40%, adult literacy and improved educational reach should be urgently addressed in these areas, in order to enable people to access information and understand critical policy and practice issues.
Information is power
Photo: DLCI/Transparency International, Kelly Lynch
Abstract

Access to financial services is a decisive factor in enhancing resilience, generating local development and eliminating poverty. CARE’s Somalia Towards Reaching Resilience (STORRE) project has been working with village savings and loans associations (VSLAs) in Sanaag Region of Somalia in order to address the issue. A study of the STORRE’s programme areas examined the role of VSLAs in supporting households and communities to build their resilience. The study found that while VSLAs provide critical assets, services and vital safety nets, severe and prolonged droughts overwhelm and can erode the associations’ effectiveness, thus threatening their sustainability.

Key words: resilience; savings; loans; livelihoods; safety net; social capital.

Background

Droughts in Somalia have become more frequent and severe in recent years. Given the high, recurrent levels of shock and stresses in the country, a focus on building household and community resilience is needed if vulnerability is to be reduced. Women, girls, young children and the aged are particularly vulnerable due to their relative restrictions in physical mobility, attachment to household roles and thus relatively limited access to critical resources and services.

The village savings and loans association (VSLA) is CARE’s successful micro-finance model under which savings groups are formed at community level in order to reduce poverty through financial and social empowerment of poor and vulnerable people. VSLAs offer rural and marginalised communities, who are unable to access formal funding, a system of a community-based resource funding which allows them to save their money, access small loans and gain emergency insurance. CARE’s Somalia Towards Reaching Resilience (STORRE) project, funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), has been working with women and men across Sanaag Region to form and train over 40 VSLA groups in 20 communities. The aim of STORRE is to expand access to financial services, support economic and social empowerment and reduce poverty.

Objectives

CARE studied STORRE’s programme areas to draw out existing evidence and lessons on the role of VSLAs in supporting households and communities to build their resilience. The study also examined how VSLAs contribute to multiplying beneficiary capabilities during shocks and crises, as well as exploring how VSLAs contribute to shifts in power and rights for women, shaping gender...
relations, empowerment and resilience. In this way the study sought to provide insight for resilience and empowerment programming in Somalia.

Methodology

Despite progress on the conceptual side, academics, practitioners and donors are still struggling with pragmatic issues – in particular, how to measure, monitor and evaluate resilience interventions (Béné et al., 2015). Knowing that there is no single best way to measure resilience, the project team decided to further understand the context and get deeper insights of VSLA groups by compiling full profiles of all of the VSLA groups in order to guide the scope, methodology and sample size of the study.

The study then randomly selected two villages from each of the four villages in the two study districts – Hingalo Village in Badhan District and Hamas, Armale and Ardaa in Erigavo District. This led to the selection of a sample size of 10 groups – 24% of the total 42 VSLAs. The study team interviewed a total of 95 persons over the ten groups, as well as twelve key informants. Existing data and information from all relevant programmes in the study area was reviewed as secondary data. In addition, the study also used the results of regular monitoring activities, especially quarterly VSLA monitoring, in which the project had used standardised monitoring tools that captured saving, loans and social-fund information as well as rating the VSLAs on critical issues facing them, such as timely savings and loan repayment.

Key findings: basic information on group savings and loans

42 VSLA groups were established by the STORRE project in Somalia’s Erigavo and Badhan Districts. This equates to 811 VSLA members (87.5% percent female and 12.5% male) and beneficiaries totalling 4,866. After VSLAs were formed between July and December 2015, project staff initially trained them in developing VSLA governance systems (constitutions), savings and loans management and record keeping. The VSLAs were then trained in leadership and other topics in monthly cycles. It was reported that, by the last cycle, the VSLAs have cumulatively saved a total of USD $23,071 and had collected $9,570 in social funds. However, these figures do not reflect the end-of-savings-cycle pay-outs made to members by a number of VSLA groups. Of the VSLA members who reported that they had accessed loans during the study, 86% had taken out loans once, 12% twice, and 2% had borrowed thrice. The average loan size taken in each VSLA group was $248. This translates to a total of $10,185 lent out in loans across all the VSLAs. The study also found that 43% of all participating VSLA members had accessed the social fund. At the time of the study, 84% of these had accessed the social funds once and 16% twice. 22% of the savings had been withdrawn as loans, of which 14% was spent on food purchases and water trucking and 8% was spent on medical drugs and services. Such figures show the impact of the drought situation on VSLA savings and loans.

Effects of VSLAs: improved household financial security and community capacity

VSLAs have strengthened household financial security by instilling a culture and discipline of individual and group planning and saving among members. Through VSLAs, members have not only gained vital information, knowledge and skills in business development and management, nutrition, hygiene and sanitation they have also applied these skills to their families and the wider community.
For example, since receiving training on good hygiene and sanitation from CARE, the Ala Amin VSLA, of Armale Village, has been holding regular awareness-creation campaigns on good hygiene practices within the community. Beyond disseminating new knowledge and skills, the VSLA members have become agents of change and development. They are demonstrating this by participating in other important development activities in their areas. The Ala Amin VSLA members have also organised some adult literacy classes in the community, they are rallying the community to halt unsustainable charcoal production, and the group members also participate in community-wide activities to stop human trafficking in the area. These examples illustrate how a VSLA can enable its members to constructively engage in solving individual and community-level challenges, thereby contributing to development of resilience.

As has been observed during the project period and particularly during the most recent drought, village savings and loans associations formed by the STORRE project have increased the adaptive capacity of member households. While many VSLA members from the 20 target communities have reportedly been able to mitigate the impact of drought and other idiosyncratic shocks – such as the death of a family member – by accessing loans and social funds, the groups have shown increased solidarity in cushioning their families from the impacts of the recent drought, as witnessed by both the project team and community members. For instance, VSLA groups in Hingalol, Dawaco, Sibayo and Jiidali Villages all used loans and social funds for water supplies, transport costs of migration of their families or their livestock, as well as for supporting pastoral drop-outs and internally displaced families who have migrated from other villages and districts in Sanaag Region. A few of the VSLA members in Sibayo Village have even received loans from their groups to cover transport costs for family members and livestock to migrate to Bari Region in the north-eastern part of the country, where there were good rains during October – December 2016 season. Migration to these areas became desirable due to water scarcity and pasture unavailability in the Sibayo Village area. It was thus a communal strategy to protect livestock of families with larger herds. Hodan Jama, who is a member of Halgan VSLA group in Sibayo, says, ‘I took a loan of $70 from my group to partially cover transport for my family’s livestock. This has been crucial for the survival of our animals, which we could otherwise have lost.’

With support from CARE, 525 VSLA members have either created new businesses or have expanded their existing business activities in order to generate more income. Such activities include running grinding machines, running small tea shops, restaurants and women’s beauty salons, engaging in tailoring, vending milk and beekeeping. Hawa Saed, for instance, a 45-year-old mother of seven in Jiidali Village, started a tea shop with support from CARE. Hawa says, ‘I used to earn $50 a month before I began the tea shop business; now I make a profit of $200 per month now.’

‘I took a loan of $70 from my group to partially cover transport for my family’s livestock. This has been crucial for the survival of our animals, which we could otherwise have lost.’

Shukri Mohamud Abdi (fourth from left) and fellow members of the women’s savings group in Haro-Sheelkh
Photo: Georgina Goodwin/CARE
Effects of VSLAs: increasing opportunities, agency and new activities

As has been outlined above, VSLAs are enabling their members to strengthen, diversify and sustain their livelihoods. Some members have used VSLA loans to expand their existing businesses, such as sale of commodities and foodstuffs in shops and markets. Other members have joined hands to start new group businesses, as observed with Midnimo VSLA of Hingalool Village. The group members reported previously having diverse business activities and experiencing decreasing returns on their business investments. In December 2016, however, eight members of the VSLA formed a joint business venture: they established one of the biggest shopping centres in Hingalool, selling variety of food and non-food items. Dahabo Ahmed, one of the eight members, affirmed that the prospect of their business venture for continued growth was high, helping them to thrive during both droughts and market disruptions.

In the same vein, Layla Abdirahman, a skilled tailor in a shop in Hingalool Village and a member of Almadow VSLA, received a sewing machine and tailoring kit based on the business-development proposal that she submitted to the STORRE project. Layla now runs her own business and provides tailoring services to her community. She says that she is financially stronger now and has more time to take care of her children.

In addition to these promising individual cases, some group members are collaborating in farming and transport of farm produce to markets. Such initiatives, as well as improving incomes and livelihoods, also open opportunities for communities to engage in new activities, thereby strengthening local economies and promoting the success of the VSLA structure.

Effects of VSLAs: access to critical assets and vital safety

During severe droughts, cash is the most important asset. This is because livestock fetch lower prices due to poor body condition and shrunken markets. During the recent drought of 2016 – 2017, VSLA groups in Hingalol, Ardaa, Armale and Hamas Villages used $13,500 of emergency loans and $3,160 of social funds to buy water, food, hay and livestock feed. 43% of VSLA members accessing the social fund reported using it to cater for emergencies such as medical bills and funeral costs. In order to alleviate the hardships related to the high price of water during the 2016 drought, 39 members from two VSLA groups in Ardaa Village agreed to pool social funds – a total of $200 – to supply 80 barrels of water to
their families and other vulnerable households in the community. This example shows how social capital is vital for achieving community resilience. Another good example of how the savings groups contributed to community resilience is in Jiidali Village, where the three VSLAs – all of them established by the STORRE project – contributed $120 as part of a larger community contribution to purchase foodstuffs for displaced families from neighbouring the districts of El-Afwein and Badhan. This example shows how households from affected areas have benefitted from bridged social capital, overcoming food insecurity.

At the household level, too, social funds help VSLA members to cope with smaller, idiosyncratic shocks such as the death of a family member or emergency medical bills. At community level, meanwhile, social funds have provided fuel for borehole operations and water trucking in times of severe water shortage. In this way, sharing goals, development ideas and financial and emotional challenges has increased trust, cohesion and social bonds immeasurably for both VSLA members and their communities.

Lessons learned

- Livelihood security and VSLA growth and sustainability are mutually supportive.

- VSLAs are an effective and efficient conduit for knowledge sharing and capacity, as well as creating a very useful platform for social change. VSLAs have empowered women by enabling them to consistently save money, improve their credit worthiness, increase their self-confidence and earn them greater respect within their communities.

- The social fund, although limited in its size, has had the most immediate positive impact.

- Despite providing access to critical assets and safety nets during periods of drought, severe, prolonged droughts can overwhelm and erode the effectiveness of VSLAs.
Challenges

- Low levels of literacy and numeracy pose challenges to VSLA record keeping.
- Low financial and capital assets, as well as the additional financial burden caused by drought, limits the capacity of VSLA members to create viable businesses and to accumulate wealth.
- Weak infrastructure curtails livestock markets, further aggravated the presence (or threat) of conflict.

Conclusion and recommendations

As this report aims to demonstrate, the VSLAs in Erigavo and Badhan Districts have generated manifold, multi-level benefits to both households and communities. They have improved socio-economic development during normal times as well as enhancing communities’ resilience to drought. In spite of this, the challenges posed by prolonged drought to the effectiveness and sustainability of VSLAs mean that all stakeholders must come together to support the VSLA model by developing innovative, robust institutional financing systems, providing the requisite financial, technical and material resources, and providing additional capacity development to VSLA members to strengthen and sustain these essential community institutions and their positive impacts. Some key recommendations which have emerged from this study are as follows:

- Develop the capacities of the VSLA members in entrepreneurship, financial management and other technical areas.
- Engage in peer education and mentoring in the villages in order to encourage learning and scaling up of the VSLA model through the formation of additional VSLAs and or expansion of existing ones.
- Endeavour to be more inclusive: VSLAs should encourage more men and young people to join and be co-partners.
- Expand social funds by working with the village, elders’ and religious committees, as well as with other organised groups to mobilise setup of village-wide social funds. These can be managed by nominated representatives of the VSLAs.

References

Amina Mohamud Abdillahi sits with her grandson Mohamed during a Village Savings and Loan Association meeting.

Photo: Georgina Goodwin/CARE
The Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Federation of the Red Cross (IFRC) have launched an innovative mobile application which provides early warning and coordinates early action of responders through their mobile phones. Aptly named the Regional Early Warning and Action Communication Tool (REACT), the app is the latest in safety innovation, disaster response and risk education, bringing citizens into a culture of safety and rapid information exchange with responders.

Designed to run on smartphones – specifically on Android and iOS tablet computers and desktops through the major web browsers Mozilla Firefox, Google Chrome and Microsoft Internet Explorer, REACT is an interactive tool which raises public awareness about hazards and disasters, as well as what to do before, during, and after one. The tool alerts the public and allows first responders and relevant agencies to manage emergencies more effectively and efficiently. The app provides easy access to tools one would require when in an emergency, as well as emergency contact telephone numbers, which can be accessed even when offline. The app also allows users to acquire the precise location of all of the events taking place within the region, to be traced in emergency response, all reports and communication being geo-referenced.

Born out of a south-south cooperation between IGAD, UNDP, the IFRC and the Government of the Philippines, REACT was created through a public-private partnership with Smart Communications and Tudlo Innovation Solutions in the Philippines. It has been rolled out in East Africa, starting with Kenya, where all disaster management units in all counties have been trained in its use and administration.

Following its deployment before the recent national elections in Kenya, REACT proved very valuable in assisting disaster managers and responders – see Figure 1.

Figure 1. Introducing the latest in safety innovation, disaster response and risk education
Photo: IGAD/UNDP/IFRC
Figure 2. REACT-HOA is downloadable on mobile application stores free of charge. This screenshot is taken from https://www.tuld.co/portfolio-item/react-hoa/
Photo: IGAD/UNDP/IFRC

Figure 3. A sample post of a bus transporting electoral materials, IEBC officials and security staff which has veered off the road.
Photo: IGAD/UNDP/IFRC
High-frequency mobile monitoring for resilience learning and responsive programing
by Nathan Morrow⁹ and Mohamed Tahir¹⁰

Abstract
As is detailed in the earlier article about the role of savings and loans groups, CARE engaged communities in Sanaag Region of northern Somalia in dialogue about climate variability and community resilience to shocks and stresses. Participatory Monitoring, Evaluation, Reflection and Learning (PMERL), meanwhile, is CARE’s flagship tool for active participatory community engagement, promoting empowerment and behavioural change aligned with specific project objectives. In collaboration with Tulane University, three rounds of mobile phone panel interviews were conducted, gathering information on the most significant changes experiences during shocks and stresses. The results were analysed and then presented back to communities for discussion. This allowed for cross-community learning that promoted adoption of community action plans.

Key words: monitoring, evaluation, adaptation, resilience, climate change.

Background
Somalia is a very volatile environment characterised by protracted conflict, nascent government, large-scale humanitarian needs and recurrent climatic shocks and stresses. UN agencies and NGOs have been working around the clock to seek paths that ensure food security and health for the people and build long-term resilience to these shocks and stresses. The Somalia Towards Reaching Resilience (STORRE) project – as detailed in the earlier article – aims to achieve resilience thought three tiers: (i) enhancing the human, social and economic capital of households, (ii) strengthening community governance structures and systems for disaster preparedness, mitigation and response, and (iii) adopting a learning culture which shares knowledge and adapts livelihoods and practices. These components are based on the project’s Theory of Change, which is centred around key change activities such as conditional cash-for-work activities (CFW), village savings and loans associations (VSLAs), village councils (VCs), Pastoralist Field Schools (PFSs), improved water facilities and the PMERL system.

The PMERL project begun by carrying out participatory climate vulnerability and capacity analysis. This culminated in the development of community action plans and a PMERL process which established community monitors and created community-reflection and learning-event platforms.

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Also as part of the PMERL process, CARE and Tulane University have created a mobile-communication monitoring platform. This platform facilitates the flow and exchange of information beyond standard assessments and monitoring so that learning can be assessed, applied and shared throughout the project cycle. Live-call mobile phone surveys with a panel of users, for example, have been identified as an effective method for monitoring the wellbeing of households during periods of shock and stress (Prydz, 2013).

This type of resilience programing not only supports communities and families to adapt to recurrent shocks: it is also designed to respond to dynamic circumstances, evolving community experiences and learning for both the project internally and for external partners.

**Objective**

The objective of the high-frequency mobile panel surveys was to leverage mobile phone technology in gathering relevant, near real-time information, as well as to facilitate information exchange between individuals, communities and other partners for joint learning, reflection, process improvement and action on climate vulnerabilities and resilience capacities.

**Methodology**

Learning about resilience, a complex systems problem, requires adaptability and multiple research techniques which build upon the approaches of developmental evaluation and grounded theory (Tulane University, 2016). These perspectives demand that quantitative, qualitative, subjective and objective techniques are used creatively to study and link both the PMERL approach and high-frequency mobile monitoring to resilience outcomes.

The STORRE project used high-frequency monitoring as part of an integrated learning and research approach which complemented conventional community-based monitoring and evaluation of activities, outputs and outcomes. The project began its work with 20 communities in September 2015, utilising CARE’s Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis (CVCA) framework to develop community action plans (CAPs) which identified and prioritised community needs in response to identified hazards. Using the CAPs, 19 communities then took part in the PMERL process in early 2016 to develop and implement monitoring and evaluation systems for community-based adaptation and resilience strengthening. As part of this process, panel survey members were identified and selected for each participating community, and their phone numbers were collected. This PMERL process served as a baseline for the mobile panel calls that would be undertaken for the remainder of the programming period. Of the 19 communities that participated, 12 were sampled for mobile data collection based on their good access to mobile networks.

Within each community, three representatives from village savings and loans associations (VSLAs), members of the village committee (VC) and PMERL committee members were included on each interview panel. Three rounds of mobile-phone panel interviews were then conducted – Round 1 in June – August 2016, Round 2 in November – December 2016 and Round 3 in May – June 2017. An iterative and flexible approach adapted questions for successive rounds based on previous learning as well as the dynamics of seasonality and changes in the context. Each interview round was also responsive to questions, interest and needs expressed by the participants during the previous round of calls.

A major innovation of the STORRE strategy for mobile participatory monitoring is the inclusion of community reflection sessions between each survey round. Results from mobile phone monitoring
surveys were analysed and then presented back to communities as a basis for discussion and feedback during community reflection sessions. All members were then asked a core set of questions which had been selected by STORRE project staff based on the PMERL indicators identified by communities. A set of questions based on seasonality – i.e., dry versus rainy season – were also asked of all participants, as was relevant to the time of year of the telephone call. Additional questions were developed to monitor specific project activities; these were also posed to the panel members. The entire process is captured in the PMERL Theory of Change, as illustrated in the diagram below.

Results of the survey

The STORRE project used high-frequency monitoring of project communities that had completed action plans in a local environmental change baseline in order to better understand community dynamics of change, adaptation and response. The process allowed for cross-community learning, verification and feedback, which promoted adoption of community plans. For example, the project moved away from capacity building to more cash-for-work activities in order to protect assets during drought. Monitoring also showed that floods were less destructive than had been anticipated, which allowed activities to resume quickly. Some communities changed their overall approach to a focus on water infrastructure.

In response, CARE worked with donors to adapt project design and obtain necessary waivers based on monitoring.

Respondents often described multiple shared changes to their environment or situation, but the most commonly cited involved rains (whether they started, were delayed or were less than usual) in relation to drought or flooding conditions. Economic changes such as inflation, reduced production and increased expenditure on water were also reported. In addition to this, the impact of the resilience approach is clearest in the shift of mentality of program staff, community members and partners – a shift which cannot be understated. Shocked at first that there was ‘nothing’ reported in terms of material goods being given as part of the projects, project participants were sceptical of STORRE’s success. In initial qualitative monitoring and reflection, staff noted a noticeable shift as responsibility for diverse interventions such as water, sanitation and hygiene or savings groups was driven by participants contextualized within stable structure of leadership.

Figure 4: The PMERL Theory of Change. Source: Morrow, N (2016).
Moving project locations, focus and even resource allocation has been documented in monitoring of village committee actions as well as anecdotes from programme staff. Following an evaluative heuristic from Patton\(^\text{11}\), PMERL supported project objectives with reality-tested, results-focused, learning-oriented cases to inform resilience learning and programming. Learning was reinforced by cross-community reflection sessions, and each round of the survey included feedback and an informational script.

When information is shared through participatory monitoring, the community can adjust plans and adapt approaches based on early identification of problems and learning from experience; alternatively, they can respond to immediate crisis-related needs.

In the case of this project, there is evidence that strategic decisions were made in near real-time and supported by panel data results, emphasising the sequencing of interventions based on differential weather patterns across communities such as the timing of VSLA cycles, cash transfers for community asset construction or rehabilitation, improving water sources, creating linkages with local administrations on responding to livestock diseases, nutritional referrals and further information on community-prioritised assets. In addition to this, panel results were also shared with CARE’s emergency programmes.

### Challenges

- **Resourcing and staffing constraints** needed to be balanced with data collection, reflection and learning activities.

- **The challenges of working in a context which experiences a variety of flood-, drought- and conflict-related shocks** places additional demands on staff.

- **Migration of members participating in the panel surveys**, as well as telephone network challenges, were encountered.

### Conclusion and recommendations

Participants in the PMERL mobile phone panel interviews shared concerns relevant to STORRE programming in areas such as livestock and water. Programme staff shared this feedback directly with learning partners. Providing near real-time data using live calls, mobile phone surveys with a panel of users was found to complement conventional data collection. At the same time, the programme managers can adapt generic programming approaches to the local context. The programme duly recommends the following:

- **It is important that members of interview panels** have background knowledge about voluntary community leadership.

- **The provision of training** that includes practical exposure is an essential prelude to actual data collection.

- **Identify a strategy from the beginning**, build consensus around the steps that need to happen and then be flexible.

- **Allow for continuous evaluation** and improvement of tools. Alternatively invest the time initially to thoroughly test these tools. Learn about new technologies while always being prepared for new learning.

- **In terms of call duration**, 45-60 minutes per person per round was the common practice; in terms of call timing, individuals must be called at the scheduled time that they have agreed to.

• When introducing new technologies to project staff, take time to make people comfortable with the tools, giving clear information about their new role and how the tool is to be used. In other words, it is the innovative approach that should be the challenge, not the technology that makes it possible.

References


Overview

This article sheds light on the di-Monitoring tool that was adapted by the Platform Coordination Unit (PCU) in 2014. The tool was subsequently rolled out within the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) member states through hands-on training.

di-Monitoring is a web-based project monitoring tool identified to facilitate the tracking of the implementation of the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) at regional, national and sub-national levels. The decision to provide a harmonised project monitoring tool was reached at the first IDDRSI M&E Working Group meeting in September 2014. IGAD was then requested to lead and coordinate the identification and deployment of the tool. The guiding principle that IGAD followed in identifying this results-based monitoring tool was based on a need for the following:

- Real-time results monitoring for key performance indicators at regional, national and sub-national levels;
- Improved alignment and coordination among partners;
- A joint approach to harmonised development of indicators;
- Aggregations at all geographic levels; and
- Implementation of multi-dimensional programmatic interventions.

Screenshot of the visualization dashboard of the di-Monitoring tool

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12Contributed by Anthony Awira and Jemal Mensur
13Adaptation and rolling out of di-monitoring within IGAD and Member States is supported by the Government of Germany and the AfDB.
Piloting the di-Monitoring tool

A phased implementation approach was adopted in order to confirm the proof of concept as a way for systematically and sustainably deploying the application at the IGAD Secretariat and member-state levels. The first phase of the process covered two regional projects being implemented within the framework of the IDDRSI Regional Programming Paper in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda. The second phase scaled up to cover Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan, including the design of a dashboard to enhance visualisation and reporting for middle- and senior-level management at different tiers of national and regional government.

The di-Monitoring tool possesses the following assets:

- Customisable features, adaptable to specific monitoring frameworks;
- Online access to programme indicators within multiple frameworks in a single web-based application;
- Quick filtering of records for viewing which indicators are on track, almost on track and off track;
- Displaying indicators by various user-defined dimensions such as those associated with a particular partner or donor;
- Facility for entering actual data values online on a rolling basis.

Other useful aspects di-Monitoring include the following:

- The application is designed specifically to monitor the planned targets and actual results expressed in a planning document. For example, users may create an interactive dashboard to view and organise framework elements, to easily track progress on performance indicators, to quickly filter for underperforming indicators and to view data in real time.
- di-Monitoring complements other knowledge management tools such as the 3W (‘who is doing what and where’) Map, IGADInfo and member states’ DevInfo database systems. Database components and values can be directly imported into di-Monitoring from any DevInfo database\(^4\). Conversely, a di-Monitoring framework can be exported as a DevInfo database, enabling users to create tables, maps, and graphs from the data.

\(^4\)Community Systems Foundation (CSF) is a non-profit organization recognized with special consultations status by the UN-ESCOSOC
• di-Monitoring is a web-based application which can be installed on a local or external server. Di-Monitoring frameworks are created, saved, and updated on the host server. Users, provided with login details, can view and update the frameworks as long as they have access to the internet.

• The di-Monitoring system is built on established methodologies for creating logical frameworks which tie performance data to stated goals. Traditionally, these frameworks have been static documents, available only in hard-copy format. As such, users are unable to view progress on all or selected framework elements in a single location. Nor can multiple partners simultaneously create and edit a framework as a team.

• Di-Monitoring streamlines the work of creating and updating monitoring frameworks. The application is designed to harness the strengths of a team of specialists, both in terms of framework design and administration. Framework elements such as pillars can be conveniently divided among a team working remotely, then joined together into a single framework once the individual components are completed. This is done by enabling teams to share responsibilities.
Resilience Focus

Screenshot of the visualization dashboard of the di-Monitoring tool

Progress on Cross-border market infrastructures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quarter</th>
<th>Slaughter</th>
<th>Crushers</th>
<th>Border Checkpoints</th>
<th>Holding grounds</th>
<th>Livestock Markets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Q1 2017</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q2 2017</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Q3 2017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4 2017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Screenshot of the visualization dashboard of the di-Monitoring tool

Progress on Water Infrastructures at National Level

- Actual: 27.5%
  - Progress on Water Infrastructures at National Level, Percentage: 27.5

Target: 100%
Actual: 27.5%
Experiences from Kenya and Uganda

In these two neighboring countries, di-Monitoring has successfully been applied in monitoring implementation of the Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP) at national and sub-national levels. To ease reporting, dashboards have been designed for each member state to show progress of implementation against selected indicators at regional, national and sub-national levels. Now, country policy makers and project teams are able to monitor progress using simple visualisation aids on a number of key performance indicators based on their interest through an online portal without requiring a password.

One of the key lessons learned during the pilot phase in monitoring RPLRP and DRSLP projects was the difficulty in showing immediate results based on the project log frame. This is because most of the project outputs defined in the project log frame were long-term infrastructural developments. Faced with this challenge, and under enormous pressure from policy makers to illustrate progress, the country teams developed process / milestone indicators for each of the outputs. These could then be used to demonstrate quantitative progress towards achievement of the outputs. The process / milestone indicators were assigned weights which showed the cumulative steps towards the completion of the infrastructural output. Sub-national / local government officials are then able to view and monitor progress at the district and county levels for each quarter of the year.

Conclusion

The decision to adopt the di-Monitoring tool was made with the fundamental objective of harmonising the processes and tools required to monitor implementation of resilience projects and programmes across member states and the IGAD Secretariat. The experience from Kenya and Uganda is a clear indication that this objective is achievable only when member states and partners remain coordinated and committed within the framework of the drought-resilience initiative. The willingness of project teams to regularly update the system with data remains a key factor in the continued success of the tool. It is hoped that once all resilience projects...
implemented under IDDRSI in all member states are uploaded with the system and regularly updated, a common monitoring platform will be achieved on which to track and show progress at regional, national and sub-national levels, for comparison across countries as part of the broader knowledge management strategy of IDDRSI.

The reader is invited to visit the di-Monitoring portal at http://irbms-igad.org/ in addition to giving constructive feedback that will help improvement of the product.
Multiple hazards interlink to cause vulnerability in the Greater Horn of Africa (GHA). Of all of them, however, drought and conflict over resources are the two major drivers of vulnerability in the region. In a bid to better understand drought emergencies and vulnerability, the IGAD Climate Prediction and Applications Centre (ICPAC), the IGAD Disaster Management Programme and the World Food Programme (WFP), used the Swedish Climate Adaptation Fund with support from the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR), the Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS-NET), the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) and the Regional Centre For Mapping Resources For Development (RCMRD) to analyse climate risks and their impact against baseline information. The result of this analysis was the Greater Horn of Africa Climate Risk and Food Security Atlas.

The Atlas maps climate trends, identifies geographical patterns of flood, drought, temperature change, land degradation, human and animal diseases and vulnerability, and aligns with trends in food security. It also generates information for resilience building, climate-risk mitigation and adaptation to climate change impacts. In this way, the Atlas serves as a strategic tool to guide adaptation planning, programme design and policy making for national and sub-national government agencies, UN agencies and non-governmental organisations. It comprises two sections: Part 1 is a GHA regional analysis and Part 2 covers countries in detail.

Introduction

The Greater Horn of Africa (GHA) is one of the regions most vulnerable to climate-related risks. With the exception of protracted conflict and political violence, climate-induced risk is the major driver of vulnerability in the region, particularly for poor communities whose livelihoods depend on rain-fed agriculture. Increasing frequency and intensity of climate variability manifest themselves through variable and erratic rainfall together with rising temperatures, floods and droughts. This results in crop and livestock diseases, livestock deaths and total crop losses as well as increasing frequency of emergencies, food insecurity, infrastructural damage and economic costs. There is therefore a need for better analysis to understand these climate risks and their impact on food security.

Addressing the drivers of vulnerability

Most drivers of vulnerability are influenced by climatic variability and change, as outlined in Box 1. However, a wide variety of data sets were analysed in the compilation of the Atlas. These included data on climate (rainfall between 1981 and 2015), remote sensing and temperature (between 1961 and 2015), land...
degradation, land use and land cover, drought and floods episodes, food security status from the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC), crop and livestock production, market and trade routes, malnutrition and population.

Key Messages from the Atlas

1. Highly variable patterns, intensity and distribution of rainfall – including late onset and / or early finish of seasons – have affected agricultural production systems, resulting in emergencies in the region.

Rainfall patterns across the GHA are highly variable, due in part to the region’s complex topographical features such as the Rift Valley System, mountains, plateaus and large inland water bodies. El Niño / La Niña and the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) also cause rainfall anomalies. Across the GHA, some areas have bimodal seasons while others are unimodal. Convergence versus divergence of temperature anomalies over the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian Oceans influences inter-annual variability of regional rainfall in different ways. Findings in the Atlas observe that seasonal rainfall declined in parts of the GHA between 1981 and 2015, while mean surface air temperature in the region has increased by over 1°C since the 1970s. As with rainfall, there is data to suggest that average annual temperatures have also become more variable.

2. The frequency of extreme weather events associated with climate variability and change has increased in recent years, resulting in more crop and livestock diseases, more livestock deaths and greater total crop losses.

- The El Niño / Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is associated with suppressed rains in the northern sector and floods in the equatorial sector of the GHA – see Figure 1.

- To the contrary, La Niña has the opposite effect, causing droughts in the equatorial sector of the region.

Box 1

Drivers of vulnerability

- Frequent hazards* (droughts, dry spells, floods);
- Environmental and land degradation*;
- Animal and crop diseases and pests* which negatively impact production;
- Human disease* (e.g. malaria), which lowers labour availability and productivity;
- High population density, which increases demand for food against production potential;
- Eroded livelihoods* and increases in urban population and slum conditions;
- Malfunctioning markets, trade policies and high food prices*;
- Poverty;
- Weak institutional capacity and low access to basic services;
- Conflict resulting from political differences and trans-boundary competition over resources*.

* directly impacted by climate
El Niño has been associated with the droughts of 1982, 1987, 1991, 1997, 2002, 2006, 2009 and 2015 in parts of Ethiopia and northern Somalia, but it has also been linked to abnormally wet conditions (including floods) in the equatorial sector.


Figure 1: Rainfall variability during strong La Niña and El Niño years
3. **The impacts of land degradation and variability of rainfall have resulted in visible hotspots** – areas most affected by triple hazards of drought, flooding and land degradation – in parts of northern Ethiopia, eastern Kenya, south-eastern Tanzania and northern Sudan. The increased dryness in these areas oblige the adaption of agricultural production systems - see Figure 2.

An overlay of areas identified as prone to floods, high land degradation and high drought incidences, based on the Standard Precipitation Index (SPI), indicates areas where climate variability has become the most pronounced.

4. **Unprecedented increases in food insecurity were experienced during extreme the climatic events of 2011, 2015 and 2016.**

The acutely food insecure population in the GHA decreased from 17 million in 2011 (La Niña) to 10 million in late 2013, before increasing again to 18 million in September 2015 (El Niño), then rising to 23 million in September 2016 (La Niña), and peaking at 27 million in July 2017. The peak was worsened by conflict in South Sudan.

The droughts of 2011, 2015 and 2016 increased particular need in north-eastern, south and south-eastern Ethiopia, northern and coastal Kenya and most of Somalia – see Figure 3. In spite of these crises, however, trend analysis based on recurrent phases generally depicts an improvement in food security between 2012 and 2015 in much of the region. Nevertheless, there remain significant temporal variations in food security, brought about by variations in climatic patterns as well as conflicts and malfunctioning markets – see also Figure 4.
In order to reduce the effects of climate change on food supplies, livelihoods and economies, incentive mechanisms to enhance adaptive capacity in sectors such as agriculture, in both the long and short terms, remain a priority.

5. Population growth continues to outpace agricultural production.

The GHA has an average population growth rate of 3%. This is among the highest rates in the world (World Bank, 2015). Such rapid growth makes the impacts of drought, flood, disease and economic shocks to crops, livestock and human populations even more acute – especially for the 75% of the GHA’s population which is dependent on smallholder rain-fed agriculture and markets in semi-arid areas. It is not surprising, therefore, that about 50% of the region’s population live below the poverty line of USD $2 per day. Demographic pressure is an issue of major concern, as population growth is outpacing increases in agricultural production and available resources.

6. High cereal prices have affected food access following the droughts of 2015, 2016 and 2017.

The analysis also found that cross-border trade contributes to food security, as markets operate interdependently – see also Figure 6. This means that trade restrictions affect market accessibility, especially in the southeast region between Ethiopia and Somalia, between Tanzania and its neighbours, and between Kenya and Ethiopia. This implies that, if cross-border trade is restricted through regulatory or policy measures, some populations will be seriously affected. There is therefore a need to both support and formalise cross-border trade between countries.
Policy implications of the analysis

Climate variability and change, as manifested by highly variable and erratic rainfall patterns and rising temperatures, is the major driver of vulnerability. Extreme events, especially El Niño- and La Niña-induced episodes, have become increasingly frequent, resulting in droughts and floods in some areas. The following essential actions by governments and development partners will help to reduce this increasing vulnerability and to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals:

- **Reform government policies on disaster mitigation, adaptation, development plans and programmes for the sectors which are most vulnerable to climate change.**

- **Adapt farming systems through interventions such as increased irrigation, water harvesting, risk transfers (insurance) and introduction of drought-tolerant species in order to address climate variability in hot-spots.**

- **Strengthen resilience-building initiatives such as building household and community assets that help them withstand climatic shocks to cope with increased extreme climatic events and changing ecosystems.**

- **Strengthen safety nets to protect lives and livelihoods of the most vulnerable, as both harvest failures and food commodity prices continue to increase in the region.**

- **Establish land- and resource-management policies and plans to address population growth and utilization of marginal lands.**

- **Review policies on the management and use of the existing Strategic Food Reserves (SFRs) and establish them where relevant, in order to address high food commodity prices and reduced food availability associated with climate variability and trade restrictions.**

- **Integrate food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture into regional, national, and local policies.**
Abstract

Measuring resilience and quantifying the impact of resilience projects are areas receiving significant attention from governments, non-governmental organisations, international organisations and regional economic and development bodies.

The Resilience Index and Measurement Analysis (RIMA-II) model has been developed by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations as a tool for both resilience measurement and project impact evaluation. This article reviews the RIMA-II methodology and its application within the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) region. The article also propagates the two-pronged methodology of hands-on training combined with institutionalisation through Resilience Measurement Units (RMU) as a tool for governmental decision making.

Introduction

Building on growing consensus that targeted solutions are needed to enable vulnerable populations to withstand shocks, and to increase their ability to adapt to changing conditions, it has become vital to measure, understand and build the resilience of affected populations.

The IGAD Region, comprising Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan and Uganda, is one of the most climate hazard-prone and food-insecure regions in the world. The Resilience Analysis Unit (RAU) is an IGAD-mandated institution whose overall purpose is to build the capacity of IGAD member states and their development partners in the measurement and analysis of resilience among vulnerable households and communities. Since its inception in 2012, the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) has developed strategies and programmes aimed at sustainably addressing the effects of drought and related shocks in the Greater Horn of Africa region. The regional initiative provides a framework for developing programmes which ultimately guide resilience plans at the national and regional levels. Moreover, the IGAD region has seen substantial investments into resilience building through development partners such as the EU, USAID, FAO, internal funds and the Government of Switzerland. These investments have also contributed to the framework for impact assessment of resilience programmes across the region.

Resilience measurement is a promising concept for understanding how households cope with shocks and stressors. One of the most compelling features of a resilience approach is the identification of how the combined effects of climate change, economic forces and social conditions have increased the frequency and severity of risk exposure among vulnerable populations. The RIMA-II model allows for estimation of household-level resilience to food insecurity. RIMA-II has been validated over time as a good predictor of food security which presents a promising approach and...
Resilience Focus

optimises a valuable and sustainable framework for a long-term strategy to build food-secure, resilient livelihoods.

The RIMA-II methodology

Use of models to represent complex and abstract phenomena has been a pivotal approach in understanding human problems and interests. Resilience is one such complex phenomenon which remains an abstract concept. In other words, there is no direct way of measuring it other than through a proxy. RIMA-II was developed based on the definition of resilience as provided by the Resilience Measurement Technical Working Group (RM-TWG), which defines it as a capacity that ensures stressors and shocks do not have long-lasting adverse development consequences (FSIN, 2014).

Against RIMA-II, resilience is estimated from four aggregated pillars: Access to Basic Services (ABS), Assets (AST), Social Safety Nets (SSN) and Adaptive Capacity (AC). ABS, which includes schools, health centres, water, electricity and markets, is a fundamental aspect of resilience for three main reasons. First, infrastructure such as schools and access to markets directly influences a household’s capacity to generate income from existing assets and skills through service industry (Dercon et al., 2004). Second, the accessibility of an area – especially in terms of the proximal road network – influences the kind of response possible by households, government and international organizations to a natural disaster or shock. Third, access to health facilities leads to a more active workforce and productive population, since lower morbidity cases will prevail.

Household Assets (AST), both productive and non-productive, are a source of livelihood and a coping mechanism when faced with a myriad of shocks and stressors. Social Safety Nets (SSN), meanwhile, includes both formal and informal cash transfers and provides a modality for households to mitigate against shocks. Households can borrow from friends and relatives in cash or in kind, but private remittances sometimes are not able to protect them fully from shocks. Public social safety nets, social protection and insurance programmes, even if of limited coverage in some developing countries, can help the poor to build up and protect their assets with minimum debt. Last, the Adaptive Capacity (AC) pillar represents a household’s ability to adapt to the changing environment in which it operates. Knowledge and skills provide households with assorted ways of reacting to shocks, including mitigating against them.

The four pillars described above being the proxy measures of resilience for RIMA-II, resilience measurement overall is defined within the realm of food insecurity. Therefore, measured resilience must be linked to food security indicators including (but not limited to) food consumption scores, household dietary diversity scores, food consumption per capita and Simpson’s Index – see Table 2 below.

The RIMA-II model can be summarised in a path diagram, as in Figure 1. Mathematically speaking, this structure falls under a class of statistical Multiple Indicators Multiple Causes (MIMIC) models, which are devised using Structural Equation Models (SEM).

RIMA-II is a data-driven model for which both data collection and analysis are carried out at household level. When a shock occurs, households are the central decision-making units in terms of consumption smoothing, asset selling, livelihood-strategy selection and coping strategies adoption. Households are also the node of interaction with institutions as well as with both formal and informal social networks (Alinovi et al., 2010). As a consequence, the household is the entry point for resilience analysis. Table 1 summarises both the aggregated and the individual variables collected at household level.
**Pillar of resilience** | **Definition** | **Variables**
---|---|---
**ABS**<br>Access to Basic Services | The ability of a household to meet basic needs by accessing and effectively using basic services such as sending children to school, accessing water, electricity and sanitation and selling products at the market. | Access to safe water, toilets and waste disposal, closeness to services such as schools, health facilities, markets, financial services and public transport.

**AST**<br>Assets | Both productive and non-productive, assets are the key elements of livelihood since they enable households to produce and consume goods. Productive assets include land and agricultural effects (such as agricultural equipment), while non-productive assets take into account the monetary value of the house and its appliances. | Household asset index, cultivated land value per capita and Tropical Livestock Units (TLU) per capita.

**SSN**<br>Social Safety Nets | These comprise the ability of the household to access formal and informal assistance from institutions, relatives and friends. | Access to credit, access to transfers and participation in associations.

**AC**<br>Adaptive Capacity | This is the ability to adapt to a new situation and to develop new livelihood strategies. Proxies of AC, for example, are average years of education of household members and the household's perception of the decision-making processes of their community. | Average education level of the household head, number of income sources, dependency ratio (active vs. non-active members), Coping Strategy Index.

*Table 1: Pillars of resilience*
Under the four pillars detailed above are four food-security indicators that can be employed for the RIMA-II model.

The Resilience Capacity Index (RCI), calculated from the RIMA-II model, can be used to answer three key policy questions:

1. **What are the resilience capacity level and structure of an area in one specific moment in time?** This is calculated when the RCI is disaggregated by gender, region, livelihood and so on.

2. **What are the main determinants of resilience and food security evolution?** This is calculated through regression analyses, with the RCI (as well as other food security indicators) being the dependent variable, and other household characteristics and exposures being the explanatory variables.

3. **What is the impact of a resilience investment?** This is calculated when several rounds of surveillance (panel data) are carried out on the target population of a resilience project.

### Table 2: Food-security indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food-security indicators</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food consumption per capita</td>
<td>Monetary value, expressed in US dollars, of per-capita food consumption including food bought, auto-produced, received for free (as a gift or part of a conditional project) and stored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)</td>
<td>The number of unique foods (or food groups) consumed by household members over a given period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Consumption Score (FCS)</td>
<td>A score calculated by summing the weighted frequency of consumption of different food groups consumed by the household during the 7 days before the survey. The standard food groups and weights (in parentheses) are main staples (2), pulses (3), vegetables (1), fruit (1), meat and fish (4), milk (4), sugar (0.5), oil (0.5) and condiments (0) (WFP, 2008).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simpson's Index</td>
<td>This index takes into account the number of food groups – cereals, roots, vegetables, fruits, meat, legumes, dairy, fats and other – consumed, as well as their relative abundance (Simpson, 1949). The index ranges between 0 and 1, where 0 represents no diversity and 1 represents maximum dietary diversity.</td>
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### The application of RIMA-II in the IGAD region

Resilience programming is improved through the application of common methodologies and through working with regional institutions. Resilience baseline surveys, meanwhile, assess the effects of interventions through the usage of the RIMA-II methodology, thus providing a powerful instrument to determine fundamental means for learning about effective interventions.

In Kenya, RIMA-II has been applied in five counties, namely Kitui, Makueni, Isiolo, Marsabit and Meru. The baselines in Kenya provide information for resilience profiling which inform resilience-related programming and policy processes in these counties.
The first baseline was conducted in Kitui and Makuini Counties, providing information for programme design and monitoring. Carried out in July and August 2015, this study covered 804 households and revealed contributory factors to differences in resilience. In Makuini, households were found to have remarkable advantages of SSN in terms of high transfer values and access to credit. AC was also found to contribute more in Makuini than in Kitui, particularly education levels. In terms of ABS, the study revealed Kitui County to be performing better.

A baseline survey conducted in Isiolo, Marsabit and Meru Counties in February and March 2016 covered 1,028 households. The survey contributed to measuring Increased Productivity and Profitability (IPP) of smallholder farmers and conservation agriculture. The study revealed that productive assets, income diversification and distance to basic services each have a huge impact on households' resilience.

In Uganda, baseline analysis was conducted in November and December 2016. It covered all seven districts of the Karamoja sub-region as part of an impact evaluation under the Joint Resilience Strategy. 2,380 households were surveyed, and it was revealed that the key drivers of resilience capacity in Karamoja are the diversification of crop production, income sources and education. Additionally, non-productive assets (including house values) and agricultural assets including access to land and natural-resource management highly contribute to the resilience capacity of households.

Also in Uganda, panel-data resilience analysis was carried out during three Uganda National Panel Surveys (UNPS) between 2009 and 2012. These surveys formed part of the World Bank Living Standard Measurement Study – Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA). The sample was composed of approximately 3,200 households, including a randomly selected share of split-off households formed after the 2005-2006 Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS).

The UNPS was representative at the national, urban / rural and regional levels (Northern, Eastern, Western and Central Regions). Dynamic analysis showed that the Resilience Capacity Index (RCI) sharply decreased in 2011, then increased again in 2012. Household resilience was found to be highly influenced, in descending order, by AC, AST, ABS and then SSN. This pattern was present in all of the three surveyed years. Differences in the resilience scores between female- and male-headed households were found all three years, meanwhile, with female-headed households always emerging less resilient.

In Sudan, household resilience analysis was undertaken in alignment with the National Baseline Household Survey (NBHS), which was developed and implemented by the Government of Sudan in May and June 2009. The total number of households used for the analysis was 7,918. Information collected included demographics, education, health, waged and non-farm self-employment, household food consumption, food security, durable assets, agricultural assets, shocks and coping mechanisms.

Household resilience here was found to be highly influenced by Income and Food Access (IFA), ABS and AST. IFA was mainly influenced by household monthly per-capita income; ABS was highly correlated to access to electricity, improved toilet facilities and cooking facilities. With regard to AST, agricultural wealth index (such as possession of agricultural tools) was by far the most important variable.

In Somalia the FAO, UNICEF and WFP have applied RIMA-II methodology to assess the Joint Resilience Strategy. This has led to a common approach in advocating for humanitarian responses in the country.

In the Cluster III cross-border area – which is composed of three Ethiopia (Dolo Ado and Dolo Bay), Kenya (Mandera) and Somalia (Dollow and Beled-Hawo) – baseline analysis of 1,074 households was undertaken in November and December 2016,
under the IGAD-FAO Partnership Programme. This programme seeks to enhance the resilience of communities in this cross-border area. The analysis indicated that access to basic services, as well as ownership of household assets, are the main drivers of resilience.

Enhancing ownership and usage of the RIMA-II model by member states

Ownership of the RIMA-II tool by national institutions contributes to building longevity and sustainability of resilience measurement. To this end, a two-pronged approach is followed, which combines capacity building with institutionalisation.

Training and capacity building

It is envisaged that, through training, government officers will take up ownership of the RIMA-II model, applying the tool to decision-making and resilience programming. The main aim of building capacity in resilience measurement is to ensure that government officials have the skills and know-how to accurately measure resilience dynamics on the ground.

There are two training packages which focus on building non-technical and technical officers’ capacity:

Basic RIMA-II Training (BRT): This curriculum prepares non-technical people for managing RIMA-II analysis and reports. It instils a thorough understanding of the tool and interpretation of RIMA-II results.

Advanced RIMA-II Training (ART): This curriculum prepares the trainee to implement RIMA-II analysis using Stata statistical software. It includes step-by-step presentation of both the theoretical foundation and the actual procedure of running RIMA-II analysis. It may include a special module on impact assessment with RIMA-II. ART equips practitioners to run RIMA-II for single analysis for impact evaluation, targeting, ranking, and dynamic analysis.

The institutionalisation of Resilience Measurement Units (RMUs)

An RMU is a small technical group set up within a government institution which is specifically concerned with resilience matters and/or statistical reporting. An RMU is composed of employees of the same institution who are mandated to follow up on all of the resilience-measurement activities of the government. Creation of an RMU ensures government ownership in the measurement of resilience, building the capacity of local institutions to conduct resilience analysis. An RMU is also a key driver in expanding evidence-based measurement and building capacities over time. RMU officers are taken through the BRT and ART training in addition to regular on-the-job training courses.

In Uganda, the institutionalisation of resilience measurement has been achieved through a technical working group under the Office of the Prime Minister. Informed by the IDDRSI strategy, it developed a Country Programming Paper (CPP), identifying priority areas for intervention to be undertaken at both national and the cross-border regional levels. The country has duly seen substantial investments made in resilience building. These include the World Bank Regional Pastoral Livelihoods Resilience Project (RPLRP) for Africa, a GIZ Livelihoods Programme in Karamoja, and DFID’s Enhancing Resilience in Karamoja Programme. The RMU in Uganda was tasked with the organisation and provision of accurate measurements of resilience using the RIMA model.
through baseline, mid-line and end-line impact assessments.

Constituted under the Department of Disaster Preparedness and Management, the RMU spearheads measurement of resilience in Uganda, playing a critical role in sensitisation of stakeholders about resilience analysis methods and programming policy for decision makers. The Unit is mandated to lead national resilience measurement efforts throughout the country, as well as to systematically measure the return on investments to increase resilience of vulnerable households. For example, the RMU supported the roll-out of resilience measurement and analysis in Karamoja, an area of focus for many humanitarian organisations. Food insecurity is a major challenge in the region, as is violence (including cattle rustling) and high climate-change variability. A household-level data set collected in Karamoja has been used for a resilience analysis which employs the RIMA-II methodology. The main findings of the analysis provide policymakers with the most appropriate, evidence-based interventions.

The process of institutionalising resilience measurement in Kenya is also underway. The Government of Kenya, together with IGAD, has devised a Kenya CPP for ending recurrent drought emergencies. The CPP emphasises creation of a conducive environment for building and strengthening the links between resilience, recovery and development through long-term planning. The National Drought Management Authority (NDMA) has the mandate of coordinating drought management; a notable example of this is the Sector Plan for Drought Risk Management and Ending Drought Emergencies. Investments prioritised by regional programmes under the IDDRSI and implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation (MoAlI) include the Drought Resilience and Sustainable Livelihoods Project (DRSLP) and the RPLRP. Both of these seek to address drought-related challenges and to build resilience.

Measuring the impact of resilience programmes has become increasingly important in Kenya. Integrating data collection mechanisms for resilience indicators into the framework of the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) is ensuring continuity of monitoring resilience indicators, while RIMA reports and policy briefs provide information which can inform resilience-related programming and policy process.

Following the dissemination of resilience analysis reports and policy briefs for Isiolo, Marsabit and Meru Counties, a technical development workshop was held in Nairobi to develop and strengthen resilience-measurement standards, approaches and partnerships in Kenya. The workshop was comprised of donor agencies and representation from KNBS, MoAI and NDMA. The workshop provided key stakeholders from national government institutions, donor agencies and development partners with a platform for discussion on how to better guide resilience-related policy processes and programming. Government officers from KNBS, MoAI and NDMA have already been trained on BRT and ART, while discussions on setting up an RMU under the NDMA are ongoing.

**Conclusion**

Measuring the impact of resilience programmes has become an important initiative to inform programme and produce evidence for policy recommendations. The RIMA model provides a scientifically sound way of measuring resilience and of evaluating the impact of resilience-related investments, in line with the IDDRSSI strategy. Ownership of the RIMA tool by national institutions contributes to building longevity and sustainability of resilience measurement, ultimately providing food secure and resilient livelihoods. In order to achieve this ownership, capacity development and institutionalisation have been identified as best practices. As has been outlined, the institutionalisation approach is
showing positive results, particularly in Uganda where it has been finalised, but is also well underway in all of the other IGAD member states.

References


The IGAD member countries – Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, the Sudan and Uganda – are rich in livestock, being home to 336 million ruminants (cattle, small ruminants and camels) and serving as the main livelihood sustenance for the pastoral and agro-pastoral communities in the arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) of the region.

The IGAD member states are continually exporting livestock and meat within the region as well as to other African regions and to the Middle East markets. The latter has a high demand for livestock and livestock products, as well as being located close to the IGAD member states. Moreover, the importing Gulf countries have a particular preference for livestock from this region. Some countries from the IGAD region were able to export over 11 million animals and 32,000 metric tons of meat to the Middle East and North African (MENA) countries in 2016. This export meets about 60% and 10% of the annual demand for animals and meat (respectively) with the MENA countries. It was also reported that feeding a world population of 9.1 billion people in 2050 will require raising overall food production by some 70% between 2005 and 2050 (IMF, 2013). There is therefore much to be done by the actors of the livestock sub-sector.

The main issues faced by livestock producers and other value chain actors are trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs), recurrent drought, limited capacity to meet market compliance, inadequate and inconsistent marketable supplies, limited up-to-date market information that reaches the producers and limited market promotion and linkage.

The main technical supports provided by the IGAD Centre for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development (ICPALD) to relevant actors of the member states includes identification of nine priority animal diseases, development and validation of a harmonised set of Standard Methods and Procedures (SMPs) to help control of...
the abovementioned diseases. SMPs have also been developed for use by the livestock export quarantines in the region.

Key achievements in the areas of livestock and meat trade enhancement include supporting live animal and meat export traders to participate in the annual Gulf Food Fair, to share their promotion materials and identify new buyers, to explore alternative markets to South-East Asia – especially Vietnam and Malaysia – with the participation of regulatory bodies and exporters. Ethiopia has already acquired permission to begin exporting to Vietnam, while some other IGAD member states have also applied to do the same.

Also achieved has been the establishment and operationalisation of an IGAD committee of Chief veterinary officers (CVOs), exporters and importers to enhance trust and transparency within the sector. This includes minimising bans and rejection of livestock and meat, training trade counsellors of IGAD member states who are stationed at seven importing locations – Dubai, Abu Dhabi, Riyadh, Jeddah, Doha, Tehran and Cairo – in import requirements and promotion of livestock and livestock products.
For more information on the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative, please visit us at: resilience.igad.int