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# Additional issues to address in supporting pastoral development in sub-Saharan Africa

## CapEx in supporting pastoral development

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### **CapEx series on pastoralism**

*Pastoralism is practised on a quarter of the globe's surface and provides a source of food and livelihood for millions of people, especially in areas that are too dry or high for reliable production of food crops. For the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) work in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa, pastoralism is a key domain. Having recognised the value of learning from experiences in development cooperation across countries and regions, the Subgroup Pastoralism in the SDC network for Agriculture and Food Security undertook an internal learning process called "Capitalisation of experiences in supporting pastoral development" (CapEx Pastoralism for short). The Subgroup members identified issues about which they wanted to learn more, so as to be more effective in supporting the development of pastoral economies and livelihoods. During the CapEx process, they compiled information and formulated texts on selected topics. This brief is one of a series of briefs that came out of this process. The briefs are intended primarily for SDC and its partners at country and regional level, particularly in West and Eastern Africa, and SDC staff in Switzerland, but also for other development practitioners and donors engaged in pastoral development.*



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## 1. Introduction

During the November 2015 workshop in Isiolo, Kenya for capitalising on experiences in supporting pastoral development (CapEx Pastoralism), participants from Swiss-funded development cooperation in West and Eastern Africa exchanged and discussed what they had learned thus far in the CapEx process. Including also some experiences from Central Asia, they raised several additional issues related to pastoralism in sub-Saharan Africa that they thought should be addressed by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) in the formulation of strategies and programmes supporting pastoral development. These issues were in addition to the eight topics on which briefs were prepared in Isiolo on: i) Cross-border transhumance corridors in West Africa; ii) Land use and pastoral spatial planning in sub-Saharan Africa; iii) Organisation of pastoral civil society; iv) Alternative livelihoods for former pastoralists in rural settings; v) Livestock insurance systems; vi) Access to pastoral services; vii) Maintaining pastoral water infrastructure; and viii) Promising practices in supporting management of water resources in pastoral areas.

During the Isiolo workshop, while the authors revised their briefs, the group of “coaches” fleshed out the additional issues that had been identified, putting them into a form that could be used for further discussion within the CapEx group and possibly beyond. The coaches provided the following short notes on:

- A. Education and skills development
- B. Research for and with pastoralists
- C. Local mechanisms for managing disaster and climate risk
- D. Conflict management and advocacy in natural resource management
- E. Gatekeepers and development brokers
- F. Agropastoralism as a mixed mode of livelihood
- G. Stakeholder analysis in pastoral development
- H. Infrastructure needed to support pastoralist livelihoods.

In each note, it is first explained what the issue is all about. Then, aspects or elements related to this issue that need to be considered by actors in development cooperation are briefly listed or described.



Afar pastoralists in the move in Ethiopia (Credit: Wolfgang Bayer)

## **A. Education and skills development**

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Pastoralist communities are seldom benefitting in an adequate way from development efforts in their countries with respect to formal education and training as well as non-formal training in literacy and practical skills – not only to help them adapt their pastoral systems to new conditions but also to allow some community members to pursue complementary or alternative sources of livelihood.

Before designing interventions in education, literacy and skills development in pastoral areas, actors in development cooperation need to clarify three key questions: i) education and training for whom? ii) with what content? and iii) how is it to be done?

The “for whom” question demands differentiation between forms and levels of education and training for children, youth, adults and also elderly people to be better able to cope with changes in their lives. Different kinds of training will be needed by those people – male and female – who would like to leave pastoralism and seek their livelihoods in other geographic areas or in other economic sectors in the drylands. For those who opt to remain in pastoralism, the education and training needs to integrate and enrich existing knowledge and provide new insights and skills that can strengthen pastoralism, e.g. related to legal matters, commerce, policy, and information and communication technology (ICT).

Especially for the latter group – those remaining in pastoralism – mobile forms of literacy training and skills development are highly appropriate. They can be adapted to the activity schedules of children, youth and adults in the pastoralist communities and can be made more “hands-on”, relating directly to the pastoral activities, in contrast to conventional classroom teaching in town-based schools.

With regard to the choice and design of skills training, a strong participation of pastoral women and men is crucial to develop relevant content so that value can be added to the existing pastoral systems.

- Note by Felix Fellmann

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## **B. Research for and with pastoralists**

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For well-informed management of their resources, pastoralists need access not only to their traditional sources of information but also to information that comes from relevant scientific research, e.g. related to water flows, climatic trends, animal health and pasture ecology. In addition, for evidence-based advocacy on pastoral issues, they need access to research findings that reveal the productivity of pastoralism, the contribution of pastoralism to the national and regional economy, and the ecological soundness of pastoral production systems. Criteria for assessing productivity of the system should be defined by the pastoralists operating in a given context, possibly with facilitation from outside. However, most of the scientific information available on pastoralism today is not available in a form that can be used by pastoralist communities and pastoralist organisations for their resource management and policy-dialogue purposes.

One positive example of how research findings can directly inform pastoralists’ advocacy activities is the course “Pastoralism and Policy” adapted by the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) and Tufts University for different countries in Eastern Africa, the Sahel and Sudan ([www.iied.org/pastoralism-policy-training-addressing-misconceptions-improving-knowledge](http://www.iied.org/pastoralism-policy-training-addressing-misconceptions-improving-knowledge)). This course is designed for both pastoralist leaders and policymakers/government administrators, ideally in the same workshop, and draws on scientific literature that validates the rationale behind mobile forms of pastoralism using low levels of external inputs (compiled also by Jode 2009).

Existing research findings about pastoralism in sub-Saharan Africa need to be analysed by the stakeholders – including pastoralists – and, where important gaps are identified, e.g. in information about informal markets for livestock and livestock products, additional research needs to be carried out to provide a stronger evidence base about pastoralism, for both planning and advocacy purposes.

Analysis of existing research findings and further research also need to be carried out by scientists together with pastoralists into consequences of intensifying pastoralism in arid areas (e.g. higher-demanding breeds, disease resilience, disregard and neglect of locally adapted breeds) in terms of national economics and ecology and in terms of the risk-resilience of pastoralists.

Pastoralists are doing their own informal research into issues of high importance to them, e.g. marketing channels, prices and trends; supplementary feeding; new livestock products). Support should be given to enhancing the capacity of pastoralist organisations to conduct their own research on topics of their choice, to analyse the findings and to make these available to other pastoralists. They could also use the findings in their policy-dialogue activities. Appropriate support by formal scientists could strengthen the pastoralists' research. This includes translating relevant findings from scientific research already conducted, as was done for the above-mentioned training on pastoralism and policy.

- Note by Ann Waters-Bayer & Felix Fellmann

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### **C. Local mechanisms for managing disaster and climate risk**

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Pastoralist communities have institutions, mechanisms and practices in managing variability and, thus, related risks. In order to address natural disasters such as effects (shocks) of climate change or resource degradation and changes (stresses) induced by economic and political dynamics, local risk management is adapted and incorporates new mechanisms. Risk management strategies include also cultural attitudes towards hazards.

In analysing local risk management and in conceiving a support strategy, actors in development cooperation need to include and address the following elements:

- Practices to diversify livelihood options illustrated by particular production patterns and income sources
- Practices to change herding and land-use patterns or apply new/adapted technologies
- Social and economic practices such as loans from family/clan members or newly introduced options such as livestock insurance systems
- Practices designed to mitigate hazards, such as reforestation, rehabilitation of pasture vegetation and soil, and various ways to save energy
- Practices to strengthen coping capacities, in particular institutional development, knowledge management and information/communication
- Early-warning mechanisms that include observation, assessment and sharing of information, based on both local expertise (e.g. phenomenology) and scientific methods
- Response to crises such as responsibilities ("risk-management teams"), materials/ tools, reserves (food, feed etc).

In addition, they should consider or strive to ensure that:

- Local risk management is based on participatory risk assessment, including both indigenous and scientific knowledge and experience;
- Local risk management addresses also the vulnerable people and groups in the community, e.g. through particular safety-net approaches such as customary mutual exchange or modern State social transfers in the form of cash, vouchers or in-kind material assistance;
- Pasture management and land-use planning and other resource-management plans reflect risk management, e.g. by making provisions in terms of land/resource allocation for times of crisis, such as dry-season grazing areas;
- Local – in many instances also community-based – risk management is closely linked to or implements the national risk management (often called Disaster Risk Management) of the Government and is being supported financially and logistically by the latter.

– Note by Aida Gareeva & Manuel Flury

#### **D. Conflict management and advocacy in natural resource management (NRM)**

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Natural resources in the drylands are used by multiple stakeholders, often with overlapping customary rights of primary and secondary land use. Competition for the scarce resources and, in many cases, unclear borders and weak institutions for governing resource use lead to conflicts between user groups. Often, introduced, modern State institutions undermine the customary institutions for negotiating access to natural resources in a flexible way, depending on changing conditions from year to year, as well as the customary institutions for mitigating conflict and for reconciling conflicting parties. In the context of natural resource governance, the priority level of (inclusive) conflict management is the local level, within a watershed, landscape or comparable resource-related context. In this process, it is necessary to include regional or national perspectives and, thus, to associate actors from these levels. Particular attention needs to be given to dealing with local conflicts that cross national borders.

A strategy for conflict management should address the following aspects, among others (this list is non-exhaustive and in no particular order). It needs to:

- Refer both to established (including customary) institutions, mechanisms and practices of conflict mitigation and resolution; and to newly introduced approaches to conflict management;
- Stipulate that the agreed and established conflict-management measures are translated/integrated into resource-use plans (for land, water and vegetation, including trees) and, vice versa, that resource-use plans provide the basis for identifying appropriate conflict-management measures;
- Include capacity building of all the different actors (also children/youth) in skills such as conflict analysis, mediation, facilitation and negotiation, as well as integration of these issues into the school curricula;
- Identify good and promising practices in terms of both skills (e.g. mediation, facilitation, negotiation) and practical (NRM-related) measures in the field;
- Include measures to build awareness about the existence and nature of NRM-related conflicts and to build commitment to take individual and collective responsibility for managing and resolving conflicts;
- Address stakeholders/partners in i) the Government administration, for policymaking and formulation of legal texts; ii) in research, for knowledge generation from both local expertise and scientific research; and iii) in development cooperation, for technical and financial support;
- Include methods for gaining an understanding of the conflict situation (“tensions”) and the conflict-driving forces and actors.

– Note by Aida Gareeva & Manuel Flury

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#### **E. Gatekeepers and development brokers**

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Traditionally, pastoralist communities have been relegated to the background and are not usually consulted on development-cooperation decisions that will affect their day-to-day lives and livelihoods. Projects and programmes are often decided in “boardrooms” in the absence of legitimate voices from the communities. Pastoralist groups live in remote dryland areas, which tend to be particularly far away from these boardrooms. Brokers and advocacy groups in civil society often try to fill the huge gap between the boardrooms and the pastoralist villages. These brokers may be facilitating (or confining) the exchange of information and spanning the boundaries between different groups of stakeholders in development cooperation. They may become “gatekeepers” that block or filter access of development-cooperation actors to pastoralist communities, dictate which development projects are implemented and/or mask the reality on the ground.

Advocacy programmes spearheaded by community-based groups with relatively broad participation at local level can put these tendencies into check. This can be seen in the case of Garba Tula in Isiolo County of Kenya, where grassroots communities have been empowered to decide how local resilience can be built in the long term through community-led decision-making and pasture-management initiatives. Through the Resource Advocacy Programme (RAP), pastoral men and women learned

about the provisions of the new constitution in Kenya and about the role that community bylaws could play in managing the use of natural resources in the district. This encouraged them to pilot a community land-tenure model. Traditional institutions for managing grazing were capacitated to carry out rangeland mapping and planning, which helped the communities in governance of water infrastructure development (Roba 2014, Tari et al 2015).

When planning and implementing interventions in pastoral development processes, development-cooperation actors such as SDC need to:

- become aware of how existing brokers are operating in order to ensure that the decisions about cooperation at the local level reflect an inclusive process;
- remain aware of the changes in the roles of brokers over time, as the institutional contests and power relations change;
- make conscious use of the positive aspects of brokerage in bridging the information and communication gaps between pastoralist groups, government institutions and development-cooperation actors.

– Note by Kunow Abdi

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## F. Agropastoralism as a mixed mode of livelihood

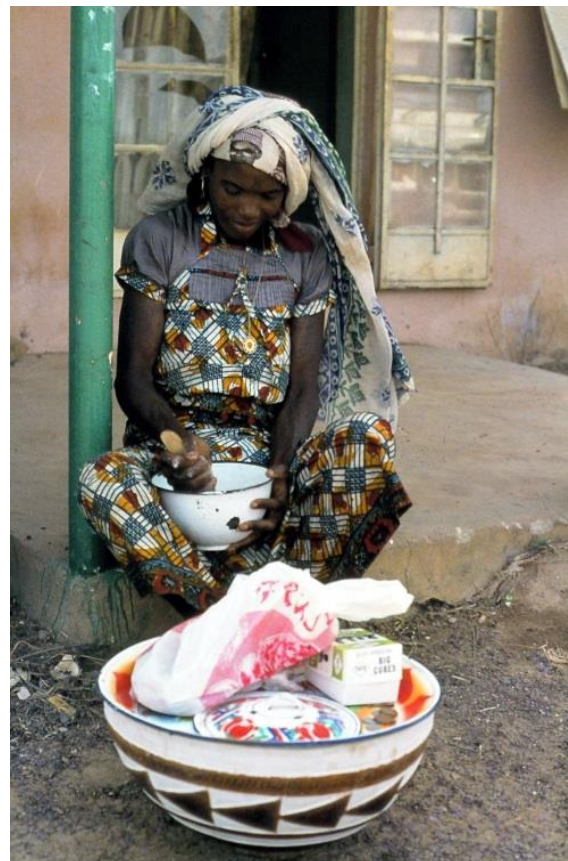
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We perceive the following drivers for shifting/transiting to mixed, agro-pastoral production systems (this list is not exhaustive):

- Crisis situation induced by climate-related and other natural disasters such as frequent droughts
- Opportunities such as availability of irrigated land and new water resources
- Information by advisory services or from other sources
- Awareness and information through education and professional training
- Availability of means to invest (savings).

Different actors relevant for transition to agropastoralism have different perspectives related to this shift:

- Government: to sedentarise mobile communities in order to exert (political and/or security-related) control; to avail land for commercial production; to provide public services spatially concentrated at fixed places with lower costs; to provide an enhancing environment for private (business) operators etc;
- Technical experts: to intensify the productive use of land, water, biodiversity, e.g. with fodder production (winter/dry seasons); to reduce pressure (and degradation) on resources;
- Pastoralists: to have access to services such as schooling for children, (livestock and human) healthcare, water supply, energy, etc. and other modern amenities; to diversify income as a response to decreasing availability of land and water resources; to manage/reduce risks from natural disasters such as more frequent droughts; to profit from options for processing (crop/livestock) products and accessing markets.



Fulani woman selling milk in northern Nigeria (Credit: Wolfgang Bayer)

Such a transition impacts substantially on the internal organisation of a social group, in particular changing division of labour between men, women and children/youth. Evidence shows that such a transition carries the risk of increasing the workload for women (e.g. Fratkin & Roth 2005).

In terms of action, the following accompanying activities in the sense of strategies or action plans need to be considered:

- Research on producing and processing crops (cereals, vegetables, fruit, fodder) in an agropastoral livelihood setting;
- Development of content for providing appropriate advisory services for agropastoralists;
- Resource/land-use planning as an inclusive process, in order to secure access to productive land for both crop and pastoral production and to provide a basis for allocating and negotiating property/user rights;
- Provision of public social and livestock services for agropastoralists.

– Note by Aida Gareeva & Manuel Flury

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## **G. Stakeholder analysis in pastoral development**

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Stakeholder analysis involves identifying the different interest groups according to their roles or positions and proposing what kind of cooperation should be considered at different levels. With respect to pastoralism, one set of stakeholders comprises the policymakers whose decisions and actions strongly influence pastoral practices. Vis-à-vis these policymakers, development cooperation should:

- at regional level, such as in the ECOWAS area, encourage regional integration policies that facilitate movements of pastoralists and trade between the different countries in the region;
- at national level, monitor the place that pastoralism is accorded in policies, regulations and land-use planning;
- at local level, support the presence and participation of pastoralists in management structures for local development.

Pastoralists are not a homogenous group. They comprise richer people keeping large herds, poorer people keeping small herds, livestock owners, hired herders and agropastoralists. All these actors are necessarily interacting with crop farmers and, in these interactions, resource use by pastoralists is bound to be a topic of discussion and negotiation. Depending on the type of support envisaged, development-cooperation actors may need to make a very profound stakeholder analysis in order to be able to target their interventions well and to address the interests of the different pastoralist groups, while taking into account also the interests of the other stakeholders.

A second important group of stakeholders in pastoral development is made up of support structures (development cooperation, technical services, NGOs, associations). In their accompanying role, they should primarily support the dynamics and choices of the stakeholders (above all, the pastoralists) and provide methodological tools and technical solutions.

The third important group of stakeholders comprises the pastoral women and youth, who need to be addressed particularly with a view to their large contribution to pastoral activities as well as to their relative marginalisation in enjoying the results of the pastoral activities. To this end, reflection is necessary to take their perspectives and aspirations into account. What is their vision of pastoral activities in the future?

– Note by Pascal Rouamba & Mansour Moutari

## **H. Infrastructure needed to support pastoralist livelihoods**

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In the past and even nowadays, misled, wrong and environmentally harmful infrastructure in pastoral areas has led and can lead to environmental degradation – even to the extent of desertification – that makes the land useless for both crop farming and livestock production. Infrastructure risk management is important in such vulnerable ecological environments, as the pastoralists make their living from the range resources in the drylands. Regarding several issues and on several different levels, we identified possibilities to improve the availability of infrastructure in order to make pastoralism more efficient and to provide the pastoralists with better opportunities to market their products and gain a higher income.

Infrastructure to support pastoralists can be divided into five categories: i) General basic infrastructure; ii) Livestock migration corridors; iii) Market access; iv) Local value chain investment; and v) Infrastructure related to production and consumption of pastoral products.

### **i) General basic infrastructure**

For pastoralist communities, the same or similar (but adapted to the drylands) general basic infrastructure would need to be available as in other rural areas for crop farmers and other people:

- Mobile primary schools are needed so that the children of pastoralists can gain their basic education;
- Human health posts and centres should be available, either mobile or fixed;
- All-weather roads are needed to link pastoralists with rural towns and markets and with major urban centres;
- Training centres for basic skills development and apprentices should be available (this is a national policy issue depending on whether the Government seeks to improve or eradicate pastoralism);
- Human and animal health monitoring are needed to detect diseases.

### **ii) Livestock migration corridors in West Africa**

Several infrastructure requirements need to be put in place for the migration corridors already agreed upon in West Africa to enable the pastoralists to migrate with the least possible constraints:

- Waterpoints must be made available at regular intervals along the corridors so that animals can reach the next waterpoint within 1–2 days;
- The migration corridors need to be clearly demarcated so as to limit interference with adjacent crop farmers as much as possible;
- Animal vaccination parks/points should be available within a reasonable distance from the migration corridors;
- Pastureland for the migrating livestock can be enriched by sowing fodder seeds within the corridors;
- Milk-collection points should be reachable within the migration corridors so that pastoralists can sell their milk on a regular basis.

### **iii) Market access**

Pastoralists need a certain degree of market access to important products required by themselves and their animals, as well as to sell their animals and livestock products:

- Selling points for livestock drugs need to be within a reachable distance or possibly mobile shops could be operated;
- Livestock trading and market places should be available within a reachable distance from where the animals are being grazed.





Donkeys transporting water in Niger (Credit: Wolfgang Bayer)

#### **iv) Local value chain investment**

Investment should be made in livestock value chains, ideally in the pastoral areas and in ways that the pastoralists can benefit from the value addition:

- Slaughtering facilities and cool chains for storage and transport should be available in the nearest rural town or city;
- Facilities for processing milk, meat and hides or skins into higher-value and/or more storable products such as yoghurt, cheese and pasteurised milk as well as traditional livestock products should be made available at the local level in pastoral areas so that more of the income from value addition is gained by people in pastoral communities rather than by intermediaries and traders.

#### **v) Infrastructure related to production and consumption of pastoral products**

To be able to bring the production, processing and consumption of livestock products closer to each other in terms of either time or place:

- Good road infrastructure is needed from the livestock markets to the slaughtering facilities and from the grazing and milking areas to the dairying facilities as well as to the consumers of livestock products;
- Slaughterhouse hygiene and the evaluation of livestock products (e.g. dried meat, dairy products, hides and skins) need to be guaranteed according to reasonable standards (see Roesel & Grace 2014).

– Note by Djibril Diani & Yves Guinand

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## Acknowledgements

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