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RANGELANDS

Plotting progress: integrated planning in the rangelands of Kenya, Ethiopia, and Uganda



INTERNATIONAL
LAND
COALITION



Regional Learning &
Advocacy Programme
for Vulnerable Dryland
Communities

The Making Rangelands Secure Learning Initiative was established by a group of organisations (International Land Coalition (ILC), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), World Initiative for Sustainable Pastoralism IUCN-WISP, PROCASUR, and RECONCILE) seeking to improve security of rights to rangelands. The Initiative aims to identify and communicate good practice on making rangelands secure for local rangeland users. This is becoming increasingly challenging as different actors compete for land and resources, and new pressures grow. The Initiative is working with national and local governments, development agencies, NGOs, and CSOs, together with local communities to share experiences, processes, approaches, and activities between East Africa, the Horn of Africa, and beyond. Innovative tools and processes are used for sharing information and experiences, including a Learning Route through Kenya and Tanzania hosted by local communities and organisations.

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Fiona Flintan for the International Land Coalition

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REGLAP/DLCI

The Regional Learning and Advocacy Programme (REGLAP) for Vulnerable Dryland

Communities is a consortium that promotes lesson learning and good practice documentation on strengthening dryland resilience in Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda and advocates to governments, NGOs, and other stakeholders for improved policy and practice. The REGLAP programme has been operating since June 2008 and is funded by ECHO. It is now in its fourth phase, which will operate from January 2012 to December 2013. Regional Learning Groups focus on key issues for disaster risk reduction (DRR) in the drylands to develop good practice models and guidance and to strengthen the evidence base for the promotion of dryland resilience. These are: 1. Community-managed approaches to DRR: CMDRR, cross-border approaches, conflict-sensitive programming, participatory rangeland management (PRM); 2. Water development for DRR: developing and promoting good practice models for integrated water planning; 3. Strengthening the evidence base for DRR advocacy: analysing available research, promoting/filling research gaps to obtain clearer and shared understanding of resilience in the drylands, promoting joint messaging. Country Advocacy Groups advocate on the key constraints to resilience building for the drylands to governments and other key actors.

In 2014, following a strategic review and planning exercise REGLAP changed its name to the Dryland Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI) and became an independent resource and facilitation organisation registered in Kenya.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ASAL	Arid and semi-arid land
AU	African Union
AWF	African Wildlife Foundation
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CAAC	Catchment Area Advisory Committee
CAP	Community action plan
CC	County Council
CCA	Climate change adaptation
CLA	Communal Land Association
CMDRR	Community-managed disaster risk reduction
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CSO	Civil society organisation
DRM	Disaster risk management
DRRAP	Drought Risk Reduction Action Plan
DRR	Disaster risk reduction
EAC	East Africa Community
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECHO	European Commission Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection Department
ENNDA	Ewaso Ng'iro North River Basin Development Authority
ENSDA	Ewaso Ng'iro South River Basin Development Authority
ESIF	Ethiopia Strategic Investment Framework
ETB	Ethiopian Birr (USD 1: ETB 18.17)
FAO	UN Food and Agriculture Organization
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GIZ	Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
GOE	Government of Ethiopia
GOK	Government of Kenya
GOU	Government of Uganda
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
IDA	International Development Association
IDDRSI	IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
IRDP	Integrated Regional Development Plan
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature

IWRM	Integrated water resource management
KfW	Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau
KIMREC	Kitengela Maa Resource Centre
KPF	Kajiado Pastoralists Forum
KShs	Kenya Shillings (USD 1: KShs 85.94)
LAPSSET	Lamu Port and Lamu Southern Sudan–Ethiopia Transport Corridor
LUMP	Land Use Master Plan
LUP	Land use plan
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
MAAIF	Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDNKOAL	Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
MOFA	Ministry of Federal Affairs
MORDA	Ministry of Regional Development Authorities
MTAP	Medium Term ASAL Programme
NAADS	National Agricultural Advisory Services
NARO	National Agricultural Research Organisation
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NEPAD	New Economic Partnership for African Development
NRM	Natural resource management
NRMS	Natural Resource Management Sector
OWWDSE	Oromia Water Works Design and Supervision Enterprise
PFM	Participatory forest management
PLA	Participatory learning and action
PNRM	Participatory natural resource management
PPD	Physical Planning Department
PRM	Participatory rangeland management
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RBDA	River Basin Development Authority
RPDP	Regional Physical Development Plan
SLM	Sustainable land management
TARDA	Tana and Athi River Basin Development Authority
TWG	Technical Working Group
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCRD	UN Centre for Regional Development
UShs	Uganda Shillings (USD 1: UShs 2,633)
WRMA	Water Resource Management Authority
WRUA	Water Resource Users Association
WSTF	Water Service Trust Fund

Glossary of key terms

Development means growth, evolution, and progress. In a local context its meaning includes the process of improving the quality of life of the community, enhancing opportunities, and maximising choices.

Drylands are areas with low rates of precipitation and high rates of evapotranspiration and which therefore experience water stress on a seasonal or constant basis. Drylands include true deserts as well as semi-arid regions, and occupy roughly 25–32% of the terrestrial area of the planet. Drylands are social, political, economic, cultural, and ecological systems.

Land grabbing consists of “acquisitions or concessions that are one or more of the following: (i) in violation of human rights, particularly the equal rights of women; (ii) not based on free, prior and informed consent of the affected land-users; (iii) not based on a thorough assessment, or are in disregard of social, economic and environmental impacts, including the way they are gendered; (iv) not based on transparent contracts that specify clear and binding commitments about activities, employment and benefits sharing, and; (v) not based on effective democratic planning, independent oversight and meaningful participation”. *Source: International Land Coalition, Tirana Declaration, 2011. <http://www.landcoalition.org/about-us/aom2011/tirana-declaration>*

Integrated means to combine parts as a whole; to consider the aspects of an issue at the same time; to look at all the circumstances that might affect a project or plan in a holistic manner; and coordination of all stakeholders, sectors, and actors.

Integrated land use planning is the integration of different perspectives, needs, and restrictions in land use planning. The integration can be vertical, i.e. national, regional, and local levels, and also horizontal within government organs.

Land use planning is “the systematic assessment of land and water potential, alternatives for land use and economic and social conditions in order to select and adopt the best land use options. Its purpose is to select and put into practice those land uses that will best meet the needs of the people while safeguarding resources for the future” (FAO 2003).

Participatory land use planning is an iterative process based on dialogue amongst all stakeholders. The objective of participatory land use planning is to achieve sustainable land use, i.e. a type of land use which is socially just and desirable, economically viable, environmentally sound, and culturally and technically compatible. It sets in motion social processes of decision-making and consensus building concerning the use and protection of private, communal, or public land (GTZ 1999).

Planning means arranging things or projects in a structured manner with a particular outcome or vision in mind. Planning documents should indicate the way to proceed to achieve that end. Planning is a tool used by institutions to bring about change in an orderly and manageable way.

Zoning involves land use restrictions enacted via an ordinance to create districts or zones that establish permitted and special land uses within those zones. Land uses in each district are commonly regulated according to such characteristics as type of use (such as residential, commercial, and industrial), density, structure height, lot size, and structure placement, among others. Land use regulations specify for each class of zone which activities are 1) permitted, 2) prohibited, or 3) permitted conditionally if a special permit is obtained. One aspect of the theory behind zoning is that by locating similar land uses together, negative externalities can be limited.



Executive Summary

Ill advised, uncoordinated, and badly planned interventions have been blamed for continuing poverty and food insecurity in rangelands. Water interventions in particular have had negative impacts. Not only have these interventions failed to improve the livelihoods of people living there, but in many cases they have served to undermine them and the environment on which they depend. Rangeland development interventions have been sectoral in their approach. Development planners have been locked into manipulating one or two key components of rangelands, such as water, without properly taking into account the interconnections between water and grasslands, as well as the wider context in which communities live.

Planning for development in rangelands, including land use planning, holds particular challenges and can impose unusual constraints on routine activities. Rangeland planners must address a number of challenges: the sheer size of administrative units with sparsely distributed populations and variable, patchy resources; the independent nature of pastoral and hunter-gatherer cultures; high levels of environmental variability; and the complexities of managing semi-natural ecosystems. Planners must also confront the additional challenge of managing the interface between high- and low-potential areas that are functionally interdependent. On a temporal basis too, the seasonal and flexible dynamics of pastoral systems rarely fit with the more constrained and rigid administrative, government yearly cycles of planning or finances.

Group rights (ownership, access, and use) of resources provide particular challenges for land use planners. Further, there have been significant changes in society that have redefined the way in which individuals interact with each other and with communities, with significant implications for the place of traditional norms and institutions in controlling access to and use of natural resources.

In response to these issues and challenges, this paper draws together and reviews current and recent experience in planning processes in the rangelands of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda. Key lessons are drawn out from two types of intervention – those led by government and those led by NGOs. These form the basis of a set of recommendations for different actors.

Experiences shared and lessons learned

In recent years, there has been a great improvement in the policy and legislative environment of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda, supporting more integrated planning in rangelands. The shift from a centralised approach to a decentralised and devolved policy and legislative environment has opened up opportunities for multi-sector, multi-stakeholder, integrated planning with the participation of land users. However, there is a lack of real commitment to devolve power, including decision-making power, from central to lower government bodies as well as to community organisations. There is also a lack of financial resources and of skilled and knowledgeable personnel who understand how rangelands and the livelihoods that depend upon them function and can grow. Decision-making processes favour sedentary populations over more mobile ones.

Other policies and legislation offer mixed support for rangelands and their communities. In practice many policies and pieces of legislation fall far short of fully supporting rangelands, the production systems that work there, and the communities that depend upon them. Policies give mixed and conflicting messages. A key factor in the increased vulnerability of communities living in rangelands is their lack of secure tenure and control over land use changes taking place. Pastoralism as a land use system is given little legitimacy in decision-making processes, hence pastoralists still tend to be excluded from decision-making over use of land and the implementation of these decisions.

Government departments, aid agencies, and organisations often focus on a particular sector, with patchy and inconsistent integration and coordination. Interventions tend to take place within the boundaries of small government administrative units, which in fact cover only a minor part of the greater rangeland. Government and donors still tend to operate with a supply focus rather than according to community needs – i.e. demand. Government capacities are often limited by a lack of resources and skills.

None of the three countries examined in this review has a full country-wide land use plan. Some land use planning is being carried out in certain areas, but in most cases decisions about land use and development are made and carried out in a piecemeal fashion. This occurs without assessment of the appropriateness of the intervention in relation to the environment and resource distribution of the area. Similarities between some recent rangeland development projects and failed projects of the 1970s are of concern. A major constraint for planning is a lack of information and poorly developed information sharing systems. Communities in particular do not have access to information related to land use change and development planning. There has been inadequate monitoring and evaluation (and in particular independent evaluations) of interventions and insufficient follow-up to training.

The piloting of new processes, mechanisms, and activities by an NGO or development agency can reduce risks for the land user. Case studies described here have introduced new ideas, processes, and approaches. Those that have been embedded in or worked closely with government have greater opportunities for scaling up good practice than those that have not. Collaboration with research institutions and well networked development agencies can also be important in this regard.

Good policies can only create the environment for community empowerment and ownership – they cannot guarantee it. Though the importance of community participation is recognised and positive steps have been taken to mainstream participatory approaches, full inclusion is often not achieved. Fair, prior and informed consent is often missing from government decisions for large infrastructure projects. Pastoralists in particular feel that their views and needs are not incorporated into planning processes. Good facilitators are hard to come by and it is difficult to engage and retain trainers. Dependency of communities has been created by too much reliance on external technology. Regular dialogue and consensus building is vital for community mobilisation. For an action of the magnitude that many planning processes are to succeed, the issue in question must be salient, credible, and legitimate in the eyes of community members .

Where community participation is a priority, women have taken an active role in the land use and development planning processes described in this paper. However, the more complex gender issues (the balance of power, access to information and education, and control of resources) tend to be sidelined or added on as an afterthought. Women need an incentive in order to be willing to actively participate in meetings or activities – and often this is missing.

Changes in society such as more educated youth, exposure to different lifestyles, and more individualised values have redefined the way in which people interact with each other and with communities, with significant implications for the place of traditional norms and institutions in controlling access to and use of natural resources. Increasingly, customary institutions are left with little power, while those that have power have no presence on the ground. Attempts have been made to fill this governance and management vacuum, with varying degrees of success. Hybrid governance structures incorporating both government and community institutions may be appropriate but require significant support, including capacity building.

Planning at a large scale is challenging. Programmes such as river basin development have often been over-ambitious and inflexible and have tried to adopt a blueprint approach, resulting in limited success. Interventions that provide opportunities for reflection, feedback, and adaptations are better positioned to cope with new challenges and problems (identified and solved in a participatory manner), and therefore are more likely to be sustainable in the long term. Planning is not an event but a process to be invested in.

Opportunities for better development planning in rangelands

The majority of rangelands have a major comparative advantage over other land types in terms of land use systems, including livestock, tourism, and renewable energy. They are strategically located as the bridgehead to new markets beyond country borders. Increasingly, large infrastructural investments are being established in these areas, including the Lamu Port and Lamu Southern Sudan–Ethiopia Transport Corridor (LAPSSET) and related developments. However, if the opportunities created by these investments are to be fully realised, their planning needs to fully account for and incorporate linkages to and likely impacts on the wider drylands area and the communities living there.

From central government to local, there are new opportunities for more integrated planning and implementation that respond to the unique constraints and attributes of rangelands and particularly mobile pastoralism, and that can be sustained in the longer term. New bodies focused on drylands and arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL), along with knowledge sharing and discussion platforms, provide opportunities for more appropriate support for livestock production systems.

As a result of stronger devolution processes, mid-level layers of government will find it difficult to avoid land use planning and/or ignore existing land use plans in the future. Land security is an important aspect supporting investments in land and related decision-making processes. Across Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia, opportunities exist for strengthening land tenure in rangelands, and resources and support are available for this. All three countries have recognised the need for a country-wide land use plan and are taking steps to produce plans at national and other levels. This requires significant support from development actors.

Aid activities and support in drylands are moving from majority humanitarian- or food security-focused responses to ones based on longer-term development. The new (for many) focus on “resilience building” provides a rationale and opportunity for supporting and incorporating systems-based and non-linear approaches to development that are better suited to rangelands than simple, linear, cause-and-effect approaches. The focus on “resilience” has provided opportunities for natural science to be brought back into the development narrative. The commitment of all three countries to the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) process, which has resilience building at its core, and the production of country programme papers to end drought emergencies are reflections of this.

New approaches to planning and in particular those that work with both government and communities to plan beyond small administrative boundaries, such as river basin planning, watershed management, ecosystem management, and participatory rangeland management (PRM), are providing increasing evidence that planning at scale has benefits. However, planning at scale should not result in a disconnect between decision-makers and land users – the two need to work together for positive results.

Both governments and NGOs are seeking to build capacity for planning at different levels. There are increasing opportunities for investments from the private sector (e.g. commercial investors, water service delivery companies) or through carbon offsetting, and from donors (including the Global Alliance supporting the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)’s IDDRSI process). Rewards (financial or non-financial) for environmental services and for voluntary and regulatory arrangements are also a relatively new source of funding, while also supporting a change in behaviour towards sustainable and adapted management of these ecosystems. The development of contingency funds for drought (and, for example, crisis modifiers) provides an opportunity for readily available funds that can be mobilised for effective quick response to crises such as droughts. This is a good example of how funds can be devolved to local authorities to better respond to local situations and needs.

NGOs today are better placed and committed to planning and working together than they have been in the past. Some donors have encouraged this through calls for collaborative projects. However, beyond these projects much can be done to improve joint planning, sharing of and more efficient use of resources, and harmonisation of approaches. Experience in the region has shown the value of conservation and research organisations, working with development organisations. With more decision-making power at lower levels, there should be greater opportunity for coordination – however, where it is necessary to work across lower-level administrative boundaries, coordination bodies will be required to manage this.

In rangelands there is a much stronger case for governance structures to cut across administrative boundaries in order to reflect the reality of resource use and mobility. In this case a “nested” governance structure can hold more relevance with governing institutions in place and functioning for each different layer or unit of resource use (as the structure decreases in size of numbers of uses and area, from a landscape or rangeland to a well or tree). In a well functioning rangeland society there will be structures set up to govern these different resource units, and it is these units and their structures that traditionally form the basis of rangelands planning. As such, they should also form the basis of more formalised planning processes.

Why integrated planning in rangelands?

For sustainable development

Global commitment to integrated development planning and decision-making was reconfirmed at the Rio+20 Summit in June 2012 and as part of the document “The Future We Want”.¹ This affirmed the belief that sustainable development can only be achieved through the integration of economic, social, and ecological systems as interdependent but open entities that continuously interact and influence one other. In the quest to achieve national development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), there is increasing recognition that this can happen only when the goals are translated into actions at the sub-national level and through the active participation of local actors.

This in turn has brought about renewed attention to planning for local development. With sustainable development in mind, planning methodologies have been adopted as the means through which states should intervene to address imbalances of power and market failure in order to ensure democratic, well informed, and rational decision-making in the pursuit of economic, social, and ecological goals. The participation of local populations has been increasingly promoted, and to some extent this has been reflected in national development planning processes. The development of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) is an example where community consultations (albeit limited) have taken place at the beginning of the process.

With specific attention to drylands, the UN Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) emphasises the importance of participatory integrated development plans and the integration of strategies for poverty eradication into efforts to combat desertification and the effects of drought.² Here the balance between conservation and management of natural resources and the promotion of economic and social stability of local (indigenous and other) peoples is promoted. This parallels the growing scholarly literature emphasising the interconnectedness of environmental sustainability and socio-economic equity and justice (Orenstein et al. 2011). All of these developments have provided an increasing number of reasons for getting planning in drylands (in particular) right.

Poor planning in the past

Ill advised, uncoordinated, and badly planned interventions have contributed to the continuing poverty and food insecurity in dryland areas and, more specifically, in rangelands. Water interventions in particular have had negative impacts. The prolific development of

1 <http://www.uncsd2012.org/futurewewant.html>

2 <http://www.unccd.int/en/about-the-convention/Pages/Text-Annex-I.aspx> - art6

water points (e.g. in northern Kenya or eastern Ethiopia) by NGOs, development agencies, and governments has contributed to sedentarisation and privatisation of resources, resulting in conflicts between land users, environmental degradation, and increased vulnerability and poverty for many (Gomes 2006). In Wajir district in Kenya, for example, in the 1940s there were four major dry season water points managed communally; today there are over 75 – many managed by non-customary groups who charge for use. Somali pastoralists claim they have lost 75% of the most palatable pastures as a result of the proliferation of mechanised boreholes. Similar experiences are found in parts of Uganda (Powell 2010). Not only have these interventions failed to improve the livelihoods of people living there, but in many cases they have served to destroy them and the environment on which they depend.

Rangeland development interventions have been sectoral in their approach. For example, the large rangeland development schemes established in Ethiopia³ in the 1970s failed to meet their objectives because “planning” was undertaken with a lack of understanding of the pastoral production system, and imposed technology-based solutions. There was a failure to incorporate indigenous knowledge, practices, goals, and strategies of pastoral communities, who were not included in the planning process (Zerfu et al. 2010; Homan et al. 2004).

Development planners have been locked into manipulating one or two key factors without properly taking into account the interconnections between the different components of rangelands and the wider context in which rangeland communities live. Planning has taken place within the boundaries of small government administrative units, which in fact cover only a minor part of the greater rangeland. Across the majority of rangelands, government and donors still operate with a supply focus rather than according to the needs of communities – i.e. demand. Interventionist strategies (e.g. rigid stocking quotas) have consistently failed to deliver improvements to the environmental condition and the livelihoods of the people who depend on it (Laris 2002). Government and local elites can appropriate and influence these processes for their own ends (Gomes 2006).

Challenges of planning in rangelands

Planning for development in rangelands, including land use planning, holds some particular challenges and can impose unusual constraints on routine administrative activities. The overall per hectare productivity of East African arid and semi-arid (ASAL) rangelands is generally low, so the cost of their management must be as well. Despite a modest revenue base, rangeland administration must address a number of other challenges – the sheer size of administrative units, with sparsely distributed populations and variable, patchy resources; the independent nature of pastoral and hunter-gatherer cultures; the high levels of environmental variability; and the complexities of managing semi-natural ecosystems. Planners must also confront the additional challenge of managing the interface between high- and low-potential areas that are functionally interdependent. Across East Africa,

3 These areas covered 311,170 sq km in total, including the Allidoghe Development Unit (170 sq km), the North-Eastern Rangeland Development Unit (NERDU) (75,000 sq km), the Jijiga Rangeland Development Unit (JIRDU) (33,000 sq km), and the Southern Rangeland Development Unit (SORDU) (95,000 sq km).

the loss of pastoral access and the alienation of this land to other uses is a widespread occurrence. More and more, these landscapes are becoming fragmented, dissected into a patchwork of agricultural and pastoral land uses (Flintan 2011). The economic performance of pastoralism, its capacity to support human populations and to ride out droughts, depends on continued access to key assets, especially river valley lands (Galvin et al. 2008).

On a temporal basis too, the seasonal and/or flexible dynamics of pastoral systems rarely fit with the more constrained and rigid administrative, government yearly cycles of planning, finances, and so on. System component interactions contribute to a dryland system that is difficult to predict and inappropriate to generalise about. Dryland farming is a highly risky enterprise. Pastoralism is a land use system more suited to drylands: it considers ecological, social, and economic systems, and is practised in an integrative way (Flintan et al. 2013).

Group rights (ownership, access, and/or use) of resources provide particular challenges for development planners. As a result, governments try to individualise these rights or ignore them (hoping that if they do this for long enough they will break down and disappear). Trends show that, in many communities, what were previously group rights are breaking down and becoming more individualised. Further, there have been significant changes in society that redefine the way in which individuals interact with one other and with communities, with significant implications for the place of traditional norms and institutions in controlling access to and use of natural resources. Where land and resource tenure is unclear, poor land use has increased (Gomes 2006).

Migration into drylands by non-locals, as well as out-migration by youth in particular, are also becoming more common. The introduction of modern or statutory frameworks for governance at local levels has further undermined the effectiveness of traditional institutions. This has created a situation where traditional institutions still exist on the ground but have little power, while those institutions that have power have no presence on the ground. It is this reality that creates the open access problem with regards to natural resources, which are then exploited without any regulation, leading to degradation and decline (Odhiambo 2012).

About this paper

In response to these issues and challenges, this paper draws together and reviews current and recent experience in planning processes in the rangelands of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda. Some “good practice” examples are provided – these focus firstly on government-led processes (Section 2) and secondly on NGO-led processes (Section 3). Key lessons from these examples are drawn out, including strengths and weaknesses, in Section 4. Opportunities and principles for future interventions and support are highlighted and provide the basis for a set of recommendations.

This document is a shorter version of Plotting Progress: Development Planning in the Drylands of Kenya, Ethiopia and Uganda (Flintan 2013). Available at: http://www.disasterriskreduction.net/fileadmin/user_upload/drought/docs/Plotting%20progress_Flintan_2013_FINAL.pdf



Experiences shared and lessons learned: government-led Initiatives

Policies, legislation, and strategies

The policy and legislative environments of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda supporting more integrated planning in drylands, and more specifically rangelands, have improved greatly in recent years. The shift from a centralised approach to a decentralised and then a devolved policy and legislative environment has opened up opportunities for multi-sector, multi-stakeholder, integrated planning with the participation of land users. In Ethiopia, the *woreda* (district) is seen to be the centre of socio-economic development, providing opportunities to tackle poverty at the grassroots level. As a result of the 2010 Constitution in Kenya, local governance systems are being realigned, empowering county-level elected government to define and implement local development priorities. In Uganda, the responsibility for local planning, budgeting, and implementation lies primarily with the district/municipality and sub-county/town council level of government.

However, despite these structures, there is a lack of real commitment to devolve power, including decision-making power, from central to regional and lower-level government bodies, as well as a lack of financial resources and of skilled and knowledgeable personnel who understand how drylands and the livelihoods that depend upon them function and can grow. There is also the danger that more powerful individuals at the local level will take up new opportunities for participation in decision-making processes, while those who have less power or accessibility to decision-making bodies will miss out. In rangelands this situation favours sedentary populations over more mobile ones.

Other policies and legislation offer mixed support for drylands and their communities. Though the principles for integrated planning are supported – participation of communities (land users) and other stakeholders, rights to information and knowledge, rights not to be removed from one's land without compensation, equitable development – their implementation falls far short of supporting drylands, the production systems that work there, and the communities that depend upon them. Policies also give mixed and conflicting messages.

Though good sector-focused policies, legislation, and development strategies exist, such as for agriculture, few specifically tackle the needs and challenges of drylands. As a result, interventions are often inappropriate for the unpredictable, variable, and often harsh dryland environments and the populations whose livelihoods depend upon them. Interventions focus on one component of drylands at a time, such as water, and fail to incorporate or account for the inter-related nature of all components or to plan at a scale that reflects this

interconnectedness. Governments, aid agencies, and organisations are often sector-based, with patchy and inconsistent integration and coordination

The establishment of the Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands (MDNKOAL) in 2008 provided the opportunity for a geographically focused, multi-sectoral, and integrated approach to development in Kenya's ASALs. Following elections in March 2013, the structure of the government has changed and the MDNKOAL has been disbanded. However, in view of these likely changes, in 2010 the ASAL Secretariat was established by the Ministry as a permanent and specialised institution that will champion and coordinate development in the ASALs in the long term – as anticipated it will take on the majority of the MDNKOAL's roles and responsibilities.

In Ethiopia, the establishment of the Directorate for Equitable Development in Emerging Regions⁴ in the Ministry of Federal Affairs (MOFA) has been an example of the recognition by government that pastoral regions require a targeted and different approach from development in highland areas: it is also the federal organisation responsible for a large programme of resettlement of pastoralists. Earlier this year a State Minister of Livestock was appointed in the Ministry of Agriculture to lead livestock development in the country; this highlights the value assigned to livestock in Ethiopia's future economy by the national government.

In Uganda, a Rangeland Policy and a Pastoral Code have been in draft for several years – currently both are under review. Platforms such as the Karamoja National Working Group (KNWG), which sits in the Office of the Prime Minister, provide opportunities for coordination between different ministries, key development partners, the private sector, and CSOs.

Land and land use planning

Key factors in the increased vulnerability of communities living in rangelands are their lack of security of tenure and lack of control over land use changes that are taking place. There remains little recognition of the benefits and opportunities of pastoral-based livelihoods despite increasing evidence, and in particular in the face of climate change. Where land administration and land use laws exist, they have been crafted with mainly sedentary highland farming areas in mind; hence they have only limited applicability to pastoral areas, which are predominantly characterised by communal land tenure systems (group rights). The lack of legitimacy given to pastoralism as a land use system means that pastoralists tend to be excluded from the design and planning of land-related decisions, plans, and their implementation.

None of the three countries examined in this review has a full country-wide land use plan. The existing institutional framework and manpower at all government levels is not yet commensurate with the task of undertaking land use planning at this scale. Some land use planning is being carried out in certain areas (see for example *Box 1*), but in most cases decisions about land use and development are carried out in a piecemeal fashion focusing on relatively small units of land and resources. "Enclave development" occurs where high-productivity areas close to rivers are removed from the pastoral system by governments

4 Previously the Pastoral Areas Development Department.

and made available to investors⁵ (Behnke and Kerven 2013). This tends to occur without assessing the appropriateness of the intervention in relation to the environment and resource distribution of the area. Similarities between some recently developed rangeland development projects and failed rangeland development projects of the 1970s are of concern.

Box 1: Land use planning and water development in Borana zone, Oromia Region, Ethiopia

Based on the principle of a “Land Use Guided Development Corridor Approach for Sustainable Development” (see National Regional State of Oromia 2010), Oromia region is at the forefront of planning at a regional level.⁶ The Oromia Bureau of Land and Environment is preparing a regional master land use plan (at a scale of 1:50,000) which covers 45% of the region’s total area, with fieldwork carried out by the Oromia Water Works Design and Supervision Enterprise (OWWDSE), a public enterprise (ESCNCC 2011). Large parts of Borana zone are already covered by the plan: in order to generate information for this, a detailed land use planning (LUP) study commenced five years ago. There are three main sub-basins of Borana zone, which form the basis of the planning: the Rift Valley-Lakes, the Dawa, and Laga Sure–Laga Wata (the latter two areas containing significant numbers of pastoralists). Based on detailed studies of local ecology, hydrology, socio-economics, etc., land use suitability has been identified for livestock and agriculture. In Laga Sure–Laga Wata, for example, 85% of the basin has been identified as being suitable for livestock production (with some areas requiring rehabilitation of grasslands including bush clearing), and only 9% suitable for agriculture (see study report and Proposed Land Use Plan for the basin – OWWDSE 2010). Different stakeholders were consulted in the development of the land use plan; however, it is not clear who these were and how they were involved.

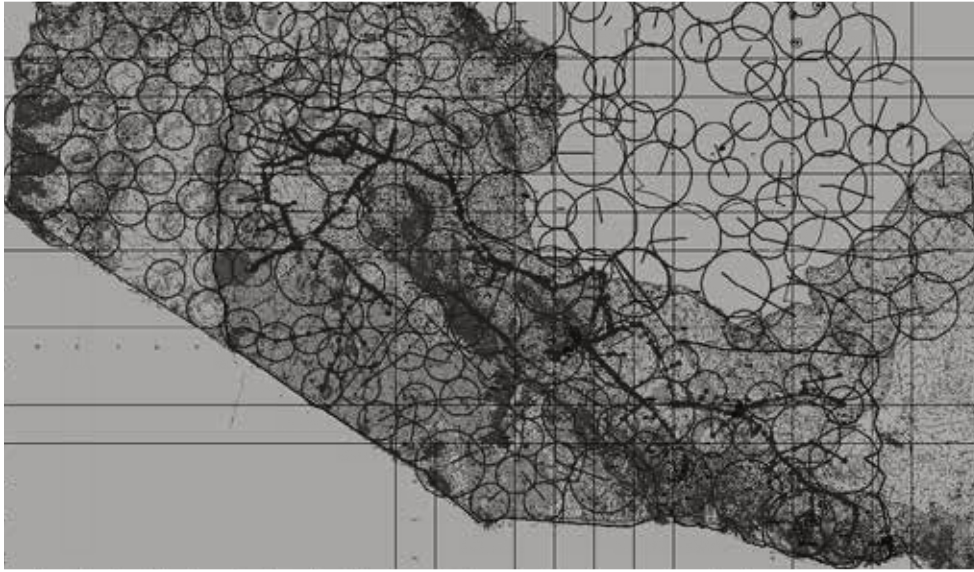
The plans are used as the basis for spatial/area “integrated land use planning projects”. In southern Oromia there are two such projects under way, in Borana and Genale Dawa. In Borana, a water supply project has been developed across the zone, which will provide water for both domestic and livestock uses. Based on MDG goals, water should be available within a 3km round trip in rural areas. Supply of water for livestock will be based on the calculation that cattle (with sheep) require 4 hectares (ha) of land and 15 litres of water per capita per day (l/c/d), and should not be more than 5km from a water point. Camels (with goats) require 6 ha of land and 20 l/c/d and should not be more than 7.5km from a water point. *Figure 1* shows the plans for the whole zone, including the supply network (circles depict the radius serviced by each well according to the above calculations). The initial design was for 2,000km of pipeline, but it is now anticipated that 3,727km of piping will be put down and

5 Such as the Awash River Basin, Afar region (with up to 172,448 ha already under development) and the Omo River Basin, SNNPR, both in Ethiopia. Large government schemes are also found in these areas, including the Fentale Irrigation Development project on the Awash, and the 245,000 ha South Omo sugar plantations, linked to the development of the Gibe III Dam. Some of these developments, and particularly those implemented by the State, do make some provisions for local communities, such as resettlement and outgrower schemes.

6 Other regions are in the early stages of developing land use plans. For example, in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region (SNNPR), Ethiopia, the Environmental Protection, Land Administration and Use Authority is preparing LUP manuals. However, because of finance and manpower shortages, little activity is taking place.

reservoirs and water points established. The pipeline is partially operational but is lacking proper arrangements for management (Alemayehu 2012). To date, 277km of pipe has been laid. Little if any community consultation was carried out in project planning. It is anticipated that NGOs will provide support for establishing community management structures and for network operation and maintenance (Mesele 2010). Based on the new supply network, rangeland development projects are being piloted – for example, the Dembel-Ayisha Dewelle water supply and rangeland development project for sheep farming (see *Figure 7*).

Figure 1: Planned distribution and coverage of water supply network in Borana zone, Ethiopia



River basin development

In Kenya and Ethiopia, river basins have become a unit for planning in both dryland and non-dryland areas. Kenya has undertaken major reforms in the water sector in order to improve water supply. The Water Act of 2002 provides a sound basis for reform through the establishment of new institutional structures that separate regulatory functions from service delivery ones, and allows for the participation of the public in water governance. The Water Act prescribes Catchment Management Strategies as the tool for the use and management of water resources, and requires that they should be developed for each of the major river basins in Kenya – with overall responsibility held by the Water Resource Management Authority (WRMA). Regional offices of the WRMA are being set up based on catchments – there is one in Nanyuki to serve the whole of northern Kenya. Implementation of integrated water resource management (IWRM) at catchment level is achieved through the establishment of Catchment Area Advisory Committees (CAACs). Sub-regional offices are being established to manage sub-catchments. At the grassroots level, stakeholders engage through Water Resource Users Associations (WRUAs), which also provide a forum for cooperative management of water resources and conflict resolution. This provides the opportunity for hydrological boundaries to be used as the boundary for decision-making, rather than administrative boundaries.



Reconciling different land uses such as agriculture and pastoralism is difficult and requires a multi-sectoral approach

Six River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) have been created under the Ministry of Regional Development Authorities (MORDA). These include the Tana and Athi River Basin Development Authority (TARDA) (which covers 138,000 sq km), the Ewaso Ng'iro North River Basin Development Authority⁷ (ENNDA) (209,576 sq km), and the Ewaso Ng'iro South River Basin Development Authority (ENSDA) (47,000 sq km), all of which include substantial areas of drylands.

In an attempt to improve regional development coordination, the six RBDAs have been shifted to various ministries depending on their major projects at the time; for example, at one time TARDA was under the Ministry of Energy while ENNDA and ENSDA were under the Ministry of Agriculture (and Rural Development). There has been a lack of coordination between the Ministry and the RBDAs and a lack of planners and development managers trained in requisite skills in regional policy analysis, regional planning methodology, and implementation and monitoring,

⁷ ENNDA, for example, encompasses 28 administrative districts: Moyale, Chalbi, Marsabit, Laisamis, Isiolo, Garbatulla, Wajir East, Wajir West, Wajir South, Wajir North, Garissa, Fafi, Ladgera, Mandera East, Mandera West, Mandera Central, Samburu East, Samburu Central, Samburu West, Laikipia East, Laikipia North, Laikipia West, Meru Central, Imenti North, Tigania, Igembe, Nyandarua North, and Nyeri North.

which has affected the preparation of regional plans.⁸ Limited resources and the absence of a policy framework have been further challenges (Orege undated). There are also other conflicting roles and responsibilities. The Physical Planning Department (PPD) of the Ministry of Lands is charged with responsibility for preparing Regional Physical Development Plans (RPDPs) under the Physical Planning Act (PPA) 1996. Under the Act, the PPD is legally bound to prepare an integrated regional development plan for areas such as Ewaso Ng'iro North River Basin, without collaboration or structured partnership with ENNDA. However, according to ENNDA Act Cap 448 (1989), ENNDA is responsible for planning and management in the Basin, to ensure proper utilisation of natural resource and environmental protection (ENNDA undated).

The mandate of the RBDAs⁹ is to formulate integrated multi-sectoral development within their areas of jurisdiction through implementation of integrated programmes and projects such as provision of hydropower, flood control, and water supply for irrigation, domestic, and industrial use, together with environmental conservation, as well as to contribute to the formulation and implementation of integrated regional plans and to MORDA's strategic plan. Neighbouring RBDAs are also expected to harmonise their plans and to produce them in consultation with other stakeholders. In addition, RBDAs are expected to collect, store, and share information, establish mechanisms for empowering local communities to participate in development activities, and share benefits equitably between them. For example, the strategic plan of ENSDA (2008–2012) includes, amongst other things, the Ewaso Ng'iro South Integrated Regional Development Plan (IRDP) project to guide and coordinate development interventions in the region; a community drought preparedness project; the establishment of the ENSDA Regional Data Centre; a conflict mitigation and management project for Mara community natural resources; institutional capacity development; regional coordination and monitoring and evaluation (M&E); and the Lower Ewaso Ng'iro South multi-purpose project "to transform the arid lands to vibrant economic use". It is anticipated that the money to fund these projects will come from the Government of Kenya (GOK) and donors (ENSDA 2008).

Programmes such as the Medium Term ASAL Programme (MTAP), developed by the MNKDOAL, seek to improve coordination and the participation of communities. WRUA development cycles will be adapted for ASAL areas and implemented in 18 sub-catchments in the six priority counties, leading to improved water delivery. The Water Service Trust Fund (WSTF) is a multi-donor basket fund for water catchment strategies (Halakhe 2012; MTAP 2012).

In Ethiopia, river basins as a unit of planning are supported by the Ethiopian Water Resources Management Proclamation No.197/2000 and regulation 115/2005, and by the River Basin Councils and Authorities Proclamation No. 534/2007. The Ministry of Water Works and Energy is commissioning the preparation of Master Plans for the 12 major river basins, most of which have now been completed. The River Basin Master Plans are supposed to be used by different

8 In order to help address this problem, the UN Centre for Regional Development (UNCRD) has supported human resource development and, for example, the formulation of ENNDA's Master Plan (Orege undated).

9 It is said that the RBDAs were modelled on success stories from other regional development initiatives worldwide that have made significant contributions toward the easing of social, economic, and political problems, such as the Tennessee River Basin Authority in the USA, the Lesotho Highland Water Project, and the Aswan Dam in Egypt (ENNDA undated).

federal and regional government ministries and agencies as a base on which to integrate their own strategic plans. However, some regional governments are carrying out their own plans. As detailed in *Box 1* Oromia government is in the process of preparing integrated land use plans for various site-specific purposes where the planning sites are within a river basin, as part of a region-wide land use plan but separately from the River Basin Master Plan. This magnifies the problem of coordination and cooperation among different government ministries and agencies (ECSNCC 2010).

The Fentale Irrigation Scheme was a pilot for the development of later schemes and programmes. It is now held up by the government as a flagship for good development. The scheme has led to the resettlement of 4,500 Kereyu pastoralist households (out of an anticipated 22,000), and will cost an estimated ETB 467 million. The Oromia Water Works Design and Supervision Enterprise (OWWSDE) was contracted to develop the scheme. Irrigated agriculture is being introduced across 16,000 ha of the 18,000 ha project area, though to date only 25% has been developed. A scoping mission to the area in January 2012 suggested that, although access to water has been improved, communities have received little training in crop production and fear that the 0.75 ha allocated to each household will not be enough for future use. Water users' associations have been established but are not strong and do not function properly; project staff are limited by lack of resources in terms of transport and skills; there is little feeling of "ownership" over the scheme and in some cases water pipes have been stolen; and there is a lack of potable water and health clinics for settlement areas. Uncontrolled use of irrigation is likely to result in problems of salinity in five years or so. Most households still keep livestock, but the promised grazing close to home has not materialised.

Figure 2: Settlement plans linked to Fentale Irrigation Project (source: Bantero 2012)



The federal government has allocated ETB 1.7 billion for similar water basin development-type programmes in Somali and Afar regions. The Ministry of Agriculture is now replicating the approach in these two regions through the Integrated Basin Development Programme, which views water as an entry point for development. The programme seeks to resolve poverty and build resilience by enabling pastoral communities to lead a settled way of life and by providing

supporting infrastructure, services, and social amenities. This is based on the improvement of rural water supply and the development of irrigation for agriculture, pasture, and fodder. The two regions are divided into development corridors or sub-catchments.

Information to support decision-making is collected through evaluation of groundwater potential and the region's land potential. A land use planning study will take place, together with an integrated approach that will increase focus on issues such as dealing with invasive species, natural resource management (NRM), improving livestock production, and marketing. The programme has already settled communities voluntarily on tens of thousands of hectares in riverine areas along the Wabi Shebele, Genale, Dawa, and Web Rivers. Regional coordination offices are being established to manage the projects on the ground. Capacity building of *woreda* and regional government staff on planning and matters such as drilling supervision, and awareness creation on the usefulness of integrated basin development, are being carried out (Bantero 2012).

Sustainable land management (SLM) in Uganda and Ethiopia

SLM is a priority for Uganda and the government with partners, is in the process of developing a country-wide programme. This will be aligned with the investment plans of the agriculture and environmental sectors. The process was initiated in 2006 with a national workshop on SLM in order to develop stronger partnerships, increase resource mobilisation, transfer appropriate technology, and promote inter-sectoral coordination, integrated approaches, and cost-effective strategies. The Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industries and Fisheries (MAAIF) has established an SLM Coordination Unit, a National Steering Committee and an SLM Technical Working Group (TWG) led by an NGO, Participatory Ecological Land Use Management (PELUM), to drive the process. Data is being collected on land degradation and related issues. This process is being supported by the regional initiative TerrAfrica, which aims to create an enabling environment for scaling up and mainstreaming SLM at the country level, in order to strengthen implementation of the UNCCD, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), and the New Economic Partnership for African Development (NEPAD)'s Environment Action Plan through coalition building, knowledge management, and investment (TerrAfrica 2011).

The programme has already carried out an SLM Public Expenditure Review, land studies in northern Uganda in order to inform the Peace and Recovery Development Plan, and an SLM stocktaking and analysis study, and has developed the SLM Strategic Investment Framework (2010–2020). The SLM-SIF highlights three of four land degradation hotspots identified in the pastoral areas, and in these areas the project will support activities for scaling up SLM, strengthen the enabling environment for it, and support research and knowledge management. It is anticipated that land use plans, participatory land use plans, and participatory watershed management plans will be produced as part of this initiative. Challenges include working across different sectors and resource mobilisation (TerrAfrica 2011).

Ongoing and pipeline projects include SLM activities supported by the National Agricultural Research Organisation (NARO), National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS), and the UNCCD Focal Point (World Bank and the Global Environmental Facility (GEF)); mainstreaming SLM activities in six cattle corridor districts of Uganda (UNDP/Norway); creating an enabling environment for SLM in cattle corridor districts (UNDP/GEF); the Transboundary Agri-Ecosystem

Management Programme for the Kagera River Basin (GEF/FAO); GEF/UNDP projects under STAR (Synergy SLM and climate change); and a regional project aimed at stimulating community initiatives in SLM (Government of Uganda, TerrAfrica 2011).

SLM is also a priority for Ethiopia, as most recently defined in the Ethiopia Strategic Investment Framework (ESIF) for Sustainable Land Management (2008). The ESIF-SLM sets key priorities for SLM-related investments, improving the policy, legal, institutional, and financial environments, and defines a strategy for scaling up SLM best practices and the approach and mechanisms for coordination, consultation, participation, and M&E. It aims to address the interlinked problems of poverty, vulnerability, and land degradation at the rural community level. The ESIF-SLM states (p.39) that “narrow sector based projects have limited success in addressing the multi-dimensional problem of land degradation. Hence the need is for a comprehensive and integrated approach involving public and private partnerships between different sectoral agencies and other stakeholders” (FDRE-MOA 2011). The ESIF-SLM is one of the first government initiatives in Ethiopia to recognise land degradation as “a multi-dimensional problem, which the piecemeal efforts of different agencies in the past failed to tackle” (ibid).

The SLM implementing committees are organised at federal, regional, woreda, and community levels. The total project cost of SLM, including contingencies, is USD 37.79 million, of which a loan from the International Development Association (IDA) accounts for USD 20 million, the GEF USD 9 million, and the Government of Ethiopia (GOE) USD 8.79 million. To avoid duplication and to promote synergies, an SLM platform has been established to coordinate all SLM investments in Ethiopia. This mechanism comprises a national inter-agency steering committee chaired by the State Minister of the MOA (the Natural Resource Management Sector, or NRMS); a national technical committee that comprises representatives of government, civil society, and development agencies; and an SLM Support Unit in the MOA to provide administrative and technical support to the steering committee and the technical committee. Similar SLM platforms are replicated at regional level. Following the successes of watershed planning and management to date (see Flintan 2013), the SLM Support Unit is leading the implementation of the approach across 35 watersheds in (though not exclusive to) highland areas.¹⁰ The selected watersheds are a sub-set of a much larger plan of the MOA to support SLM activities in 177 priority watersheds across the country. The project has significant capacity-building components for communities and local government (for more details, see FDRE-MOA 2011).

10 These watersheds, each with an average size of about 10,000 ha, comprise 15–20 sub-watersheds. The project is expected to cover a total area of about 605,271 ha, benefiting around 1 million people (with funding from the World Bank/GEF, Germany's Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (KfW), and the Finnish government).



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Experiences shared and lessons learned: NGO-supported initiatives

The piloting of new processes, mechanisms, and activities by an NGO or development agency can reduce risks for the land user. This is of particular value where the risk is large. Several of the case studies here have introduced new ideas, processes, and approaches – and those that have been embedded in and/or worked closely with government have been particularly successful in scaling up good practice. Collaboration with research institutions and well networked development agencies can be important in this regard. A major constraint for planning is a lack of information and poorly developed information sharing systems. Communities in particular do not have access to information related to land use change or development planning.

Here, two initiatives with potential for sustainable scaling-up are highlighted. Other examples are found in the larger document on which this issue paper is based (Flintan 2013).

Land Use Master Plan in Kitengela, Kenya

Since 1998 the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) has used conservation enterprises¹¹ as one among several strategic interventions for conserving wildlife to ensure that positive conservation and livelihood outcomes result at the landscape level. In general these activities take place on community land, where there is also a high conservation value. Commonly, land use plans have been developed to zone the community land into different areas of interest and use, and these have proved relatively successful in their implementation. However, in Kitengela, south of Nairobi, a much larger land use plan was produced in collaboration with the District Council, which has proved to be the first community-led land use plan approved by the GOK.

Kitengela's resources are under pressure from urban sprawl, increased sub-division of land holdings, fencing of open rangelands, and industrial development in the nearby Export Processing Zone. The Reto-o-Reto project undertaken by Kitengela Maa Resource Centre (KIMREC) and the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) has provided avenues to experiment and participate with local mapping techniques. Such an approach has also

11 Conservation enterprises are defined as commercial activities designed to create benefit flows that support a conservation objective. Key enterprises supported include tourism-based ones such as eco-lodges, campsites, cultural villages, and fishing villages and non-tourism-based ones such as harvesting and processing of natural resource products.

allowed for greater understanding of resource, zoning, and planning issues that affect Maasai pastoralists. Dialogue facilitated by this project led to agreement that a comprehensive and holistic LUP process that sought to protect and facilitate co-existence between the area's livestock and wildlife was required. This developed into a programme, headed by AWF and funded by USAID, to develop a Land Use Master Plan (LUMP) for the Kitengela (Kaputiei) area.

The process of producing the plan is described in detail in Fitzgerald and Nkedianye (forthcoming) but is summarised here. The County Council (CC) of Olkejuado tasked the Department of Physical Planning at Kajiado, as per Kenya's Physical Planning Act, to lead on the technical aspects of the plan. Actual mapping work and community mobilisation were done by ILRI through the Reto-o-Reto project (whose name in Maa means "I help you, you help me"). The project stalled in 2007 when a number of politicians used the plan for political gain by insinuating that it would result in the eviction of people from the dispersal area. In 2008, AWF brought in extra funding from USAID, and worked with ILRI to cautiously restart the process. It also worked with the Isinya Taskforce – now the Kajiado Pastoralists Forum (KPF) – which took the lead in initiating discussions with the Olkejuado CC. The KPF played a critical role in improving understanding of land issues amongst community members and gaining their support – indeed several of them became members of the KPF. Today the KPF has 35 members, including nine elected representatives from the three land-owning associations. Fourteen members are women. The presence of two consultants, who were Maasai residents of Kitengela with expertise in land issues and community organisation, was also critical to the success of the process.

In addition, the process had the support of a number of different individuals, organisations, and donors who were committed to seeing it through to the end. A Land Forum was established to coordinate this. The organisations involved provided different and complementary skills. These "outside" interest groups shared the vision of the local communities – halting fragmentation of land and a better securing of rights. Those organisations involved that were research-oriented, such as ILRI, saw the process as "a 'continual engagement model' creating 'research-action arenas' in order to better integrate knowledge from policy makers, communities and researchers ... [and] the creation of a core boundary-spanning team, including community facilitators, a policy facilitator, and trans-disciplinary researchers, responsible for linking with a wide range of actors from local to global scales. ... This model focused on the creation of hybrid scientific-local knowledge highly relevant to community and policy maker needs" (Reid et al. 2009).

The LUMP was prepared within the legal framework of the Physical Planning Act Cap. 286, which empowers local authorities to control, guide, and prohibit developments, while recognising individual stakeholders and community participation in spatial plan-making processes. The LUMP includes a zonation plan for the region. This limits sub-divisions in the various zones and outlines the permitted expansion zones for urban areas, to stop the increasing encroachment of human settlement on prime agricultural and pasture areas and reduces fragmentation risks. The LUMP designates areas for livestock and wildlife as well as for urban development, and includes restrictions on various land uses in each zone. It balances different land uses and demonstrates that wildlife, pastoralism, and development can co-exist by means of a coordinated plan.



Urban sprawl and the expanding industrial zone in the Kitengela area conflicts with livestock production in the area

Participation in this process gave pastoralists and other land users increased awareness on land matters and greater strength in and power over decision-making processes. Radio broadcasts in Maa were used to ensure that everyone, including community members who were illiterate, understood the planned LUMP and participated in discussions. By March 2010 an estimated 2,500 households had been reached through 13 radio programmes. AWF also provided capacity support to local landowner associations in land management, governance, and financial management.

After considerable pressure from the community and the KPF through lobbying, letter writing, and personal meetings, in June 2010 the Olkejuado CC adopted the LUMP. This made it the first community-initiated land use plan to be approved by the Kenyan government (the Ministry of Lands) and the first local land use plan for wildlife conservation areas in Kenya.

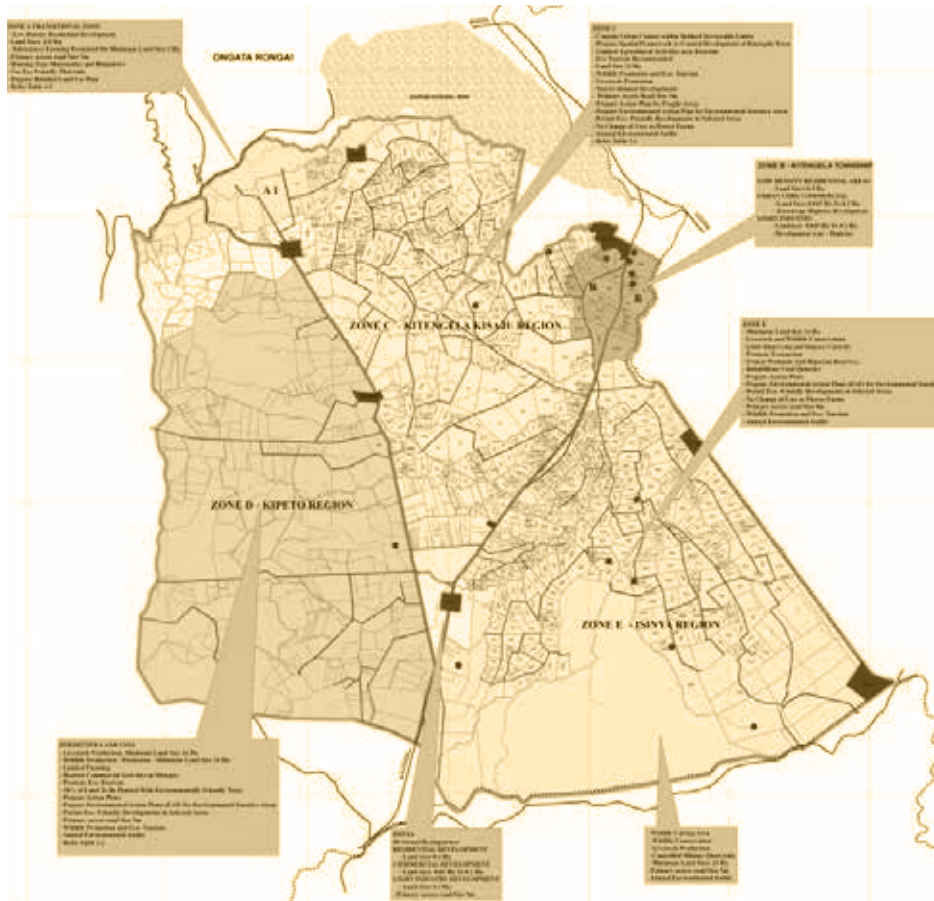
The implementation of the LUMP, as per Kenya's planning laws, needs to be led by the local authority, in this case the CC of Olkejuado. The council's lack of participation in the development and launch of the LUMP, however, suggests a lack of interest and ability to implement the plan. One of the key challenges is oversight over a broad geographical area. Sub-division and land sales are happening at a pace that is difficult for local authorities to keep track of. There are

also a number of parcels of land with “unknown” owners, making any regulation of land use extremely difficult. The land control boards play a critical role in supporting land use plans as these bodies review and approve sub-division. The Isinya Land Board has requested that the LUMP’s spatial maps be used for the approval or rejection of requested sub-divisions.

Planning needs to be built on trusted and broad community representation if it is to receive general acceptance. The employment of staff from the local area helped the process to succeed: they better understood and steered it through the asymmetries of power at the local level. The communities across the project area were engaged throughout the process. The varied layers of community groups, landowner associations, and the Land Forum present a workable model that will help other regions to ensure community awareness. Tools such as radio programmes are cost-effective ways of reaching the community (Fitzgerald and Nkedianye forthcoming).

The adoption of the LUMP (see *Figure 4*) comes at a time when Kenya is undergoing structural revisions because of a new Constitution and new policies. Though these revisions strengthen the rationale for and role of land use plans as part of the devolution process, it is not clear exactly how the new structures will influence implementation.¹²

Figure 4 Land Use Master Plan for Kitengela and surrounding areas



12 AWF and the Conservation Development Centre have developed a manual for Community Conservation Planning to assist them and others in such work (Henson and Malpas 2011).



Participatory rangeland management provides opportunities for rangeland users to be part of planning processes

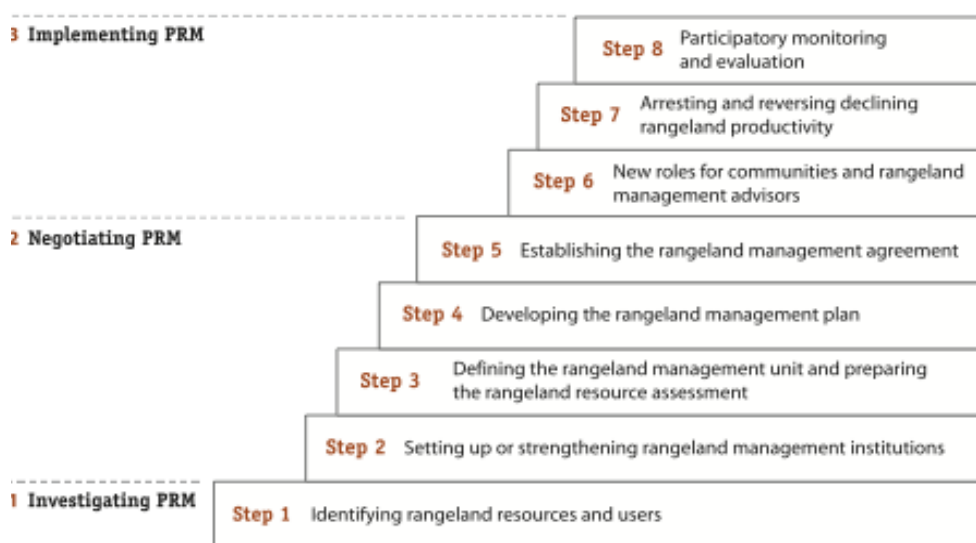
Participatory rangeland management in Ethiopia

Pastoral communities have weak security of access to resources and land in Ethiopia, with no formal land tenure system defined for the majority of pastoral areas (Afar region being the exception). In an effort to offer a model for better securing of rights to resources, Save the Children USA developed a participatory rangeland management (PRM) approach (Flintan and Cullis 2010) drawing from and building on the well accepted participatory forest management (PFM) approach now being mainstreamed throughout the country.

PRM is made up of three key stages (see *Figure 5*). An appropriate unit for rangeland management (such as a traditional grazing area) is defined with the community and other stakeholders. Rangeland resources are identified and an appropriate community association or institution is strengthened or set up. A rangeland management plan is developed based on an in-depth rangeland inventory and community action planning. Access to resources is made more secure through the drawing up of a legally binding rangeland management agreement between the community and local government, with rules and regulations (by-laws) defined, based on the rangeland management plan.

Currently PRM is being piloted in Bale zone, Oromia region by FARM Africa and SOS Sahel Ethiopia. The pilot kebele have been divided into blocks encompassing at least 80 households of between 6,000 ha and 22,000 ha per block depending on population density, the terrain and resources found there. These blocks form the starting point for data collection (rangeland inventory) and establishing management. The project aims to support the development of rangeland management agreements between communities and local government for management and use of the rangeland resources. It is anticipated that disaster risk management (DRM) and climate change adaptation (CCA) aspects will be incorporated into these agreements.

Figure 5: Stages and steps of PRM



Maintaining core components of the PRM framework, the participatory natural resource management (PNRM) approach varies slightly, activating an agency M&E system at the start of the process, and conducting a participatory learning and action (PLA)-based conflict analysis prior to actual planning. Under a new project, Save the Children USA (now part of the Save the Children Alliance) is piloting PNRM in Borana zone, Oromia (Nehrbrass et al. 2011). To date, there are three *dheeda*¹³ stakeholder action plans. However, neither of these approaches has yet produced a formal agreement to secure rights to resources between local rangeland users and local government, though it is hoped that at least one PNRM agreement will be achieved over the next few months.

These approaches provide opportunities for landscape users and other stakeholders to be fully engaged in the planning and implementation of processes and activities related to landscape access and management at the local level. Indigenous knowledge, experience, and institutions are starting points for cooperation and learning. PNRM uses this as the foundation for analysis, planning, and decision-making – it provides room for different stakeholders to come together, discuss, identify challenges and analyse their causes, produce a common vision for development, negotiate, and agree on short- and long-term plans and roles for

¹³ A *dheeda* is a traditional grazing area – often landscape-scale.

their implementation. It puts greater emphasis on community stakeholders to solve their problems and to implement solutions that work for them and the given context, without depending on external resources and “expertise”. It is an approach based on longer-term facilitation of change processes, rather than being a short-term, event-focused approach.

PRM provides an opportunity for planning and decision-making in a holistic and integrated manner, bringing different stakeholders together and providing space for a joint planning process. This occurs at a scale that is appropriate for local production and management systems. Development based on the sustainable use and management of resources has a greater chance of being successful in the long term. Implementation too demands an integrated approach that is led by local communities but involves other actors, including the private sector. The production of a management plan is not only a valuable process in its own right but also provides strategic direction for those involved.

The approach is both transformative and participatory: the processes and structures developed are as important as the tools used during these processes or the improved techniques applied and activities implemented during the realisation of action plans. The right approach may not be identified immediately and adaptation or realignment may be required as the process develops.

If the right structures, processes, and institutions are in place, then it is more likely that decisions made and solutions identified will be appropriate for a given context. This is likely to differ in situations where customary institutions are strong and in those where they are weak. Where customary institutions are weak, it may be necessary to support the development of new or adapted institutions that can develop the necessary skills and assume the appropriate authority to make required decisions. Where customary institutions exist, modern or statutory frameworks should not undermine their authority. Otherwise a situation will be created where customary authorities operate on the ground but have little or no power, while those institutions that have power have no presence or mandate on the ground.

Lessons learned and opportunities for a way forward

Synthesis of lessons learned

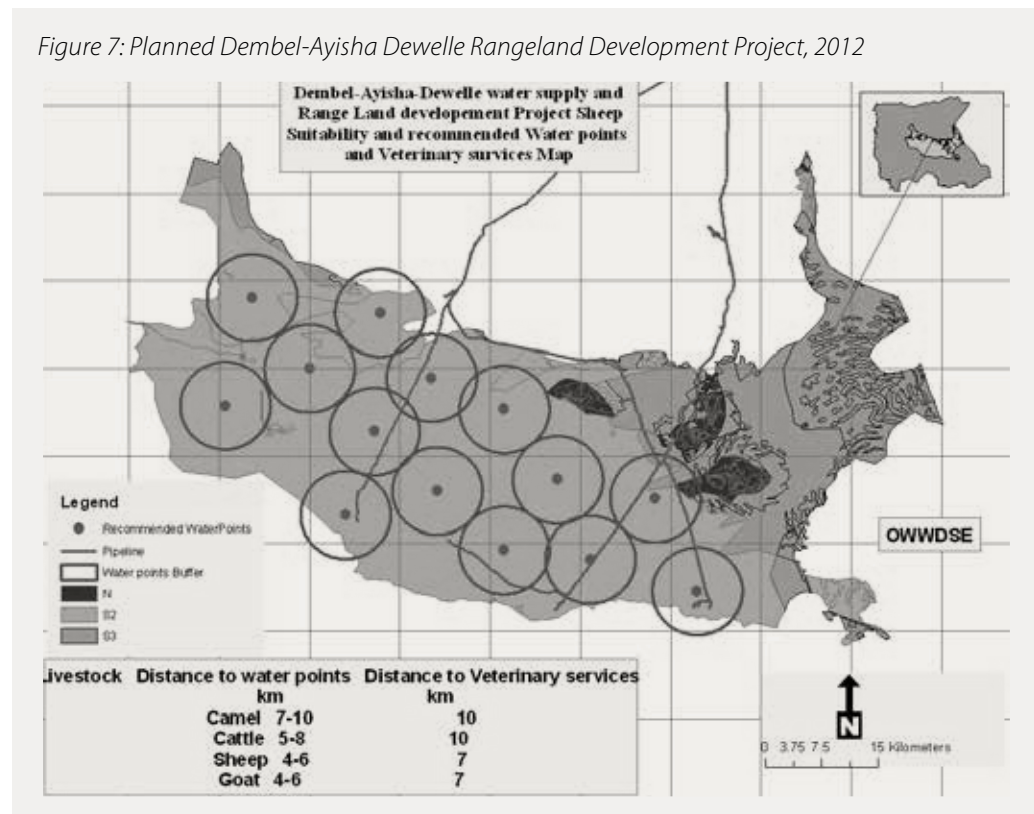
State authorities are best positioned for coordinating planning processes in rangelands. Those initiatives reviewed in this document that have worked closely with government and/or are well embedded in government structures at different levels have proved to be more sustainable than those that are not. Working with or through government strengthens the likelihood of processes and approaches being incorporated into future interventions. If a project or pilot works in an isolated manner its impact is likely to be less than if it works with partners who can take forward the lessons learned. Being part of an iterative learning process helps those involved to understand how processes evolve, how problems can be overcome, and how positive outcomes can be optimised.

Experience has shown that some preconditions are required in order to conduct participatory land use planning activities successfully in a country or region. These are:

- » Freedom of assembly, opinion, and expression;
- » Existing need and demand for land use planning;
- » Political will to define land uses in a transparent and participatory way;
- » Willingness of all stakeholders to discuss together the optimum sustainable use of land and other resources – including high-ranking politicians, public authorities, and private investors;
- » Legal security and rule of law to ensure that all parties stick to the land use plan;
- » Integration of land use planning into official institutions and structures, resulting in legally binding land use plans (Wehrman 2011).

In the three countries reviewed here, there is a significant way to go before these preconditions are fully realised. Land users are normally not included in land use planning decision-making processes. Not only is this a matter of poor representation processes; it is also because land users have little incentive to invest time and resources in such processes if they do not have secure access to the land. River basin and watershed planning are positive initiatives and go some way to addressing these gaps; however, firstly they may not take a systems approach to planning and, secondly, little thought has gone into adapting them appropriately to the specific characteristics of rangelands.

Many interventions remain focused on one particular component or resource in rangelands. Unless appropriate integrated and rangelands-specific planning takes place, the drive to focus on the development of rangelands with “water as an entry point” risks a return to the development interventions of the 1970s that have been criticised for failing to achieve their



The existing institutional framework and manpower at all levels of government are not yet commensurate with the task of undertaking comprehensive land use planning at the scale required. Improving organisational structure and status and building the professional capacity of national and regional land administration agencies in the fields of land use planning, registration, cadastral surveying, land law, communication, land valuation, and compensation are needed for efficient service delivery and successful application of planning and implementation in drylands.

Though the importance of community participation is recognised and positive steps have been taken to mainstream participatory approaches, full inclusion is often not achieved. There is still a disconnect between decisions made in government offices and community planning on the ground. Rarely is there free, prior and informed consent of rangeland users for large infrastructure projects, even though these may have a fundamental impact on their livelihoods. "Participation" of communities tends to be through consultation rather than as partners who should in fact be leading the process at the local level. Pastoralists in particular feel that their views and needs are not incorporated into development planning. Good facilitators are hard to come by and it is difficult to retain and engage trainers without good incentives. Dependency of communities has been created by too much reliance on external technology. Regular dialogue and consensus building are vital for community mobilisation. For an action to succeed of the magnitude that many planning processes are, the issue in question must be salient, credible, and legitimate in the eyes of community members.

Where community participation is a priority, women have taken an active role in the land use and development planning processes. However, the more complex addressing of gender issues (the balance of power, access to information and education, and control of resources) tends to be sidelined or added on as an afterthought. Women need to feel valued and to have an incentive in order to be willing to actively participate in meetings or activities.



Planning and development of livestock watering points in drylands needs to be carried out in an integrated and participatory manner

Changes in society such as more educated youth, exposure to different lifestyles, and more individualised values have redefined the way in which people interact with each other and with communities, with significant implications for the place of traditional norms and institutions in controlling access to and use of natural resources. Increasingly, customary institutions are left with little power, while those that have power have no presence on the ground. It is thus important to fill this governance and management vacuum in the most appropriate manner, and attempts have been made in the case studies here, with varying degrees of success. Hybrid governance structures incorporating both government and community institutions may be appropriate but these require significant support, including capacity building.

Integrated large-scale planning is challenging. Programmes such as river basin development have often been over-ambitious and inflexible and have tried to adopt a blueprint approach, resulting in limited success. Interventions that provide opportunities for reflection, feedback, and adaptation are better positioned to cope with new challenges and problems (identified and solved in a participatory manner), and therefore are more likely to be sustainable in the long term. Projects and programmes must be based on realistic goals that are attainable within their lifespans and with the resources available. Planning is not an event but a process to be invested in.

There has been inadequate M&E (and in particular independent evaluations) of interventions and insufficient follow-up to training. Where M&E has taken place, it has focused on tangible outputs rather than on important processes, such as who takes part, how and why they take part, or why something is working and another thing is not. There are weak linkages with informal and iterative learning processes. Participatory M&E systems may be supported but are lacking in design and implementation .

Opportunities for better development planning in rangelands

The majority of drylands can have a major comparative advantage over non-dryland areas in livestock, tourism, renewable energy, and other uses. They are strategically located as the bridgehead to new markets beyond country borders. Large infrastructure investments are being established, including the LAPSET corridor and related developments. However, if the opportunities created by these are to be realised, their planning needs to fully account for and incorporate their linkages to and likely impacts on the wider drylands area and the communities living there.

From central government to local, there are new opportunities for more integrated planning and implementation that respond to the unique constraints and attributes of drylands and more specifically rangelands, and that can be sustained in the longer term. New drylands and ASAL-focused bodies and platforms provide opportunities for better and more appropriate support for livestock production systems. Tenure security and its enforcement, DRR, and the building of resilience of drylands and dryland communities all need to be considered in efforts to improve planning in rangelands.

As a result of stronger devolution processes, mid-level layers of government will find it difficult to avoid land use planning and/or ignore existing land use plans. The success of good practice examples highlighted in this review opens the door for scaling up and replication. Tenure security for many inhabitants of rangelands is still a problem. This requires urgent attention, in particular in the face of the appropriation and in some cases “grabbing” of land, and increasing land use changes (both externally and internally driven). Across Kenya, Uganda, and Ethiopia opportunities exist for strengthening land tenure in rangelands, and resources and support are available for this. The lack of land use plans across the three countries has proved to be a debilitating factor for good integrated rangelands planning: all three countries have recognised this and have taken steps to produce plans at both national and other levels. This requires significant support from donors and NGOs.

In all three countries, aid activities and support in drylands are moving from a majority humanitarian or food security-focused response to responses based on longer-term development. The new (for many) focus on “resilience building” provides a rationale and opportunities for focusing on and incorporating systems-based and non-linear approaches to development that are better suited to drylands than simple, linear, cause-and-effect approaches. It also provides opportunities for natural science to be brought back into the development narrative. The commitment of all three countries to the IDDRSI process, which has resilience building at its core, and the production of country programme papers to end drought emergencies, are reflections of this. New approaches to planning and in particular

those that work with both government and communities to plan at scale, such as river basin planning, watershed management, ecosystem management, and PRM, are providing an increasing evidence base and proof that planning at scale is beneficial for both the environment and for societies. Where NGOs are trying to influence policy and legislative change, it is important to collaborate and provide a united front for advocacy and lobbying.

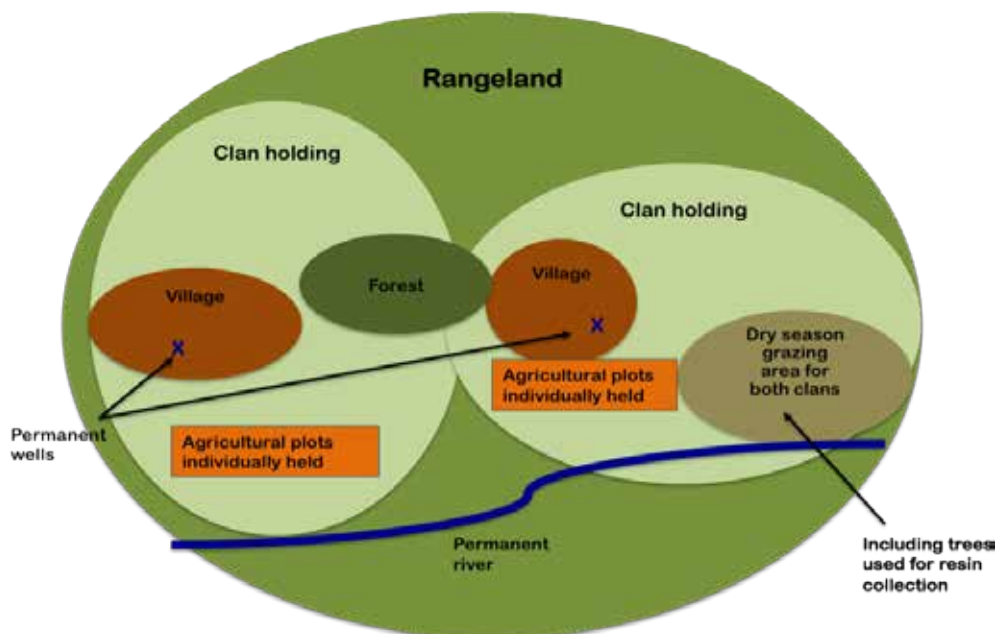
Both government and NGOs are seeking to build capacity at different levels. There are increasing opportunities for investments from the private sector (e.g. commercial investors, water service delivery companies) or through carbon offsetting, and from donors (including the Global Alliance supporting IGAD's DDRSI process). There are also a number of integrated pastoral-focused programmes that have been established in recent months. Rewards (financial or non-financial) for environmental services and for voluntary and regulatory arrangements are also a relatively new source of funding, while also supporting a change in behaviour towards sustainable and adapted management of these ecosystems. The development of contingency funds for drought (and, for example, crisis modifiers) provide opportunities for readily available funds that can be mobilised quickly in order to respond effectively to crises such as droughts. This is a good example of how funds can be devolved to local authorities to better respond to local situations and needs.

NGOs today are better placed and committed to working together than they have been in the past. Some donors have encouraged this, and such collaboration provides excellent opportunities for working and planning together. However, beyond these collaborative projects, NGOs still tend to work in "silos", and much can be done to improve joint planning, sharing of and more efficient use of resources, and "harmonisation" of approaches. Experience in the region has shown the value of conservation and research organisations working with development organisations. And with more decision-making power at lower levels, there should be more opportunity for coordination; however, where it is necessary to work across lower-level administrative boundaries, coordination bodies will be required to manage this (likely at higher levels). Over the past two decades, the number of regional and cross-continental bodies and initiatives has increased in order to provide a stronger, united, collaborative foundation for economic growth, pastoralism, NRM, and so on. These include the African Union, the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), and NEPAD, including the Land Policy Initiative and the Pastoralism Framework; the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); CAADP; the East Africa Community (EAC); and the Nile Basin Initiative. These bodies provide different integration and coordination roles. The IDDRSI also provides an opportunity for cross-regional development coordination and drought response.

Inclusion and participation are espoused across the constitutions, policies, and legislative framework in all the countries covered in this review. Communities are better placed to demand their role in decision-making and planning. However, in practice higher levels of participation of local rangeland users are still elusive. In general there is recognition of the value of indigenous knowledge and its incorporation into decision-making, and there is increasing evidence to support this. External actors such as NGOs can play a facilitating role in assisting communities to define their agendas, organise for advocacy, and engage with other stakeholders.

In rangelands there is a much stronger case for governance structures to cut across administrative boundaries in order to reflect the reality of resource use and mobility. In this case a “nested” governance structure can hold more relevance, with governing institutions in place and functioning for each different layer of resource use (as it decreases in terms of numbers of uses and area from a landscape or rangeland to a well or tree). In a well functioning rangeland society there will be structures set up to govern these different resource units. And it is these units and their structures that traditionally form the basis of rangelands planning. As such, they should also form the basis of more formalised rangeland planning processes, including those led by government (and NGOs). The timing of planning in rangeland communities may also be different from government (and NGO) planning cycles. This demands a much more flexible planning timeframe.

Figure 8: A “nested” governance system is required for different resource use or management units



In Kenya the collapse of traditional authority is the main motivation for the establishment of WRUAs and other organisations for the management of natural resources, which derive their authority and legitimacy from statutory instruments and depend for enforcement of their rules on the formal machinery of law and order. WRUAs are different from traditional institutions in that they are made up of men, women, and youth and no preference is given to elders. Leaders of WRUAs are instead young people who have education and capacity to engage with government and other modern frameworks. However, it is recognised that for positive societal transformation the inclusion of elders is still important, and in some cases efforts are being made to ensure that elders are part of the WRUA membership and leadership (Odhiambo 2012).

Conclusions

The sustained disruption of inter-related ecosystem and social processes in rangelands due to inappropriate development interventions and poor planning, together with protracted crises exacerbated by climate change and intermittent disasters, threatens the capacity of these systems to sustainably support food security and livelihoods in the future. There remains a bias in development policies and their implementation against rangelands, whose particular characteristics and requirements are not considered.

Where good policies, legislation, and development strategies exist for rangelands, their implementation can be poor, aggravated by the lack of resources and poor capacities of local-level government in particular to implement them. Capacity building is crucial to enable institutional bodies and individual actors to achieve competence in implementing new measures. Finally, it is vital that funding and budgetary allocations are brought into line with the contribution that arid and semi-arid lands make both to national economies and to global well-being, and that they are adequate to support the often lengthy, complex, and in-depth processes of planning in drylands that are required.

It is evident from this review that a number of initiatives are under way that have the potential to support the sustainable management of resources and improve the livelihoods of rangeland communities in the arid and semi-arid lands of the greater Horn of Africa. Though many of the initiatives are in their early stages, lessons have been learned that should form the basis for future development. A set of principles for rangelands planning is given in *Box 3*, and key recommendations are made below.

Box 3: Principles for good development planning in rangelands

Principles for good development planning in rangelands, based on the key components of those initiatives that have been shown to work:

- » Supportive and functioning policy/legislative environment – including decentralisation, devolution of decision-making and financial management, and multi-sector coordination.
- » Systems approach, including environmental and livelihood concerns, plus influence of “external” factors.
- » Embedded in government systems, structures, and policies.
- » People-centred, demand-driven, community-owned.
- » Inclusiveness (particularly including mobile pastoralists).
- » Governance clear (roles/responsibilities) and functioning (including conflict resolution): potentially a “nested” governance approach.
- » Capacity building a priority (including problem-solving, knowledge management/access, communication).
- » Transformative and iterative learning processes and innovation.
- » DRR and CCA mainstreamed.
- » Scalable and sustainable.

Recommendations for improving integrated rangelands planning in Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda

For governments

- » Establish, strengthen, and enforce policies, legislation, structures, and mechanisms for development planning in the rangelands that provide for a more devolved, integrated, participatory, flexible, and adaptive approach that better reflects realities on the ground. A “systems approach” to development planning is appropriate.
- » Establish, strengthen, and enforce policies and legislation that protect the rights of local rangeland users to their land and resources.
- » Invest in the building of capacity of local government authorities in order to better understand the characteristics and requirements of rangeland environments and communities, and to support their transformation into more sustainable and productive entities, as appropriate.
- » Ensure that coordination mechanisms and structures are functioning and well resourced, in order to support multi-sector integrated planning.
- » Develop comprehensive land use plans for the country, with input from rangeland communities. Land use plans should also be developed for regions, counties, or zones as appropriate.
- » Work with the commercial sector and facilitate its greater involvement in development planning processes, in order to more effectively develop the provision of services that are well managed by communities.

For donors

- » Fund development planning in the drylands and more specifically rangelands as a priority – at regional, national, or local levels. This can be government-, NGO-, or community-led. In all cases the involvement of government and community should be central, and linkages built up between the two. The capacities of both these actors (to lead and/or take part in planning processes) also need to be built up.
- » Provide longer-term and flexible funding that can better support the complex, multi-sectoral, multi-actor, often dynamic and protracted processes of planning in rangelands. Positive change can only be achieved if the appropriate finances are secured.
- » Fund the development of country-wide land use plans together with regional, county, or zonal plans as appropriate. This is likely to involve providing funds for the building up of the capacity of governmental experts to undertake land use planning and related activities.
- » Fund the piloting of different planning and management initiatives that contribute to the collection and sharing of good practice in order to influence better planning processes at government and community levels.
- » Fund the development of improved knowledge management systems that contain up-to-date and appropriate information for development planning in rangelands, which is accessible and updated on a regular basis.
- » Use funding to leverage coordination and collaboration between different groups of development actors in order to develop better development planning and implementation.

For NGOs and development agencies

- » Improve and develop processes and interventions that take a systems approach to development and environmental management, such as resilience-building.
- » Build the capacity of their own staff so that they better understand dryland/rangeland systems and are able to plan and develop appropriate activities that support them. Building skills such as conflict resolution, facilitating negotiation and consensus building, and participatory research and planning is also important.
- » Plan and implement programmes and activities at a scale appropriate for rangelands; this should follow the “nested” governance and management systems that exist in rangelands.
- » Pilot different planning and management initiatives that contribute to the collection and sharing of good practice in order to influence better planning processes at government and community levels. This should be done in conjunction with research-focused organisations and local government, and with independent evaluations carried out.
- » Assist governments in building the capacity of their staff in land administration, land use planning, integrated development planning (of which land use planning should be a part), institution building, and participatory approaches.
- » Improve collaboration and coordination of activities and information sharing with other NGOs, governments, and communities. Conservation organisations can provide expertise and experience in land use planning, and should be included in planning processes.

For research organisations

- » As a priority, work with other research organisations, governments, NGOs, and communities to develop appropriate and context-specific planning processes that support sustainable development in the drylands. This includes assisting them to better understand the particular characteristics and requirements of rangelands, and how best planning processes can reflect and account for these.
- » Improve collaboration and coordination of activities and information sharing with other research organisations, NGOs, governments, and communities through, for example, participating in platforms, technical working groups, and committees that are established for this purpose.
- » Pilot different planning and management initiatives that contribute to the collection and sharing of good practice in order to influence better planning processes at government and community levels. This should be done in conjunction with NGOs and local government.
- » Assist governments to develop improved knowledge management systems that contain up-to-date and appropriate information for development planning in rangelands, which is accessible and updated on a regular basis.

For community representatives and organisations

- » Work with other organisations to lobby and advocate for an improved policy and legislative environment for more sustainable and participatory development planning in rangelands. This includes better land policies and legislation that provide stronger security of rights to land and resources for rangeland users.

- » Encourage and assist communities to mobilise themselves in order to improve their planning processes, and to contribute to government-led ones. Communities' awareness of the benefits of doing so will need to be improved, and their skills and capacity to do so supported.
- » Assist communities to consider and agree their vision for the future, in order to be better prepared when opportunities arise to contribute to development planning processes.
- » Develop partnerships with other actors including government, NGOs (both development and conservation NGOs), and commercial companies. All can offer different resource, support, and capacity assistance – and taking a more strategic and planned approach to working with them can be advantageous.

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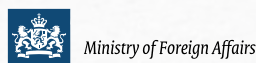
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Rangeland areas in the Horn of Africa and the pastoralist livelihood systems they support have long been neglected in development planning in favour of more sedentary populations. Past interventions have been badly planned, often focusing on water alone, and have contributed to continuing poverty and food insecurity. Planning for development in rangelands involves many challenges, including large, sparsely populated areas, the independent nature of pastoral cultures, environmental variability, and the complexities of managing semi-natural ecosystems. However, adopting an integrated joint planning process has the potential to meet the needs of all rangeland users. The process is best led by government, but should involve all actors, including communities, NGOs, and donors.

This paper reviews recent experience in planning processes in the rangelands of Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda. Key lessons are drawn from interventions led by both governments and NGOs, and these form the basis of a set of recommendations for different actors.