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# INTERNATIONAL FORUM FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA

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## FINAL REPORT

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June 2011

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*Participants at the International Forum for Rural Development in Somalia – 2<sup>nd</sup> meeting (Padova 9-11<sup>th</sup> March 2011)*

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## Acronyms and abbreviations used in the present report

BTI	Bertelsmann Transformation Index
CD	Community Development
CHW	Child Health Worker
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FSNAU	Food Security And Nutrition Analysis Unit-Somalia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIP	Governance Indicators Project
GEF	Global Environmental Facility
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
JNA	Joint Needs Assessment
JSP	Joint Strategy Paper
MCH	Maternal and Child Health
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NTFP	Non Timber Forest Products
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PETT	Promotion of Employment Through Training
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Program
RNF	Rural Non-Farm Activities
STD	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
STEO	Skill Training for Employment Opportunities
TeSAF	Dipartimento Territorio e Sistemi Agro-Forestali, at University of Padova
TFG	Transitional Federal Government
UN	United Nations
UNCCD	United Nations Convention for Combat Desertification
UNHCR	United Nation High Commission for Refugees
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNITAF	Unified Task Force
UNPOS	United Nations Political Office for Somalia
UNOCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
US\$	United States Dollar
USAID	United States Agency International Development
WGI	Worldwide Governance Indicator
WHO	World Health Organization

# MAP OF SOMALIA



Map No. 3860 Rev. 8 UNITED NATIONS  
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Department of Field Support  
Cartographic Section

## INITIAL OBSERVATIONS

Somalia's government representatives at IFAD, researchers at the University of Padova and some Somali intellectuals living abroad promoted the International Forum and the debate opened with the following question: **What types of development best fit the current situation in Somalia?** This question has stimulated Forum's participants into proposing thoughts and actions in relation to the complex dynamics of continuous transformation occurring politically and economically in Somalia.

The first issue of complexity is found in Somalia's relentless political crisis. Constant conflict in the country has led to a political and normative void and has discouraged long-term supporters of community reconstruction -before the creation of an internationally recognized Nation State-. The second issue of complexity is found in development strategies promoted by International Agencies, much more focused on re-establishing the state's legal and institutional structures rather than sustaining a process of construction of community social purpose shared by all clans. This feature is at the basis of political and social identity funding principles of any functioning Nation State. The third issue of complexity is found in defining the best policy approach in International Cooperation, in regard to beneficiaries and donors, especially on the basis of what happened after the Siad Barre regime (i.e. after 1991).

Within this framework of complexity, the Forum -since the beginning of its debates- has reached four widely shared assumptions, which later received confirmation of their validity. They are described in synthesis in the following sections, yet they are at the basis of all project proposals developed in this report.

### Assumption No 1

#### **The Forum agrees on development policies prioritizing actions in rural areas**

Rural areas are the main pillars for developing Somalia's economy. The agriculture sector has been of fundamental importance for the national economy since 1991, it contributes 63.6% of GDP and employs more than 50% of Somalia's labour force (World Bank data). Rural economy development has the highest potential for poverty reduction, as shown from the comparative international economic analysis exposed in the IFAD Rural Poverty Report 2011:

*"1 per cent growth in GDP originating in agriculture increases the expenditures of the poorest 30 per cent of the population at least 2.5 times as much as growth originating in the rest of the economy"*(Ligon and Sadoulet, 2007)

Rural areas development cannot exclusively deal with agriculture, livestock rearing and forestry. Its strategy needs to focus on the primary sector in a wider perspective given the current ceaseless instability. It is necessary to emphasize actions on multiple rural non-farming activities (RNFAs), essential components to reduce livelihood risks in the case of unfavourable seasons for agriculture. RNFAs can be intended as socio-economic shock absorbers and stability factors in maintaining steady income and self-sufficiency in rural communities.

Rural areas development cannot exclusively be reduced to an economic perspective. If development is a process to reach quantitative objectives conceptualized as improvements of existing and socially defined situations, considerations about social relations regardless of economic theories are meant to strengthen wellbeing through safeguarding the collectivity, first of all by addressing health and education. The actions of Somalia's Diaspora has significantly mitigated the social effects of institutional collapse –on-going since 1991- by supporting communities of origin through financial aid meant to sustain education, skills building and coping with poor health services. Not all needs have been met, yet the level of awareness about such issues has increased and spurred support by Somalia's civil society and International Agencies.

## **Assumption No 2**

**The Forum agrees that rural development should be prioritized and organized at community level.**

Continuous changes at the political level in Somalia have reduced its capacity to propose development policies for rural areas; once the government is internationally recognized and operational then its political actions will also be legitimized. Constant governmental fluctuations -from 2004 till today- have clearly underlined a significant lack of political will and a distrust of the institutions by the population. The absence of political stability has led to the formation of local and self-governed units of governance as replacements for the political void; they act in accordance with internal clan rules and rely on village elderlies as conflict mediators.

Development policies should target rural communities in order to ensure local socio-economic stability as a facilitating factor for a wider more complex process of political stabilization. The analytical observation in support of this hypothesis is based on the concept of "weak states" for Somalia. Once latent or explicit conflicts are enduring, the economic system -intended as sphere of exchanges and sharing- still survives, therefore more emphasis should be directed towards identifying the factors that can trigger development and unfold economic potentials in the process of political stabilization.

## **Assumption No 3**

**The Forum agrees on project initiatives favouring rural areas on the basis of community development principles**

Since rural communities are of central importance in Somalia, actions in international cooperation should aim at prioritizing a community development approach, considering local specificities. Its characterizing features are described in the following table 1.1:

Table 1.1: Community Development characteristics and assumptions

Characteristics of community development	Assumptions about people and community system
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Focus on a unit called community.</li> <li>2. Conscious attempts to induce non-reversible structural change.</li> <li>3. Initiation by groups, agencies or institutions external to the community unit. Use of paid professionals/workers</li> <li>4. Emphasize public participation.</li> <li>5. Participate for the purpose of self-help.</li> <li>6. Increase dependence on participatory democracy as the mode for community (public) decision-making.</li> <li>7. Use a holistic approach.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. People are diverse. Community systems can organize to take advantage of that diversity.</li> <li>2. Community systems are not totalitarian. People have life spaces outside of the community structure.</li> <li>3. People learn from participation in community systems and community systems learn from the participation of people.</li> <li>4. People are capable of exercising a considerable degree of autonomy, while exercising self-restraint required for social order.</li> <li>5. People have the capacity for empathy with others that permits tolerance and voluntary relationships within the community systems.</li> <li>6. While people prefer justice and fairness in community systems, they often perceive it differently.</li> <li>7. Imperfections will mark every community system. A degree of inequality will exist in every community system.</li> <li>8. Working from the principle that everyone affected by a decision has a right to participate helps the community system to identify difficulties and to expand the range of potential interactions between a definite situation and the system.</li> </ol>

Source: Cook, J.B.: <http://extension.missouri.edu/publications/DisplayPub.aspx?P=MP568>

Implementing the classical approach of participatory democracy can trigger perplexities among clan members, especially when hierarchical structures are still dominant. Yet, self-governance along these terms can be legitimized as a survival system for a society exposed to complex environmental, economic and socio-political factors. In this regard, a re-application of Community Development principles seems favourable within Somalia's rural communities in order to emphasize the fundamental functions of communities in conflict resolution and to utilize local knowledge and skills as a collective strategy to reach development objectives, hardly achievable by individuals.

#### Assumption No 4

**The forum agrees that project initiatives should go beyond emergency; rather, they should activate project actions meant for development.**

International Cooperation has often looked at Somalia as a receiver state of funding for its emergencies rather than recipient of a political proposal aimed at development.

Such an attitude on the part of the International Community –although legitimized by continuous humanitarian crises that have dramatically affected the Horn of Africa- needs a fundamental overhaul in order to help Somali's communities to overcome its emergency. The *Reconstruction and Development Programme (2008)* as predisposed by the United Nations and the World Bank, represents

the first attempt to modify the old strategies. The report's starting point is to reconstruct the State of Somalia and to legitimize it in the eyes of the International Community with the ultimate aim of stabilizing the current political crisis.

The development rationale borne out of donors' communities for Somalia needs a new language and operational approaches, differentiated from those established by other international actors. The following project proposals widely support a vision of lifting rural communities out of enduring crisis. The *International Forum for Rural Development in Somalia* has established its contribution and knowledge exchange in this direction, for various agents engaged in the development sector.



Picture 1: Somalia's farmer doing agricultural work

# PART 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Forum activities

The concerted effort of various stakeholders resulted in the *International Forum for Rural Development in Somalia*, which had the aim of producing items of action and development strategies for rural areas in Somalia. The initiative was taken by Permanent Representatives of Somalia at the United Nations Agencies in Rome and the following actors: Department of Land and Agro-Forestry Systems of the University of Padova (Italy), the IFAD Division for Near East and North Africa and eight Somali intellectuals of the Diaspora.

During two working sessions - both held in Padova, on 25-26<sup>th</sup> October 2010 and 9-11<sup>th</sup> March 2011 - elements of analysis, evaluation and project planning have been raised. These are intended to be the core elements of this final report that will be presented in Rome at IFAD Headquarters in early September 2011, in the presence of Representatives of UN Agencies, Governments, non- governmental organisations (NGOs) and other International Development and Cooperation Agencies.

With reference to the items of action, it should be noted that, although the core topics of analysis were agriculture, livestock and forestry, other related components of the primary sector were not forgotten. Most importantly, the hypothesis was proposed that the primary sector won't develop a sustainable territorial economy, if the growth process is not harmonious and integrated,. This has led to the formulation of proposals, discussed among Forum members, with a prevailing emphasis on a short term focus on "agriculture, livestock and forestry", while other related sectors should be stimulated in the medium term, such as:

- land management and environment;
- rural handicrafts;
- basic health and hygiene;
- rural education and training;
- local institutions and governance.

From a methodological point of view, the items of action –in other words, development objectives that aim at increasing the quality of life of the Somali population– have been identified through an *ad hoc* participatory approach, involving representatives of the Somali Diaspora in Europe. Somali components of the Forum and IFAD experts have critically analyzed what researchers from TeSAF Department (University of Padova) have produced on the basis of an extensive literature analysis and field experience (part 2). This discussion was used to integrate, in the items of action, Somali's technical perspective, experience and knowledge (part 3).

The analysis and items of action creation refer to three geographical zones in Somalia: Northern, Central and Southern. In truth, this report is meant to focus on guidelines, analysis and project initiatives specifically intended for the Central-Southern areas of Somalia. It is worth noting that, because of a more solid socio-economic structure, diverse development projects are already successfully operating in the other two major areas of the country.

As a result a large number of items of action for development projects mainly relate to agriculture, livestock and forestry - as well as for other sectors instrumental to the development process, e.g. education, health, handicrafts etc. - were set-up. In relation to these items of action, Forum members have subsequently identified specific and coordinated projects. They are thought to be useful instruments for the Somali Government, which could consider the proposals formulated by the *International Forum on Rural Development for Somalia* as a proposed (or tentative) development strategy.

In the final section (part 4), a framework of analysis is proposed in regards to how international cooperation operated, operates and should operate in Somalia, in order to spur reflection about the current difficult socio-economic transition the country is experiencing.

## 1.2 The Forum and its stakeholders

The Forum is formed by a group of consultants from different sectors and with varied expertise; it is intended to assist organizations willing to promote project ideas in Somalia. The value added by Forum participants is to bring the following perspectives:

- Direct link with their local communities of origin;
- Thorough knowledge of that context;
- Cultural mediation between actors in international cooperation and the local population;
- Clear understanding of existing problems and socio-political dynamics; these are not always evident from the point view of international cooperation agencies.

The Forum also intends to engage in activities related to collection and analysis of data about the context in Somalia, as useful tools for international cooperation.

IFAD believes that the *International Forum for Rural Development in Somalia* has the full potential for promoting a new and original approach to rural development with the above-mentioned perspectives. Project proposals that emerged from the Forum embody innovation, especially considering the additional value of having a heterogeneous group of Forum participants:

- Intellectuals of the Somali Diaspora belonging to different clan groups, residing in various European countries and possessing professional skills in dealing with the rural world;
- Somalia's government representatives at the United Nation agencies established in Rome;
- Exponents of the Italian academic world;
- NGOs' representatives;
- International Organizations' representatives.

The Forum and its stakeholders are an opportunity to share various views that will emerge in the following sections. Both communal perspectives combined with operational project ideas for governmental and non-governmental agencies are of fundamental importance for what the Forum intends as development objectives and outcomes. The Forum is a starting point for a much wider debate about policy ideas, which are further explored in the following pages.

### 1.3 Somalia socio-political situation

Since the fall of Siad Barre's government in 1991, Somalia has been experiencing continuous political instability as well as manifested and latent conflicts. In performing geopolitical analyses of the country, symbol of the Horn of Africa, international analysts have progressively shifted their focus from investigating the causes of conflict to the factors that perpetuate Somalia's incessant instability, defined by some scholars as an "*enduring war economy*"<sup>1</sup> (Grosse-Kettler, 2004)<sup>2</sup>. According to the same line of thought, this economy is related to specific internal and external interests within the Somali context; which implicitly and explicitly exploit economic opportunities deriving from the absence of government through high return rent-seeking behaviours.

In such a complex geopolitical and economic situation, international intervention has been ineffective due to opposed and polyhedral local interests; a context, according to Menkhaus (2007), definable as "Balkanized".<sup>3</sup> Somalia can be counted as the first case where the International Community has considered the conflict within the nation-state as a main issue of international security, not complying with the principle of "sovereign equality of states" and disregarding the principle of people's self-determination. More specifically, the foremost interest on its part relates to humanitarian assistance, recognizing a new interpretation of international law including also the right of interference for humanitarian purposes. In this framework, resolution 751 from the United Nations Security Council initiated UNOSOM operations in August 1992, later renamed UNITAF (under US leadership) and UNISOM 2 (1993-1995).

Grosse-Kettler (2004) believes military intervention from the International Community has not reached its set objectives and has unintentionally sustained economic structures favouring a war economy. Most international aid, meant for military and civilian purposes, has ended up in the hands of opposed clans and their militias, fuelling a lucrative business<sup>4</sup>. Since the 1990s, there has been a progressive stabilization of such an economy, lacking a central government, yet extremely active in favouring polyhedral, informal and criminal economic activities along with governance systems based on clan relations.

In 2005-2006 an additional component entered the Somali struggle: the Supreme Council of Islamic Courts (SCIC). It spurred new conflicts especially in Southern and Central Somalia. In 2007, after harsh battles, the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) in a joint action with AMISON –peacekeeping corps under guidance of the African Union– obtained legitimacy in Mogadishu. In 2008, a new Peace Conference at Djibouti established an agreement between the TFG and the Alliance for Re-liberation of Somalia (ARS), the latter is the moderate wing of Islamic Courts. Despite the agreement, Al-Shabaah Islamic Courts still control a wide section of Southern Somalia.

Recent information about the political situation in Somalia is the nomination of a new Prime Minister: Mohamed Abdullahi, ex diplomat in USA. He has begun his mandate by forming a new government of 18 ministers mainly from the Somali Diaspora abroad. The government controls 60%

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<sup>1</sup> "Theories about war economies point to the perpetuating mechanisms and mutual relations between war and economy. According to the World Bank Research Development Group headed by Paul Collier, war and violence are economically motivated and individuals or groups use them to maximize profit" (Collier, 2000: 91-111) cited by Grosse-Kettler, S. (2004).

<sup>2</sup> Grosse-Kettler, S. (2004) "External Actors in Stateless Somalia. A War Economy and its Promoters". Bonn International Center for Conversion. Paper 39: 1-35.

<sup>3</sup> Menkhaus, K. (2007) "Governance without government in Somalia". *International Security* vol. 31, no. 3: 74-106.

<sup>4</sup> To guarantee, for example, security services to international actors on the part of local militia.

of the national capital and intends to call for national elections<sup>5</sup> in 2011. Latest news (June 2011) attests to a new evolution of the political situation due to internal conflict among representatives of the TFG.<sup>5</sup>

## 1.4 IFAD Development strategy and perspectives

IFAD –being an international organization placed within the United Nations system– is strongly field-oriented and supports project initiatives for Somalia’s development, based on the following principles:

- Friendly-oriented approach towards the population benefiting from development projects
- Small-scale financing
- Swift achievements in the field
- Short-term impacts
- Special attention to water issues and how to increase farming and livestock productivity

IFAD is currently involved in three main activities: i) natural resources management; ii) rural development projects identification, design and implementation; iii) subsistence strategies to overcome the challenges of rural livelihoods.

IFAD’s work has given priority to Somaliland, where it has acquired experience in development projects and has fulfilled its commitments. The next objective is to extend IFAD’s operations to other contexts in Somalia, specifically where there are more critical social, economic and political issues.

IFAD’s Near East and North Africa team is presently engaged in the most heated areas of North Africa, Middle East and Eastern Europe; they are all affected by potential and existing conflicts, the impacts of which cause a strong deterioration of civil society’s livelihood. These conflictual conditions require a deep analysis of emergency and post-emergency situations along with short-, medium- and long-term development perspectives. Within this framework, the priority is to identify the causes of insecurity and the consequent operative approaches in order to reduce poverty, specifically in rural areas. For this purpose, IFAD specifically deals with the following categories of beneficiaries in order to fulfil its mandate: smallholders and poor rural communities.

The feasibility of IFAD’s interventions is usually reduced because of contextual instabilities. In this regard, it is under debate whether focused strategies through welfare schemes are the only effective ways to improve people’s conditions. The Near East and North Africa team’s opinion emphasizes the importance of favouring the development approach from the very beginning by means of investments with high probability of success.

In this regard, the widely discussed failure of International agencies in Somalia can be associated to their biased emphasis towards favouring welfare schemes. Thanks to their assistance, people’s urgent

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<sup>5</sup> Somali President Sharif Ahmed and Parliamentary Speaker Sharif Hassan Sheikh Aden met President Museveni in Kampala, following intense disagreements and tensions regarding extending the mandate of the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) threatening Somalia’s peace process as TFG faces exit at the end of its term in August. The Prime Minister accused the Speaker of dishonesty, indecisiveness and failing to respect the will of the Somali government and people. Source: <http://allafrica.com/stories/201106250014.html>

problems have been partially solved; nonetheless lasting results are yet to be ensured. Along the same line, the Somalis and part of Somalia's Diaspora consider international cooperation as ineffective.

IFAD proposes five key issues in order to initiate development projects with a higher chance of success in conflict areas:

- *ownership*, by local, regional and national actors;
- *participation*, a complex issue with inbuilt strategic potential;
- *integration*, in order to face the situation's complexity from a territorial perspective, rather than a sectorial approach. This implies including agriculture along with craftsmanship, livestock rearing, forestry, rural non-farm activities, health services, education, protection of natural resources and land management, considering the local characteristics and territorial assets;
- *field Evidence*, with specific assessments of results, objectives and impacts achieved in the field;
- *partnership*, taking care of the stakeholder analysis

IFAD's suggestion, in relation to Somalia's rural development, is to focus on small projects, easy to implement, highly specific and with an immediate impact. In view of the troubled Somali situation, international cooperation operators need to encourage actions focused at a local level and, contemporarily, to sustain effective policies at the macro level. Diaspora members' role needs to be taken into full consideration in policy-making activities both at micro and macro levels.

Members of Somalia's Diaspora have had the fundamental task to support their families and communities during the past years of conflict. Today's concern is to develop the appropriate capacity for the Diaspora to confront Somalia's development prospects.

## 1.5 Somalia's diaspora point of view on Somalia's current social crisis

It is important to identify the factors that determine the socio-political instability in Somalia. Such an analysis should not only recognize conflict management tools, but it should also be inclusive of a socio-economic aspect in order to deepen perspectives over critical issues in the country. The implication of continuous conflicts is a pervasive issue for society; in order for civil society to continue to operate, it becomes necessary to intervene in reducing insecurity and in facilitating market mechanisms along with social justice. Conflict reduction is also a priority in international cooperation in order to build a dialogue among different actors at the community and institutional levels on the promotion of values directed towards human development and social inclusion rather than war. The main causes of Somalia's conflict –to be removed– are due to the following situations:

- lack of a government legitimized by the people;
- widespread poverty;
- limited education and training;
- inequity and inequalities;
- impossibility to access economic resources;
- competition for scarce resources.

The necessity to converge United Nations agencies' actions is a priority. *Aid Delivery as a One* should be a leading example in the country's current crisis (positive evidence from the same programme implemented in Cape Verde can be a reliable example). Agencies' actions should be focused on the main objective to support various projects in different rural communities according to an integrated approach based on the guidelines of a community development programme. Yet, there are challenges, for example Eritrea's experience indicates how complex it is to reconstruct the social fabric, especially when youth militia is part of society. A similar problem occurs in Somalia for all young people who took part in Al-Shabaab. In Eritrea, some successful - yet complex to implement - projects have focused on creating income streams favouring young ex-militia in order to reconstruct society and ensure social inclusion. Youths in Somalia join the militia because of limited income opportunities rather than for ideology or political stances; alternative job opportunities are often related to piracy, urban resettlement and illegal migration abroad.

A development approach focused on the young generation is to expand income streams from the traditional sectors of agriculture and livestock to rural non-farm activities. The latter include enterprises activities financed by microcredit programmes. Such a development trajectory is not opposed to Al-Shabaab; rather it creates a valid post-Al Shabaab alternative.



Picture 2: Young militia in Al-Shabaab

## **PART 2**

### **Somalia: overview of different sectors and policy suggestions**

#### **2.1 General conditions of Somalia's rural poverty**

The world population living in rural areas has decreased to below 50% since 2010; in developing countries this figure is still 55%. The general trend seems to suggest an overall reduction everywhere in the world. As opposed to other geographical areas, Sub-Saharan Africa will only experience a structural decrease of rural population to below 50% by 2045. Poverty is well recognized to be widespread in rural areas. Almost 70% of the poorest people in the world live in rural areas and it seems the situation will not reverse in the next decades.

Sub-Saharan Africa registers the highest rate of rural poverty worldwide; it surpasses an average of 70%. In these areas, the whole income derives almost exclusively from agriculture, livestock rearing and fishing. The poorest families are the ones that rely on these not diversified sources of income. In the last years, to reduce the risk level of mono-source household economy, the importance of non-agricultural incomes has increased. This trend seems to be sustained by policies implemented by non-governmental organizations working in Africa.

Within this framework, Somalia has high percentage of rural population and consequently a high rate of rural poverty. Rural households are able to obtain income almost exclusively from “petty agriculture”, livestock rearing, paid labour or farm work and occasionally from remittances. Its non-rural economy is still weak because of specific causes, for example it lacks capacity building activities and initiatives meant to strengthen the collective capacity to acquire trust and self-confidence in defeating poverty.

Such a situation leads to emphasizing the role of intensive and sustainable agriculture as a primary development factor by means of an integrated rural development approach. This integration refers to a six macro-variables model: environment, agriculture, craftsmanship, rural services, training, rural health and institutional governance. All macro-variables represent primary development co-factors – in line with a logic beyond sectorial approaches– which should be activated in different ways according to the specific area .

In the following section, a brief overview of the Somalia is given for each sector of intervention. An introduction of the situation in Somalia and policies in this direction are briefly mentioned; along with some problems to be overcome by public or private actors. The final objective is to promote a territorial approach to development, in order to reduce Somalia's rural poverty

#### **2.2 Environment and natural resource**

##### **2.2.1 Premise**

Various multilateral and regional institutions, like the European Commission (2006) and UNOCHA, (2011) and other development agencies or researchers - Basnyat (2007) - have written reports on the condition of Somalia's environmental resources. Moreover, Somalia Water and Land Information

Management (SWALIM) remains a reliable source of environmental data. Recent factsheets (World Bank, 2008; USAID, 2011) clearly show a trend towards the convergence of environmental data on main issues such as: water, land use, biodiversity and economics. The acknowledgement of a common information baseline has helped the promotion of coordinated target programmes aimed at solving specific imbalances. For instance, the SWALIM soil and water report series, along with the Joint Strategy Paper developed by the European Commission for the 2008-2011 period<sup>6</sup>, represent examples of planning tools for policy-making processes (see water example in FAO, 2011) considering the grassroots situation.

Taking into consideration the importance of environmental resource assessment, the environmental impacts generated by factors such as: migration, population growth, rapid urbanisation, climate change and social conflicts also have to be specified, which cause enormous pressure in weak regions like Somalia (Fratkin, 2001). Yet the fundamental relationship between the environment and development processes is the basis for sustainability and a balance between economic growth and environmental awareness cannot be avoided. Human induced environmental abuses comprising various issues – e.g. imported and internally produced industrial toxic waste, resource exploitation, ecosystem disequilibrium etc. - need to be prevented and reduced through a renewed perspective of the interaction between society and its resources. The imperative to protect the environment requires a new development model, which prioritizes long-term benefits to defeat internal and external patterns of imbalance.

### 2.2.2 Current Situation

The common opinion on Somalia's environmental assets attests to a slow and constant trend towards resource depletion. Generally speaking, the physical environment composed of rocks, soil, groundwater, rainfall and temperature has low rates of change. Moreover, the pressure of human actions on the eco-balance affects the biotic environment. While the physical environment cannot be influenced locally, the eco-balance can be affected by socio-economic parameters. In fact environmental loss is one of the main factors responsible for sustainability reduction and cannot be replaced nor compensated by new technologies and innovation.

Villagers in rural areas struggle for subsistence needs and if proper resource management is not implemented, then the foreseeable outcome would be a reinforced tendency to pastoralism (Mengistu, 2007; Kassahun, 2008). Pastoralism is considered a threat for biodiversity when excessive grazing happens; yet for a long time it has been the main rural economic activity in Somalia. It appears difficult to change the mind-set of rural communities about this issue and it becomes important to integrate the rich traditional knowledge possessed by pastoralists with the recognition of potential impacts for biodiversity due to excessive grazing and higher competition among wild animals, especially those in semi-arid areas (Somalia Joint Strategy Paper, 2008). It is clear that alongside the environmental effects of pastoralism, the inability to encourage alternative sources of income still persists.

Most importantly, freshwater consumption and water misuse in arid areas has destroyed many habitats and river ecosystems with heavy consequence for biodiversity. Although alternative sources of groundwater could come from transboundary aquifer exploitation, green water in dry areas and its

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<sup>6</sup> [www.faoswalim.org](http://www.faoswalim.org)

environmental maintenance - according to the normal blue water use ratio (Biro, 2011) - indicates that the current aquifers' overexploitation is reaching a point of no return, triggering desertification patterns. Influential researchers consider the effects of groundwater change as a direct cost for future generations (Strand, 2010). This kind of information derived from national and international bodies may be sufficient to consider a sustainable environmental plan designed to confront Somalia's social system, the instability of which is at the root of any environmental problem.

### 2.2.3 Policy suggestions

The cluster report "Productive Sectors and Environment", within the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)<sup>7</sup> set by the United Nations and the World Bank, clearly identifies policies and programmes meant to ensure sustainable use of natural resources and protection of the environment. Table 2.2.1 presents the baseline situation in 2006 and the target outcomes for 2011 for Central and Southern Somalia.

Table 2.2.1: Central-Southern Somalia: Baseline situation and target outcomes for sustainable use of natural resources and protection of the environment

Natural resources		Charcoal		Fisheries		Biodiversity	
Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)
1. Many core natural resources destroyed or seriously depleted since 1990.	1. Regeneration and improvement of Somali natural resources such as wildlife, water, wetlands, soils, rangelands and forests, marine life and reefs to their prewar state.	1. Declining forest cover. No reliable data available. No data on charcoal exports.	1. Outreach program on costs of deforestation carried out.	1. Unsustainable exploitation of fisheries resources.	1. Complete licensing of all off-shore fishing vessels and their compliance with all fishing regulations.	1. No comprehensive data available on wildlife or biodiversity.	1. Halt further deterioration of biodiversity.
2. FAO/Agricover information on land cover provides an indicator of land use, but data not current. Recent aerial photos provide an updated baseline from which to develop target outcomes.		2. No accurate data on energy consumption	2. Awareness campaign on alternative energy sources carried out.		2. Registration of all artisanal fishermen selling commercially and their compliance with regulations.		2. Licensing of all hunting and export of wildlife.
3. Information on water resources available but in need of consolidation.							

Source: JNA (2008).

<sup>7</sup> The RDP is structured as a synthesis report in 3 sections, each related to a region in the country: Central-Southern Somalia, Puntland and Somaliland. It is further divided into 6 clusters regarding different topics: governance, safety in the rule of law, macro-economic policy framework along with data development, infrastructure, social services for vulnerable groups, productive sectors in relation to the environment and livelihood solutions for the displaced. Finally, an additional three cross cutting issues are presented: gender and human rights, reconciliation and conflict prevention, capacity building and institutional development –inclusive of anti-corruption initiatives-, and peace building.

In line with the Joint Strategy Paper of the European Commission (2006), general project guidelines should fulfil specific targets meant for rural beneficiaries<sup>8</sup>, i.e.: agro-pastoralists, pastoralists, users of agro-forestry products and small-irrigated farmers.

The introduction of improved pasture management in order to reverse the negative trend of biodiversity erosion and coordinating community agro-forestry plantations in rural areas are possible income solutions for agro-pastoralists. It can trigger conversion into a more stable and remunerative business such as agro-pastoralism based on tree nurseries or arid-farming. Secondly, a water management plan should target a substantial reduction in soil erosion and water resource depletion by increasing maintenance of the remaining wetland habitats, especially next to riverbanks. The latter are unique environments to filter dirty water to be used for domestic irrigation. Lastly, it is suggested that national parks and protected areas should be established to conserve biodiversity.

The high control costs and inefficiencies of the Somali administration may cause side effects such as attracting poachers or even inducing violent reactions from the local population. Instead of a command and control system, a comprehensive subsidy scheme can be delivered through NGOs to local dwellers in order to ensure the conservation of wildlife species (using a bio-indicator).



Picture 3: Somalia's landscapes

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<sup>8</sup> What described so far is also in line with Somalia NGO Consortium established in Nairobi in 1999. The Consortium started as a mechanism for international NGOs to coordinate various activities and work together on specific issues. Since then the Consortium has grown as many Somali national NGOs have joined. It was involved in designing some important reports such as the Joint Needs Assessment and Joint Programme Document and it works alongside the United Nations.

## 2.3 Agriculture, Livestock and Forestry

### 2.3.1 Premise

The agriculture, livestock and forestry sectors represent the main sources of income and the most important paid work opportunities for most Somali people. Their potential role in the development of Somalia's economy is widely acknowledged by International Organizations (UN and WB, 2008). Agriculture and its inter-connections with other economic sectors could represent an interesting "starting point" to achieve reconstruction and to implement policies aiming at the promotion of an integrated rural development approach. The role of other meta-economic factors needs to be included to ensure sustainability of such a process from its very beginning. Among others these may include non-exhaustive assets such as: rural educational systems, rural health systems, rural physical infrastructure, rural governance system aiming at a peace building process, etc.

### 2.3.2 Historical Perspective and Current Situation

In 1991 the agricultural sector contributed to 63.6% of the Somali Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (World Bank, 1991). GDP composition indicates the essential importance of agricultural sub-sectors: livestock (52%), crops (37%), forestry (9%) and fisheries (1%). The civil war has dramatically changed Somali life as well as the country's economic system to the point of transforming it into an enduring war economy (Grosse-Kettler, 2004). Hence, the exact composition of the Somali GDP is presently unknown. Since the 1990s, three main driving forces have been determining Somalia's agricultural GDP: livestock increase, crop production decrease and forest products depletion.

All these trends are worthy of analysis starting from the first driving force, i.e. livestock, which has increased its importance as main economic activity: 50% of the Somali population is engaged in it. Breeding activities represent a possible source of income during times of conflict and post-conflict; most importantly they preserve the value of household capital despite external shocks. Exports of livestock between 1994 and 2010 (data from the ports of Bosaso and Berbera) prove its importance as a significant source of revenue for Somalia's economy. Data collected from the Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit Integrated Database System (FSNAU) indicate that, on average during the last years, 80% of all export earnings derive from livestock (65% considering other sources). Data fluctuation for exports (figure 2.3.1) can be interpreted as periodic interruptions due to recurrent droughts and to international bans from Arab states, especially Saudi Arabia.

The livestock sub-sector is divided into four distinct parts, with each one associated to different areas of the Country: an extensive pastoral zone (Haud plateau and Western Hiran), an agro-pastoral area (Western Hiran), a livestock region in the inter-rivers valley (Bay and Bakool) and coastal plains. Each area, to different degrees, is characterized by a specific livestock management system linked to the crop sub-sector.

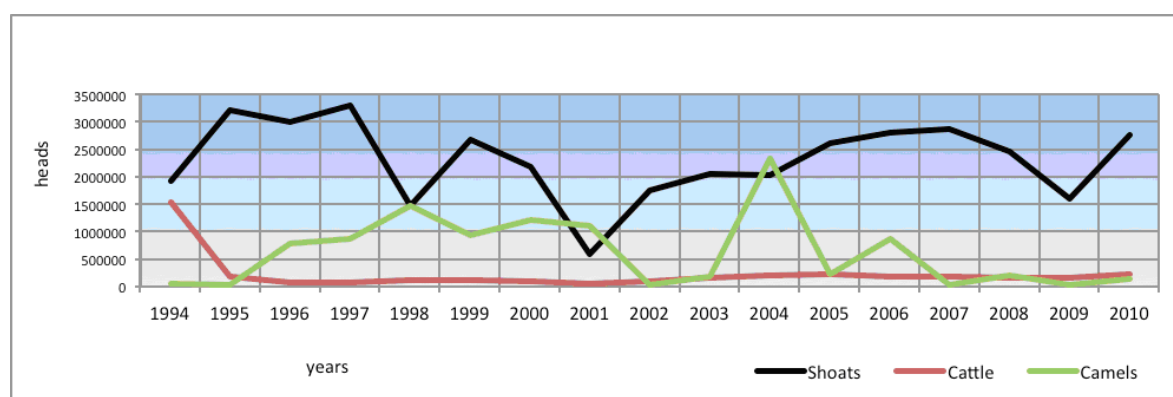
The main problems affecting livestock are identified by the Somali Joint Needs Assessment (JNA)<sup>9</sup> (UN, WB, 2008) and can be conceptualized into:

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<sup>9</sup> Productive Sectors and Environment Cluster Report.

- *insecurity* that limits livestock movements;
- *pasture and water conditions* reflecting reduced sector productivity;
- *lack of health control strategies*;
- *inadequate support services and applied research*;
- *fluctuating and unfavourable terms of trade* ;
- *lack of reliable data* on animal health;
- *absence of processing capacity* to add value to transformed products of animal origin;
- *lack of skilled human resources*.

Figure 2.3.1: Livestock exports through all Somalia ports (1994 - 2010)



Source: FSNAU IDS <http://www.fsnau.org/ids/exports/livestock.php> accessed 6 June 2011

The second driving force for the crop sub-sector - engaging 14% of the Somali population - relates to the decrease in agricultural production. Its performance is determined by water availability during the two main rainy seasons: *Gu* season - from April to June - and *Deyr* season - from October to December; both are crucial for agricultural activities. The main area for agricultural production is situated in Southern Somalia, where smallholders typically rely on the following crops: sorghum, maize, sesame, cowpeas, sugarcane and rice. Water conditions in Juba and Shabelle – areas located near the two permanent rivers of the country – allow agriculture to flourish. Around 90% of the country's cereal crops are grown in Southern Somalia and a substantial part of it is sold in the whole country. Moreover, 70% of the total national cereal production takes place during the *Gu* season. Before the war, large private farms also produced commercial crops such as bananas, citrus fruit, vegetables and cotton, which were then exported all over the world. During the war, due to ruined water schemes, these activities have subsided. Currently, sesame – an increasingly important cash crop - is being cultivated in Southern Somalia and partially sold locally or exported to Arab states.

The Somali JNA identified the main problems affecting agricultural productivity for crops and related them to the following aspects:

- *insecurity* determines the displacement of skilled farmers (contributing to the increase in number of internally displaced people, IDP);

- *clan-based disputes over land* discourage national and international investments due to high financial and political risk;
- *poor rains*<sup>10</sup> reduces cereal production, heightening food insecurity –i.e. Deyr season in 2010;
- *reduced irrigations*, only 15% of the cultivated land is now irrigated and the efficiency of irrigation schemes has decreased to 30% compared with pre-war levels. The main causes are lack of maintenance of physical infrastructures for water storage, distribution and flood control. Consequently, 85-90% of originally irrigated land is now used for rain-fed agriculture;
- *damaging floods*, increasing livelihood insecurity;
- *lack of adequate agricultural services* and of research activities;
- *lack of adequate infrastructure* to connect rural areas with urban markets.

The third driving force relates to forest products: if the contribution of the forest sector to GDP increases in the short-term, then the level of wood products utilization will seriously threaten forest resources in the long-term. Forests and woodland areas cover 12% of the total surface (23% according to other sources) and average deforestation rate is estimated to be 0.97% per year. Most evidently, human forces exert great pressures on the areas of the Riverine forest in order to satisfy new agricultural needs; hence dry-land forest areas are being depleted for charcoal to meet increasing local and international demand.

### 2.3.3 Policy Suggestions

The RDP - prepared by the United Nations jointly with the World Bank Coordination Secretariat and undertaken by the Somali authorities - contains some potential policy suggestions to tackle problems affecting agriculture, livestock and forestry sectors in Somalia.

A cluster report, namely “productive sectors and environment”, clearly identifies policies and programmes intended to reconstruct and strengthen the agricultural sector. Table 2.3.2 presents the baseline situation in 2006 and the target outcomes for 2011 for Central-Southern Somalia.<sup>11</sup>

As presented in the above table, in each sub-sector, the aim is to promote a shift from traditional production methods to: new modern techniques, new marketing systems, new regulations on natural resources and new information systems. The latter could induce knowledge exchange and potential interest from international enterprises to invest in Somalia.

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<sup>10</sup> Somalia is a rain-fed dependent country and this aspect strongly affects Somali livelihoods. The assessment made by FSNAU and FEWSNET after the Deyr 2010/11 rainy season attests that the number of people in need of humanitarian assistance, due to a deteriorated food security situation, has increased by 20% (up to 2.4 million people, corresponding to 32% of Somalia’s 7.5 million population).

<sup>11</sup> Similar tables have been prepared for Puntland and Somaliland. In these cases the identification of baseline situations and target outcomes are quite similar to those presented above for Central-Southern Somalia.

Table 2.3.2: Central-Southern Somalia: Baseline situation and target outcomes for livestock, crops, forests and fisheries.

Livestock		Crops		Forests		Fisheries	
Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)	Baseline situation (2006)	Target outcome (2011)
1. Livestock export complies neither with sub-regional standard (EXCELEX) nor the international standard (OIE).	1. International export inspection and certification standard achieved.	1. Productivity remains low despite high potential for crop production.	1. More efficient crop production and watershed management.	1. Declining forest cover.	1. Outreach program on the cost of deforestation carried out.	1. High potential for fish production but low yields.	1. Sustainable production of fish and fish products increased to 50 percent of estimated sustainable catch.
2. Tsetse fly - which carries trypanosomiasis - is widespread in Central South Somalia as well as Rinderpest.	2. Tsetse fly and Rinderpest eradicated and incidence of epizootic diseases reduced.	2. Significant decrease of irrigable lands because of deteriorating flood control and irrigation infrastructure.	2. Flood water control structures in Shabelle and Juba valley rehabilitated.	2. No reliable data available.	2. Awareness campaign on alternative energy sources carried out.	2. High wastage and postharvest losses, lack of markets and exploitation by foreign intermediaries.	2. At least one-third of fish products produced in Somali fish-processing factories.
		3. Major disruption to land right.	3. Irrigation scheme structures renovated.	3. No data on charcoal exports.		3. Low, albeit increasing levels of internal consumption of fish products.	3. Wastage of fish caught reduced by 75%.
			4. Water users associations formed.	4. No accurate data on energy consumption.		4. High potential for fish production but low yields.	4. Income generating capacity of artisanal fishermen improved.
			5. Land titling. 6. Strengthening of agricultural support services				

Source: JNA (2008). Productive sectors and Environment cluster report.

The final aim remains to insert progressive strategies for development to be evaluated in light of all constraints to policy change. These constraints, considering the present situation, are quite difficult to handle. The required shift is unlikely to be achieved in the short-term given that all target outcomes, fixed for 2011, have not been reached. The sectorial methodology adopted by RDP can contribute to the reconstruction process yet, to make it sustainable, a territorial approach to rural development involving all actors from the initial phase of policy definition is necessary. According to the Forum participants opinion, a clear redefinition of rural development strategies is indispensable in order to attain the objectives set by the International Community.

Despite various political efforts by the International Community and national authorities to ensure compliance with RDP objectives, the situation in Central-Southern Somalia remains complex and difficult to disentangle. The International Community needs to make a stronger commitment to jointly involve all actors in reducing political insecurity of sensitive areas and managing natural disasters (droughts, floods, etc.) along with their strong impacts on Somalis' everyday lives. UN agencies in joint action with local authorities of Somaliland and Puntland are attesting to the real possibility of a phase-out period from the war economy and this could be the case for Central and Southern Somalia. Surely, more time is needed to see results from this joint effort.



Picture 4: Somalia's rural farmland

## 2.4 Rural non-farm activities

### 2.4.1 Premise

The development of a strong rural non-farm (RNF) sector is of basic support for the creation and strengthening of an effective rural economy. It is also a relevant source of income for rural households, especially for the landless poor as well as for rural town residents (Gordon and Craig, 2001; Lanjouw and Feder, 2001; IFAD, 2004). Contrary to past assumptions, rural livelihoods are based on different sources and not solely dependent on agriculture.

RNF sources of income are important for the rural economy and people for several reasons. Income derived from agriculture may not be enough to sustain rural livelihoods due to lack of access to land, adverse climate conditions, inappropriate technologies and limited skills. Moreover, agricultural activities - and related paid employment - are highly seasonal; non-farm sources can represent supplementary employment solutions. RNF activities are also risk-mitigating because they help to diversify and expand the rural poor's income sources and actively rebalance the relationship between urban and rural dimensions, reducing the dependency of rural areas on urban inputs (Reardon *et al.*, 1998; Gordon and Craig, 2001). RNF and related activities may also contribute to create favourable conditions for marginalised groups in rural areas by providing training and employment opportunities. These groups comprise: women, displaced people, underage labourers – also in the militia -, paternal and maternal orphans up to the age of 17 and street children. In sum, RNF activities

have multiple advantages and should be incentivised by the government according to the principle of livelihood diversification.

#### 2.4.2 Current Situation

According to the 2008 UN JNA, the rural micro-enterprise sector in Somalia is under-developed and hindered by lack of access to financial services, training and market-opportunities. The latter factor is further constrained by poor infrastructures and general services as roads, power generation and technical assistance. Most rural micro-enterprises are involved in trading local and imported consumption goods, rural transport and services. The private sector is quite dynamic and expanding only in some areas, especially in Somaliland and Puntland, where it already provides a substantial number of job opportunities. At the same time, the sector has a limited supply of skilled labour since the most educated section of the population has either fled the country or is not of working age. Furthermore, the majority of young people are uneducated and unskilled. Less than 17% of Somali's youth have basic literacy and numeracy skills; most lack marketable work skills and can only be employed in the livestock sector. Somalia's Ministry of Planning estimates that nearly 70% of youths are unemployed (PETT, 2009). In 2007, the UNDP estimated that 62% of the urban labour force and 41% of the rural/nomadic one are unemployed in Somalia.

Such weaknesses must be addressed in order to improve the implementation of RNF initiatives in the country. Although strong limitations can be identified, a high potential for rural micro-enterprises development in Somalia exists in relation to: diversification, value addition to agriculture and agro-forestry products, access to rural finance, technologies and capacity building. In this framework, a distinction between two different kinds of RNF activities needs to be made for the purposes of this report:

- *Farm production, processing and trading*: transformation and marketing of products from agriculture, agro-forestry and livestock. Examples may include: treatment of animals for safe meat; quality skins through improved practices; quality processing and improved treatment of hide, skins and leather; dairy processing; food processing – sorghum and maize milling, sesame oil extraction, juice production, tomato drying etc.; agro-forestry products - including drying of henna leaves, bee-keeping, improved charcoal production etc.

- *Services and activities supporting rural livelihood*: activities aimed at providing inputs for farming; e.g. basic agricultural mechanics, small-scale maintenance, repairing and manufacturing tools for farming and for domestic use, etc.

#### 2.4.3 Policy suggestions

The development of RNF is in line with various issues that emerged from Education for All (EFA), Dakar Framework (2000), the Somali Education Sector Wide Strategy Meeting (UNESCO, 2007) and the Millennium Development Goals (UN, 2000). There is a shared indication that RNF initiatives can strongly contribute to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, promote gender equity and empowerment, achieve universal primary education, ensure environmental sustainability and create global partnerships in development processes.

The importance of RNF activities should vary in accordance to skills base and project area, in order to tap into the comparative advantage and potential market demand. Training opportunities should also aim at improving the quality of education, *vis-à-vis* employment opportunities. Capacity building and technical/vocational training are key elements for accomplishing this objective. Both tasks should target self-employed and unemployed rural youth in order to involve them in micro-enterprises. Special attention should also be paid to identification of trainers and to strike a gender and age balance among women and rural youth. In light of a sustainable approach and in order to maintain training activities over time, capacity building needs to ensure education for both the trainees and future trainers.

A successful example of training programmes is provided by the “Promotion of Employment Through Training” (PETT) project. Started in 2005, this was a 3-year project implemented by Save the Children (Denmark) in joint action with CARE (UK), Diakonia (Sweden) and Gothenburg Initiative (Somaliland, Puntland). It was realized in close partnership with local actors (government and the private sector) using funding from the European Commission (9<sup>th</sup> EDF Programme for Somalia). The results of the PETT project are highly significant: it improved the livelihood and employability opportunities for 4,525 beneficiaries through provision of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) along with distribution of information about employment opportunities. The project was then extended to “Skill Training for Employment Opportunities” (STEO), promoted by the same consortium and targeting also the northern part of Central/Southern Somalia. The two projects have experienced challenges in Central/Southern Somalia due to security reasons (UNESCO, 2007).



Picture 5: Rural villagers gathering water from a well

Based on such past experiences, micro-enterprise development should also be linked to the provision of rural *financial services* since many enterprises cannot operate without access to finance.

Small-scale credit facilities or microfinance institutions need to be established to provide financial services to micro-enterprises in rural as well as urban areas. Furthermore, access to credit needs to be assured for women and minority groups (UN, 2008). This may include provision of start-up capital (toolkits, equipment and raw material) and successful trainees willing to establish self-income generating activities. Community revolving funds for rural micro-enterprises development could also be established.

Along with constrained financial services, another severe difficulty faced while pursuing RNF activities is the lack of basic infrastructure. For example, rural electrification is a pre-requisite for most activities in rural development. The adoption of solutions at the small-scale level such as installing solar panels and encouraging the use of alternative and renewable energy sources can contribute to resolving some structural inadequacy. Finally, training initiatives for the maintenance of such devices and a basic road network to link rural areas with urban ones are complementary to what has been mentioned so far in order to increase trade and rural non-farm activities.

## **2.5 Education and skill building in rural areas**

### **2.5.1 Premise**

To defeat poverty implies initiating development and self-development mechanisms. It is widely recognized and endorsed that development cannot refer only to material wellbeing; rather it is focused on the human being in a process of economic, cultural, social and personal growth.

Every human being has fundamental needs such as: food, shelter, health, clothing, education and capacity building. Any process not leading to such a multidimensional concept of development is a misrepresentation of its profound complexity. Education and training may not seem as fundamental as food, shelter and health; yet they are at the basis of any process triggering social change and economic growth. In many policies within the field of international cooperation, education and capacity building are indicated as priorities in project intervention.

International agencies in joint action with Somali civil society and governmental institutions need to address education issues as promptly as possible in light of some statistics about lost growth in potential for two generations of children without access to education. Somalia's primary school gross enrolment rate was 22% in 2003-2004 and only 2% for secondary education; adult literacy is as low as 20%. These general statistics emphasize the importance of enforcing the right to education (Art 24 of Transitional Federal Charter of the Somali Republic) and delivering programmes intended to socially, economically and personally empower all citizens (UN, 2008).

## 2.5.2 Historical Perspective and Current Situation

All young Somalis can access educational services and trainings opportunities since recently. In 1974, the government led by Siad Barre<sup>12</sup> started a country-wide literacy campaign. The campaign included the codification of the Somali language into a written language and its introduction in primary schools and in a substantial number of secondary ones.

In the national capital Mogadishu, around half of secondary schools considered at the top for teaching quality and infrastructure still retained Italian as teaching language also because around 20 to 30% of schoolteachers came from Italy. The only university in the country, shut down in 1991, was also teaching and providing research activities in Italian.

Spreading literacy in a context of limited infrastructure, lack of teachers and low propensity to study on the part of the youth - especially in rural areas - has also encountered further obstacles for children of school age belonging to nomadic communities (about 40% of the population). Since 1974 till early 1990s basic education had become a public good in villages and had replaced the pre-existing system in which children mainly attended religious classes. In the previous educational system, children were only to memorize sections of the Koran in Arabic.

The concept of public school, despite its limitations, introduced something revolutionary: each community was engaged in “managing” a local school and shaping it according to the needs of people by favouring access to all and promoting the role of adults as moving forces.

From 1991 onwards, the national education system no longer existed because the government was deprived of its authority over the education system and was unable to run an effective unitary policy.

Only in metropolitan areas a number of private schools still exist that offer primary, secondary and university (of which 2 are foreign) education. At the primary level, existing schools can only meet the needs of up to 10-15% of potential schooling population. In rural areas, it is rare to find any school operating; there are only a few villages with trained teachers and adequate educational infrastructures.

In Somalia there has never been a system of vocational schools for rural subjects based on general training to provide basic professional skills in the field of livestock rearing. The lack of specific institutes offering rural training is due to the Country’s limited experience in providing education and ineffective development projects sponsored by multilateral (UNESCO) and bilateral organizations (EU, NGOs). The only actor actually present in the field was the Ministry of Agriculture (in joint action with international agencies such as FAO), which organized some form of technical assistance based on public campaigns directed to offer new technical knowledge to farmers based on practical needs. The advisors of this programme have played a significant role by introducing innovation in rural areas and by motivating change in the form of knowledge dissemination and project-making capacity. Similar initiatives, although with more limited impact, have been carried out through European NGOs’ engagement in rural and livestock rearing sectors.

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<sup>12</sup> Siad Barre’s regime formally began on October 21<sup>st</sup> 1969, a decade after a temporary government under Italian guidance and control, and it ended in 1991.

### 2.5.3 Policy Suggestions

The actual situation of total lack of primary education (UNESCO (2005) literacy rates are 36% for males and 14% for females) and capacity building at all levels - secondary school, Universities, Training Centres for rural/medical and administrative skills - leaves ample space for new policies more geared to the locality and to virtuous mechanisms for self-development.

Somalia, with an economy mostly based on agriculture and livestock rearing (covering around 60% of GDP), should create an education system finalized at rural development. Basic education and literacy should be followed by professional training covering some fundamental issues such as:

- local resources knowledge;
- land redistribution without excessive fragmentation;
- introduction of high yield crops in rotation;
- livestock rearing;
- reduction or elimination of crop practices damaging the soil;
- management of associational/cooperative forms of enterprise.

Somalia's education system is expected to fulfil basic literacy along with polyvalent training through initiatives meant to be inclusive of traditional practices, without insisting on experimental processes far from immanent necessities. In the short-term, the suggested perspective is to link schooling and agricultural undertakings both intended as educational activities. Practical and theoretical work, spade and pen, action and reflection form the basis to achieve self-sufficient communities through school and village transformation.

A second issue deserving analysis relates to training and re-qualification of teaching personnel. This implies the following actions:

- to undertake an adequate pedagogy for actions in rural areas;
- to ensure the proper functioning of training systems at all levels;
- to create centres and laboratories, experimental enterprises, agricultural and forestry nurseries;
- to favour a process of knowledge exchange among different areas of the country where crop practices might differ.

A third policy to be pursued relates to the creation of a residential agricultural secondary school at national level. It should impart not only knowledge of a technical and practical nature, but rather provide a wider programme for capacity building. A good example is given by pre-collegial programmes within the Faculty of Agrarian Studies at Afgoy University. Within this system, young students with particular skills for theoretical analysis and project-design should be able to identify new models for productivity and national/international market trends.



Picture 6: Young Somali women reading a document and using GPS technology

## 2.6 Health services

### 2.6.1 Premise

In the context of fundamental human needs, there are some related to material wellbeing: food, shelter and health. Health is an end, a sort of objective variable, fulfilment of which is considered fundamental for the community since it is a need and a value and at the basis of any development process. Generally, health should not be simply considered as lack of illnesses rather as a physiological condition allowing normal physical and psychological activities. Services for health and hygiene are priority tools as a response to ensure the quality of health to citizens. They include all initiatives and structures meant to promote citizens' health intended as physical, social and mental wellbeing. Such services are preventive, curative and rehabilitative. Especially, prevention is necessary in order to track early discovery of diseases as well as to tackle the root causes of illnesses in order to eliminate them.

The health situation in Somalia can be summarised in the following data: life expectancy is 47 years; child mortality at birth is 133/1,000; child mortality rate before 5 years old is 225/1,000; maternal mortality is 1,600/100,000; child malnourishment before 5 years old is 26%; child's measles immunization before 12 months is 40%; genitalia mutilation is 92% -98% in rural areas-; doctor-patient ratio is 1/68,000. All data are derived from IUCN- Eastern Africa Regional Office – Country Environmental Profile for Somalia (2008).

## 2.6.2 Historical Perspective and Current Situation

Before Siad Barre's government collapsed in early 1991, Somalia had a public health system overseen by the Ministry of Health. It was decent system considering Africa's health standards. Somalia had some general hospitals –concentrated in the urban areas-, regional hospitals, paediatric clinics and health centres. Somalia's health system started to decline in the mid-1980s (health expenditure decreased from 4-5% to 2% of total expenditure- Sub-Saharan average is 6%-) and a wide disparity of health services emerged between Mogadishu and the rest of the country. Since the early 1990s, around 80% of the total population lack any access to basic health services. The impact of the subsequent 20 years of civil war has strongly affected the health system to the point of losing almost everything: medical personnel and paramedics, infrastructure, management apparatus and service provision<sup>13</sup>.

The current health status of rural communities in Somalia is dramatic, especially after two decades of civil war and absence of institutions. There is a substantial lack of basic health services, of minimum safeguards for essential facilities and of professionals at all levels from nurses to doctors. As underlined in the premise, Somalia has some of the worst health indicators in the world and its key social indicators are declining. Tuberculosis and malaria are the most widespread and endemic diseases at all ages, while malnutrition, gastroenteritis, measles and respiratory tract infections are the most common causes of childhood illness and mortality. Moreover, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) are common in the female population, the life of one in every two pregnant women is at risk and maternal mortality, resulting from various complications in pregnancy and childbirth, is among the highest in the world. Factors influencing maternal mortality include: female genital mutilation; low education and literacy; low demand and access to family planning services; lack of adequate access to professional health services during pregnancy and delivery and poor nutritional status of women.

International agencies and the private sector have attempted to fill the evident lacks and increasing inequalities. Yet, because of a general absence of regulations, safety and adequate incentives; inequalities in accessing basic health services have also worsened. Urban areas have some minimum coverage while rural areas are totally uncovered. The only programmes co-financed by international agencies were intended to manage emergencies through actions specifically designed for the fight against malnourishment, polio eradication, EPI, HIV, tuberculosis and malaria control. Very few initiatives relate to rural areas and health services for nomadic communities.

Despite the international agencies' efforts, 85% of the population especially those in rural areas have no access to the health system. The hygienic condition is also quite dramatic: drinkable water is not generally available (10-12% in rural areas) and half of the population in Somalia does not have access to toilets. Moreover, abandoned trash creates a situation of danger for health, especially in metropolitan areas such as Mogadishu. Most of the population is at risk by consuming contaminated water and exposure to bad hygiene, therefore it is prone to water-borne diarrhoeal diseases and gastroenteritis. Although children, women and elderly people are most vulnerable to such conditions, the widespread presence of infectious diseases can also affect young people and adults of working age

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<sup>13</sup> The civil war has drastically reduced the possibility for the population to receive health treatments, especially in rural areas. Data regarding MDG achievements clearly indicates the seriousness of Somalia's health system failures. For example, Somalia has the highest levels of child mortality -225/1,000 under 5 years old- and mortality at delivery. Considering the current situation, it's unlikely Somalia will be able to achieve MDG objectives by 2015.

hence negatively affecting the economic development of rural communities. What is left of health services in rural areas, which also comprises traditional healing, is organized as follows:

**1. small clinics for surgery.** This is a set of centres located in cities or villages. They offer limited treatments -also involving surgery- mainly geared to children: tonsillectomy, tooth extraction, nose bleeds and other similar situations. There are no hygienic and health measures hence patients usually experience intense suffering. Beside the psychological trauma derived from such practices, there is also a substantial risk of infection and other complications. The number of children who die as a consequence of treatments in these centres is unknown.

**2. traditional healing.** Traditional healers rely on a different methodology based on a personal approach. Some claim to have inherited such skills from previous generations. They use herbs and substances of unknown origin. Side effects of these cures are also unknown.

**3. ritual healing.** Ritual healers are very common in villages and treat patients through spiritual rhetoric of supra-natural forces. Their actions are fuelled by superstitions and abuses of psychological fragility. Sometimes they only recite sections from the Koran; some ritual healers claim that “Satan” or “Evil forces” target the patient and it is their duty to defeat this.

### 2.6.3 Policy suggestions

The main diseases that necessitate government priority are:

- tuberculosis and malaria, both affecting all ages and all areas where the population lives;
- gastro-intestinal disease and malnourishment, the latter increases child mortality;
- STDs (e.g. AIDS, syphilis, gonorrhoea etc.)<sup>14</sup>

In this framework, it is urgent for governmental authorities to create a policy founded on the principle of health for all. This goal requires provision of health services to all before investing in advanced medicine and costly hospitals with specialist personnel. The limited funds should be destined to the whole population, especially to rural communities, in order to create a basic safety net in the case of illness. Rural medical personnel should be trained locally in order to extend health coverage in villages.

In the last years, there have been positive signals in some areas of Somalia, especially in regions where peace and relative safety had continued during the recent conflicts. For example, around 30 small hospitals, 73 centres for maternal and child health (MCH) and 132 health centres have started operating thanks to the support of foreign donors and NGOs. Such initiatives came from local doctors, in joint action with some Somali investors; they are running good health services. Unfortunately, this effort is not enough since it only satisfies a limited demand. Other significant hospitals are to be found in the self-declared Republic of Somaliland (Maternity Hospital), Bossaso and Galcaio (autonomous region of Puntland). In the latter city, the hospital structure offers health services and rehabilitation to

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<sup>14</sup> Men having more than one wife facilitate the transmission of such disease. Somali women do not receive any sexual education and they all experience genital mutilation. In addition, women feel uncomfortable about openly discussing sexuality hence it limits the ability of health workers to perform check-ups. People working in the health sector need to pay greater attention to build a dialogue with women. Often even men fail to seek a cure for sexual diseases, leading to a lose-lose situation. Both issues need to be undertaken seriously.

Mudug communities –of which Galcaio is capital- and to people living in neighbouring regions: Galgudud, Nugal. The faculty of medicine at the University of Aound located in East Africa (Bossaso), Hargeisa and Mogadishu provides an important opportunity to train qualified medical personnel in managing health services within and outside hospitals.

A limitation to positive evidence in favour of the health sector –on which Somalia needs to develop a new policy discourse-, emerges from the current dominant private health system access to which is limited to very few. A medical check-up in these structures costs around 50,000 Somali Shillings -equal to 3 US\$-. Evidently, the medical fee is not the only expense: there are also medical tests, radiography etc. In urban areas 50% of the population lives on less than 1 US\$ per day, in rural areas usually less. Because of low-income, access to health services is only for a small percentage of the population, especially for households receiving remittances.

Particular mention also needs to be made in relation to medications: there is no authority able to regulate the pharmaceutical sector. Recently, there has been a strong increase of pharmacies managed by unqualified personnel (usually traders without education background) who sell expired medicines for personal profit without any knowledge of its impact on human health. It is easy to deduce the consequences. The situation in Puntland and Somaliland is quite different since there is a pharmaceutical authority within the government.



Picture 7: Somali farmers and their livestock

## 2.7 Institutions and governance

### 2.7.1 Premise

Adopting an institutional approach, a definition of governance is “*the act or manner of governing*” (Kjær, 2004: 3). It consists of traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. Governance is also expressed in relation to decentralization, privatization, formal and informal modes of interactions wherein power relations among institutions, other actors and the administrative sector are set defined roles in delivering collective choices (Kjær, 2004). The quality of governance has become a central concern in development policy debates worldwide. Nowadays, it is recognized - as stated also by Kofi Annan - that “*good governance is perhaps the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development*” hence in guaranteeing development progresses in many countries. The economic policies of the World Bank have recently swayed toward a conceptualization of good governance “*as referring to predictable and efficient government practices*” (Kjær, 2004: 163). It has been identified as an important goal to be pursued, by means of political and institutional reforms – i.e. minimizing corruption, supporting democratization, protecting human rights and in general improving internal organizational integrity - in order to guarantee the stability of a market environment for investments. As a consequence, there has been a proliferation of multilateral, bilateral and other types of initiatives to assess the quality of governance, including the World Bank Institute’s Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI), the UNDP’s Governance Indicators Project (GIP) and others (ODI, 2007).

### 2.7.2 Historical Perspective and Current Situation

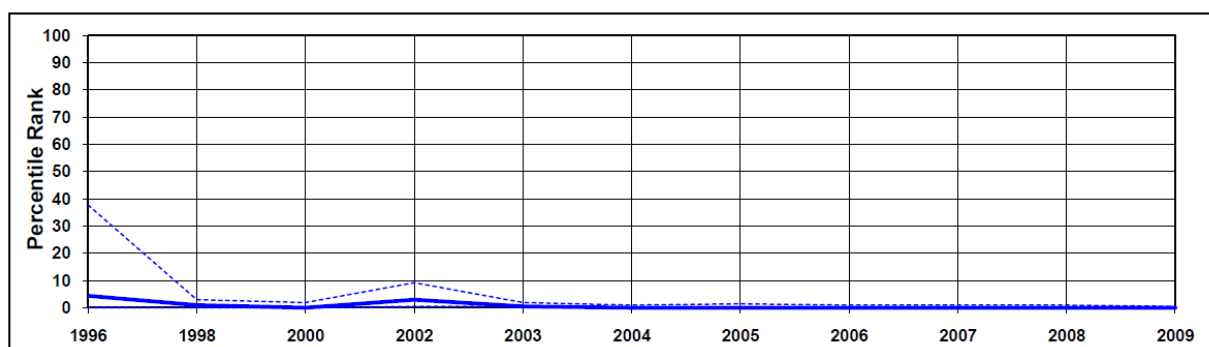
After the collapse of State institutions in 1991, Somalia has become “*one of the modern world’s most protracted cases of statelessness*” (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2009). The whole country suffers from the absence or limited capacity of public institutions, which are among the main causes of poor governance. Only a few of the above-mentioned international initiatives for assessing the quality of governance provide information on Somalia. The most important and well-known is the WGI, which assess six dimensions of governance in 213 countries worldwide: 1. Voice and Accountability; 2. Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism; 3. Government Effectiveness; 4. Regulatory Quality; 5. Rule of Law; and 6. Control of Corruption (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2009).

The assessment is based on aggregate indicators built on a series of publicly available disaggregated data from various types of sources. Aggregate indicators for the six dimensions are available for Somalia in the time span from 1996 to 2009 (World Bank, 2011). The following graph reports Somalia’s percentile rank on the WB indicator “Governance Effectiveness”; the percentile rank indicates the percentage of countries whose rate is below the selected country: Somalia<sup>15</sup>. From the graph, governance ratings are clearly very low in a comparative and absolute perspective. According to WGI (Figure 2.7.1), Somalia’s performance is similar among all other five dimensions of good governance.

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<sup>15</sup> The Graph also shows the margins of error (dashed lines, corresponding to a 90% confidence interval: it means there is a 90% probability that governance is within the indicated range).

Figure 2.7.1 – Government Effectiveness in Somalia 1996-2009



Source: Worldwide Governance Indicators, Country Data Report for Somalia, 1996-2009

The Bertelsmann Transformation Index (BTI)<sup>16</sup> indicates a similar trend. In a scale from 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest), Somalia gets an average score of 1.34 -in 2010- in relation to “*Status index*” (1.47 for “Democracy” or political transformation and 1.21 for “Market economy” or economic transformation). In addition, Somalia receives a score of 1.78 in the “*Management index*” (management ability of decision-makers in politics considering the level of difficulty). Overall, Somalia’s ranking is respectively 128 and 125 out of 128 countries for both indexes. WBI’s WGI and BTI low rankings are linked to serious nationwide political struggles and lawlessness affecting Somalia’s state level and are in concomitance with the failure of UN-backed TFG to establish itself as a government for national unity. In fact, the extremism of Islamist militias (including Al-Shabaab group) has grown in influence and conflicts are still on the rise.

### 2.7.3 Policy suggestion

The mainstream conceptualization of good governance should be integrated in the development process in order to prevent possible policy failures which have been identified by influential scholars, researchers and institutions (Bardhan, 2002; Cooke and Kothari, 2001). Good governance along with market development should be able to readdress for example power distribution and market-imposed neoliberal mechanisms in disregard to a **communal pattern of self-governance and cultural specificity**. The interaction between formalized processes of governance and customary practices/traditional institutions should leverage on a participatory and inclusive dialogue meant to reduce micro and macro power structures impeding self-empowerment and self-sufficiency. State managerialization and democratization do not always coincide, hence social justice and an effective voice from the powerless needs to be integrated into the current economic and institutional transformation, leading Somalia from failed State to solid State.

A key priority for the country is in fact “*to establish good governance*” (RDF, 2006 – Vol. II: 36). “Reconciliation and conflict resolution”, “security and rule of law”, “administrative governance”, “macroeconomic stability” and “public finance management” are considered as basic pillars in

<sup>16</sup> A global ranking of transition processes in which the state of democracy, the market economic systems and quality of political management in 128 countries worldwide are evaluated (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2009).

Somalia's Reconstruction and Development Framework. Key-goals have to be pursued and developed in order to improve governance at the national level, yet how to progress in creating and consolidating them is a critical issue.

On the one hand, continuous failures in re-establishing the Somali government at the national level, unresolved internal conflicts and structural constraints have progressively reduced the capacity (and motivation) of local communities to trust public institutions. On the other, Somali society is characterized by a complex clan structure with an internal social equilibrium. Among various strategies and policy tools for re-building a national dialogue, reconciliation is fundamental for consensus - and legitimacy building of governance institutions. It implies the recognition and transformation value of *traditional and religious leaders* at the local level; and *civil society organizations* like NGOs and professional associations.

On the basis of previous concepts, good governance includes at least two fundamental components: "multi-level governance", implying relationships among different levels of the same administration (vertical interplay) and "local governance", implying relationships between the public administration and other actors (horizontal interplay). Governance development needs to address local governance functioning by enhancing district councils in dialogue with traditional governance modes and actors. Public organizations should also be re-structured in order to improve institutional capacity in providing public goods and services demanded by Somali citizens in an effective, transparent, impartial, and responsible manner. A bottom-up approach is needed through a concerted action and dialogue with local actors; for example by engaging traditional community spaces like the house of elders.

Local governance solutions can be spread later and looped back as feedback for the public administration in order for the following situations to be taken into account. Local governance solutions might be different in the independent -although internationally unrecognized- Republic of Somaliland (North-West) on its way to a state-building and democratic transformation. The autonomous regional state of Puntland (North-East) also presents a different context where simple governance structures have recently been established. The most critical situation persists in the remaining territory of Somalia (South and Central), where more than 14 reconciliation attempts among clans failed to establish a unifying building government. In such a heterogeneous country, it remains of utmost importance to invest in leaders capacity building of governance processes; collaborative learning skills; training and the creation of reliable service institutions operating in local scale key-activities.

## PART 3

### Central-Southern Somalia: Forum analysis and proposals

#### 3.1 Forum working methodology

Development is a multidimensional process that requires acceptance and cooperative learning among proponents and those who receive it and who actively take part in it. It also requires negotiation due to cultural and strategic differences between the parts. Development is not just intervention from outside, not even intervention provided to a beneficiary and resulting just in reinforced dependency. Development is a process that aims at the enhancement of communities, identifies problems, shares the objectives, selects project actions in a framework of agreed priorities.

In the light of this vision, the *International Forum on Rural Development in Somalia*, supported by Padova University staff and encouraged by the experience of IFAD staff, first of all defined and listed several problems that at present affect rural communities in Somalia (Part 2 of this report). Forum participants then developed items of action and - in relation to these - specific policy suggestions identified through an inclusive and participative process.

Analysis, items of action<sup>17</sup> and policy suggestions emphasized economic sectors that are expressions of livelihood strategies for villages and rural families: agriculture, pastoralism, livestock, forestry and fishery. The forum participants are aware that such activities can evolve just within the framework of a larger and integrated rural economy. Both the analysis and the proposals have been referred to an integrated rural economy scenario.

Items of action that emerged from the Forum have been put into connection with some major objectives that represent sub-sections of the following list:

- improvement of the general context in rural areas with special reference to environmental and territorial aspects;
- poverty and food-insecurity reduction by improving and diversifying agriculture and livestock production capacities;
- promotion of rural non-farm activities (handicrafts, trade, transports, etc.);
- improvement of individual skills (productivity, innovation, dynamism);

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<sup>17</sup> Key terms of explanation, later reprised in the following tables:

- Items of Actions: objects/issues/items related to what possible actions International Cooperation should take, according to the Forum's participants
- Potential Policy Achievements: what kinds of undertakings and possible achievements should follow through actions in line with the Forum's point of view about underlined objects/issues/items
- Level of Action: whether actions should be carried out at village level (VL), rural district level (DL) or state level (SL).
- Policy Suggestions: possible guidelines to be applied during policy making processes at all levels.

- dissemination of basic health services (prevention, treatment, rehabilitation);
- strengthening of the collective skills of the populations (community organizations).

Policy suggestions proceeding from items of action have been filtered through a common matrix organized according to the following components that should be considered in the design of future project proposals:

- use of renewable resources available at local level;
- improved and extended effects over time;
- low dependency on inputs from outside;
- involvement of workers with special attention paid to young people.

Subsequent proposals shall be interpreted on the basis of this theoretical and practical paradigm and are mainly intended for Central and Southern Somalia, because other areas in the Country, while still enjoying a difficult situation, are in a phase of greater social stability and in a slow process of self-development.

## 3.2 Environment and natural resources

### 3.2.1 Overview

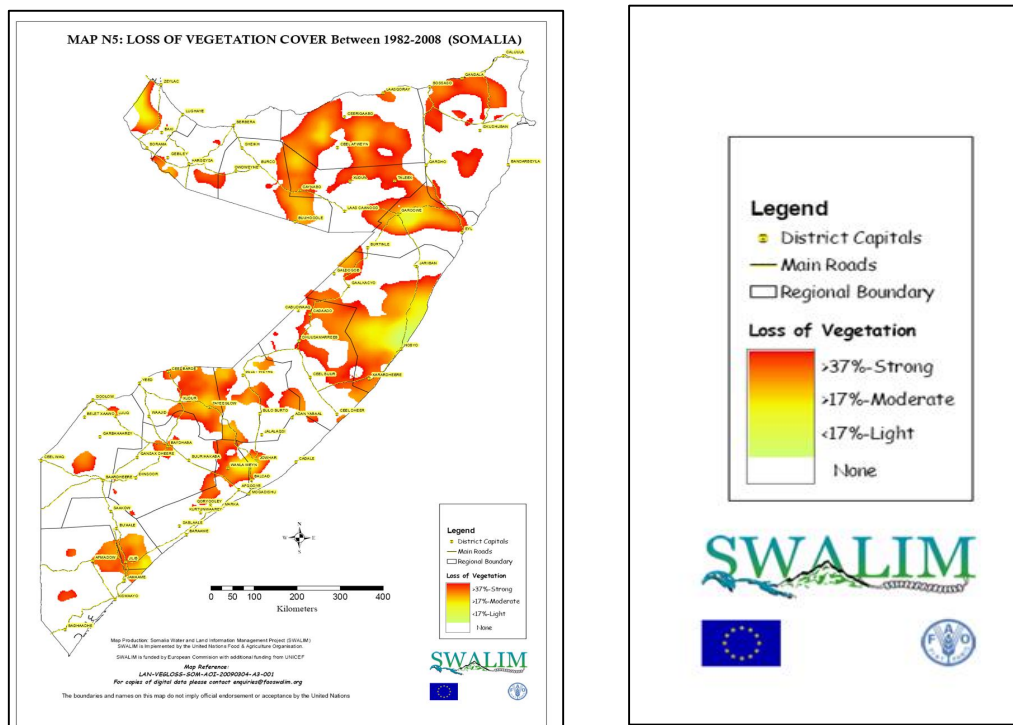
The United Nations recognizes that reduction and degradation of environmental resources are globally considered as major problems and two of the main threats for human life and wellbeing. Resource scarcity and management incapacity have often been the driving forces of harsh conflicts. This is particularly relevant in the Horn of Africa, where people usually concentrate their economic activities and household lives next to the main environmental resources. As a consequence, such resources result as being the places normally hosting local friction and ethnic clashes. This section will focus on a selection of environmental and natural resources including water, forests and scrublands, biodiversity and the coastline and sea life.

**Water** - indispensable in semi-arid countries like Somalia - is also one of the most threatened and scarce resources. The Horn of Africa suffers a continuous depletion in terms of water quantity and even of its quality: according to the UN Economic Commission for Africa, Somalia is one of 13 African countries that will face water scarcity by 2025. This is due to a combination of ecological, environmental and human factors. The scarcity of annual rainfall, ranging between 50 and 150 mm per year, plays a major role in reducing water availability. Additional effects depend on human practices such as the overuse of surface water flowing from the Ethiopian upland by the Somali population. As recognized by researchers and International organizations, the banks of the two main Somali rivers, Jubba and Shabelle, host most of the settlements and intensive agricultural areas of the country. Nevertheless, the remaining ephemeral watercourses allow the maintenance of conspicuous groundwater volume used both by local dwellers as well water (blue-water) and by trees for evapotranspiration (green-water). This water is of vital importance to ensure the existence of the second most important extensive land resource: forests. Water availability is also affected by inappropriate land use measures, including overgrazing or crowding around watering points and deforestation for charcoal production.

The latter clearly shows the link between management of water and forest resources. Covering 23% of the country area, **forests and scrublands** provide rural people with an alternative source of income based on charcoal and non-timber forest products (NTFPs). As highlighted by the most recent FAO Forest Resource Assessment, however, forest resources have suffered badly from recurrent droughts and massive tree cutting practices. The absence of law and order for nearly two decades has worsened the situation: for example since 1980, there has been no forest inventory in Somalia. According to International Agencies such as FAO, the external demand for wood-based-fuel by the Gulf States has led to a dangerous pattern of deforestation and forest depletion that in the last two decades removed over 18% of the total forest surface (Figure 3.2.1). Although the export of charcoal has been banned by Somalia's TFG, the trade has been booming in the last years. Most of the charcoal is transported to the Gulf States and Saudi Arabia, where a bag fetches about 15 US\$, while traders pay about 5 US\$ to cut and burn the charcoal.

The consequences are of utmost importance: while charcoal production is jeopardising Somali forest remnants, export demand is also strongly increasing the cost of charcoal on the domestic market. Rural-urban migration has contributed to enhance charcoal production, representing so far a sure economic touchstone for rural areas in Southern Somalia. In environmental terms, charcoal impacts are multiple, affecting mainly soil erosion and fertility. As a consequence, the capacity to prevent flash-floods or landslides during the rainy season has dropped dramatically. Clearcuts also accelerate organic matter direct mineralization, thus reducing water storage capacity of the soil. Moreover the scrub pastoralism has changed the usual path moving out of the traditional routes. This has had an indirect effect due to the rivalry among the nomadic tribes that quickly transformed into local conflicts.

Figure 3.2.1: Loss of vegetation cover in Somalia between 1982 and 2008



Source: Swalim, 2011.

Deforestation and forests conversion to croplands also affect biodiversity in terms of both loss of species and habitat degradation or even extinction. Habitat loss may dramatically impact on human life, due to depletion of the freshwater table that is slowly substituted by salty water, a process that may not be reversed in the short-term. Biodiversity loss also represents a threat for natural areas other than forests. Environmental problems can be seen, for example, with regard to scattered grasslands used for grazing cattle, where the coexistence with wildlife is impossible due to the high competition of animals for the same resource. Because of recent droughts, the conflict between domestic and wild animal species (herbivorous) became even harder, taking some species near to extinction. This is the case, for instance, of wild donkeys (*Equus africanus* and *E. grevyi*) that are considered critically endangered and count only some dozen examples still alive.

Environmental problems, however, do not just involve Somalia inland: they also affect the **coastline and sea life**. Somalia has the longest coastline in Africa, with a rich marine environment as a result of the confluence of surface ocean streams. Though it represents a world fishery hotspot, the lack of infrastructure, technologies and traditions attracts many illegal, unregulated and unreported foreign vessels to the Horn of Africa, with dramatic consequences on fish stocks. According to different sources, losses due to illegal fishing range between 95 and 300 million US\$ a year. Apart from fishing activities, another reported problem is the dumping of toxic waste off the Somali coast. That such dumping occurs is not open to question, however the scale and sources are difficult to validate. This started in the 1980s and has only reduced in amount in the recent past. The issue of dumping waste in Somalia has both legal and moral questions, as the dumping violates international treaties on the export of hazardous waste.

When considering environmental problems and threats, the dual dimension of their causes may be highlighted. In fact, they may be nature-induced or human-induced. In the first case, problems are linked to natural processes and, in most cases, they are connected to global climate change, hence the intensification of extreme events might be contrasted only at international scale. In the second case problems may be solved using internal human capital coordination. Many reports and studies have been produced with regard to human induced environmental problems and their potential solutions in the Somali context<sup>18</sup>. No doubt exists, however, that the absence of conflicts and the re-establishment of a stable political and socio-economic framework is a basic pre-requisite to develop, plan and adopt any effective solution for the protection of environmental resources.

### 3.2.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

Seven items of action were originally presented and discussed within the framework of the Forum. Three of them were finally re-shaped and kept, and related policy suggestions were defined (table 3.2.1 and see note 16).

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<sup>18</sup> Mengistu *et al.*, 2007, Kassahud *et al.*, 2008, FAO-SWALIM technical reports (See: [www.faoswalim.org](http://www.faoswalim.org))

Table 3.2.1: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Environment and natural resources”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Restoration and protection of natural forests and forest production	1. Increase the number of forest nurseries 2. Actualize agro-forestry plantations systems 3. Creation and regulation of the charcoal market 4. Regulation of sustainable market mechanisms for non-wood forest products 5. Seed banks formation	1. VL 2. VL, DL 3. SL 4. SL 5. VL; DL	1. Legal framework for forest management and conservation 2. Regulation of market mechanism 3. Territorial planning with local communities and institutions
Water resources management: water source protection, catchment conservation	1. Berkel restoration 2. Wind blades wells construction 3. infrastructure establishment for water connection 4. Sand barrages for water containment provision	1. VL 2. DL 3. VL, DL 4. VL	1. Funding schemes for water conservation and management
Provide alternative sources of energy and improve efficiency in its utilization	1. Stoves upgrading 2. Greater access to alternative fuels (e.g. gas, kerosene, oil, etc.) 3. Production of biogas/biomasses. 4. Charcoal production process enhancement	1. VL 2. VL, DL, SL 3. VL 4. DL	1. Incentives and subsidies for alternative energies 2. Tax breaks for the private sector investing in renewable energies
* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL			

Source: own elaboration.

With reference to forest issues, suggestions proposed by the Forum include the creation of forest nurseries at community level as well as seed banks to assure appropriate inputs for them. Differentiation of forest products may improve the valuation of forests thus reducing overexploitation due to dependency on one product only (i.e. charcoal). In such a perspective good potentials seem to exist for non-timber forest products like Myrrh (*Commiphora* spp.). In order to tackle overexploitation of forests, the charcoal market should also be regulated. This may be done, for example, by creating alternative sources for raw material used in charcoal production - e.g. through the development of *ad hoc* plantations - and by supporting the adoption of different energy sources, in order to reduce the domestic demand for charcoal.

Forest management techniques adopted in natural forests should also be improved - e.g. by means of proper vocational training - in order to avoid indiscriminate clearcuts and preserve forest remnants. This also implies the rehabilitation of a proper legal framework with regard to management of forest (and, more generally, natural) resources.

Another area where policy suggestions were set up is the one regarding the improvement of small-scale agro-forestry systems at village level. The combination of trees and crops may be of paramount importance to provide local communities both with food crops and wood-based products. In particular

in semi-arid areas the plantation of shrubs may lead to multiple positive results because of their rapid growth that provides food for domestic animals and helps in reducing water losses due to transpiration. Shrubs may also provide shelter for trees, creating proper conditions for their growth and protecting them from browsing animals.

Water conservation and management represent a wide area of activity. Such issues are linked to forest and agriculture management aspects. Among potential project achievements indicated in table 3.2.1, the restoration of existing berkels can first of all be mentioned. Berkels are particularly important during the dry season, to guarantee water reservoirs and avoid rural people having to buy water from urban areas. In the past a huge network of berkels existed - on average one every 20 km - and they were normally created by coating natural soil hollows with plastic film, in order to collect rainwater. Problems to be addressed are those of high water salinity due to evaporation (it may be tackled and reduced simply by covering the berkels) and livestock trampling. Apart from berkels, water catchment infrastructures should be improved. This may include for example sand water storage barrages like those already experimented by IFAD in Somaliland. Such structures allow runoff to be stored in the voids of sandy riverbeds of ephemeral rivers or artificial hollows. Wells should also be developed, including both traditional shallow wells (in order to exploit aquifers that are near the ground surface) and wind blades wells. It should be noted that the introduction of such infrastructure must be accompanied by proper training with regard to their use and maintenance over time.

As regards alternative sources of energy, these are also closely connected to forest issues and charcoal production. Apart from improving charcoal production itself, by converting to sustainable methods (improved forest management, *ad hoc* plantations, etc.), other suggested actions include the introduction of improved stoves with reduced fuel consumption, in order to improve efficiency. Moreover, alternative fuels will be sought. Within this perspective, access to other fuels (e.g. gas, kerosene, oil, etc.) should be facilitated, with special attention to “self-produced” and renewable fuels, produced for example from livestock activities (e.g. biogas and biomasses). Before introducing any change, however, an accurate evaluation of whether rural people are ready to accept and support such change will be carried out. Preferences and technical/economic viability will also be investigated. Training is needed in any case, as already mentioned with regard to previous points.

### 3.3 Agriculture, Livestock and Forestry

#### 3.3.1 Overview

The formulation and implementation of agriculture, livestock and forestry development interventions in Central-Southern Somalia have to take into consideration the limitations imposed by the volatile political, social and economic environment. This context is characterized by the interdependence of continuous political, severe insecurity and instability problems that resulted in the erosion of social trust and customary institutions, the absence of state institutions and the disruption of infrastructure and local markets. Within such a framework, development interventions should be considered pilot and transitional.

As a result of the above-mentioned hostile political, social and economic environment, the rural population in Central-Southern Somalia is extremely poor with no access to assets or income

opportunities. Rural livelihoods are characterised by food insecurity, low nutrition status and based on low productivity and unsustainable agriculture, livestock and forestry production practices.

Rural households can be grouped in 3 categories:

- **pastoralists** raising camels, cattle and small ruminants in varying small and medium herd size and composition depending on wealth, tradition and market demand. Their access to food and income is through the production and sale of animal products: meat, milk, skins, hides and wool;
- **rain-fed agro-pastoralists** practising a varied mix of integrated crop/livestock production systems under rain-fed conditions. Their access to food and income is through the production and sale of agriculture products, mainly sorghum, maize, cowpea, sesame, groundnut, and cassava and livestock products in the forms of milk, wool and live animals for meat;
- **irrigated farmers** with access to food and income through the production and sale of high value fruits such as citrus fruit, papaya, banana and pineapple. They also produce field crops such as maize and sesame; and fresh vegetables such as tomato, onion, cabbage, carrot and peppers. Irrigated farmers are also engaged in livestock activities.

With regard to agriculture, the major part of the land area in Central Somalia receives low rainfall with uneven seasonal and annual distribution. The agro-ecological systems are typically rangelands, dominated by Acacia woodlands, scrub, and grassland suitable mainly for pastoralism. In specific locations where water harvesting and moisture conservation technologies are applied, agriculture is combined with pastoralism. Livestock production under pastoral and agro-pastoral system is increasingly threatened by pasture and land degradation. Major constraints include lack of veterinary services, overgrazing, shortages of animal fodder during the increasingly recurrent drought years, lack of water points, and shortage of fodder supply on the market along the livestock routes for export to the Gulf States.

Southern Somalia has a high potential for irrigation through mobilization of the available surface water that is presently under-utilized. Crop intensification and diversification would include: cereals - mainly rice and maize; high value fruits for export, namely banana, citrus fruits especially grapefruit, pineapple, papaya and guava; and field crops such as sugar cane, oil crops and a wide range of fresh vegetables. The primary agriculture areas for irrigation are located in the Shabelle and Juba river valleys. The existing irrigation canals are completely deteriorated and sedimented up, resulting in a low water use efficiency and crop productivity. There is also a significant potential for rain-fed agriculture in Southern Somalia and particularly in the Bay and Bakol regions. The predominant food crops cultivated under rain-fed conditions are sorghum, maize and cow peas using traditional low-input techniques with limited access to animal traction and agriculture machinery for land preparation. Agriculture support services such as extension, financing and marketing are completely lacking. In addition, soil erosion and drought affect food and fodder availability particularly during the dry seasons.

Productivity in the livestock sector is strongly constrained by the lack of veterinary services and watering points, frequent droughts and shortage of fodder supply along the major livestock export routes.

As for the forest sector in the South and agro-forestry sector in Central Somalia, they are increasingly threatened by uncontrolled charcoal production. Both sectors have full potential to

improve rural livelihoods: the forest sector through promotion of sustainable management practices and management of non-timber forest products (see section 3.2), the agro-forestry sector through the domestication of fruit trees and high value commercial medicinal, aromatic and cosmetic plants.

Agriculture, livestock and forestry sectors can offer concrete opportunities to increase production and productivity at community and household levels in Central-Southern rural Somalia. This would involve areas where security conditions are conducive to transitional in-conflict and/or post-conflict emergency development activities and for which grant financing and partnerships between local and international NGOs can be mobilized for capacity building and the development of critical support services.

### 3.3.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

Fifteen items of action were originally presented and discussed in the Forum. Many of them were slightly re-defined, while two were not included in the final set of proposals: access to the local market (demand side) and effective land tenure legislation. For those that were kept potential project achievements were drawn up and policy suggestions defined. For a better understanding, items of action, project achievements and corresponding policy suggestions have been split into two separate sub-sets, covering “market access and productivity” (table 3.3.1) and “primary sector” (table 3.3.2).

Table 3.3.1: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Environment and natural resources for market access and productivity”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Market-oriented surpluses based on cooperation and agriculture production diversification	1. Livelihood diversification to increase local market dynamism 2. Household self-sufficiency for vegetables and production surplus for trade.	1. VL 2. VL	1. Programmes to protect and facilitate market access for poor communities. 2. Cross-institutional effort to diversity livelihood.
Increased productivity for irrigated areas, access to market in rain-fed ones	1. Effective irrigation systems in rural areas. 2. Incentives for small-scale production of vegetables 3. Enable farming to connect producers with the trade network. 4. Application of post-harvesting techniques.	1. VL 2. VL, DL 3. DL 4. DL	1. Productivity plan according to local needs, implemented through decentralized governance and resource mapping.
Ancillary activities to enhance livelihood and sustainable productivity.	1. Reintroduction of local varieties for seeds 2. Restoration of traditional techniques for fertilization. 3. Creation of stocking and packaging systems for surplus conservation. 4. Vocational training	1. DL 2. DL, VL 3. VL 4. DL, VL	1. Government sponsored education programmes inclusive of traditional knowledge and skills building.

\* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL

Source: own elaboration.

Table 3.3.2: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Environment and natural resources for agricultural sectors”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Agriculture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Local cultivation of traditional wild forest fruits for livelihood and trade</li> <li>2. Development of small-scale livestock management systems and grazing control action through mapping and defining grazing rights.</li> <li>3. Specific crop cultivation in rain-fed area (i.e. sorghum) and provision to local communities of inputs and techniques to improve the farming system.</li> <li>4. Reliance on traditional solidarity-based community structures engaging young people.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. VL</li> <li>2. SL, DL</li> <li>3. DL</li> <li>4. VL, DL</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Definition of legal rights to land.</li> <li>2. Definition of legal rights to communal land management.</li> <li>3. Institution of government agencies within local institution to provide technical support in agriculture.</li> </ol>
Fishery	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Spread and incentive artisanal, village-level fisheries.</li> <li>2. Educate communities about fish and their preservation techniques as possible livelihood source.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. VL</li> <li>2. VL, DL</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Subsidies and technical support for households deciding to undertake fishing as livelihood option.</li> </ol>
Livestock production improvement and market access	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Support and creation of network of veterinary centres</li> <li>2. Livestock diversification for livelihood.</li> <li>3. Meat preservation for trade or livelihood.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. DL</li> <li>2. VL</li> <li>3. VL</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Funding for the establishment of veterinary centres and technical assistance for livestock.</li> </ol>

\* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL

Source: own elaboration.

The approach behind all items of action is to invest in the improvement of local livelihoods through revitalization of war and conflict disempowered customary institutions dealing with the management of natural resources. The approach also includes the development of agriculture and livestock support services to address the prevailing constraints hindering agriculture, livestock and forestry production. The selection of geographical locations, the interventions and implementation modalities should be done with the participation of local communities taking into consideration the probability to manage the insecurity risks safely. Differences would have to be made between conflict areas for transitional emergency/pre-development activities and post-conflict and safe areas for development activities.

The main goal is to improve the income and livelihoods of rural households in Central-Southern Somalia through increased production and productivity of rain-fed and irrigated crops, agro-forestry and livestock. In order to reach such a goal, specific objectives are to be achieved: rehabilitation of irrigation infrastructure, access to technologies and agriculture services, improved veterinary services, water points for animals and fodder supply along major livestock routes.

Depending on agricultural techniques, different development proposals can be suggested. They follow the agro-ecological situation of different areas, as represented in figure 3.3.1.



LEGEND									
Agro-Ecological Zones									
1	2L	6L	11V	14X					
2aC	2R	8C	13N	D					
2aG	2S	8G	13S	F					
2aL	3V	8L	14G	M					
2aS	4L	8V	14P						
2C	5C	9S	14S						
2G	6G	10S	14V						
					Settlement	Main Road	River		

AEZ	LGP (days)		Soils		Land suitability				Climate
	Gu	Deyr	description	classification	R Rainfed Agric	I Irrigated Agric	P Extensive Grazing	F Forestry plantation	
1	0	0		various	N	N	S3/N	N	desert
2G	<30	<30	calcareous and stony	Calcisols, Gypsisols	N	N	S3	S3	arid
2L	<30	<30	shallow	Leptosols	N	N	S3/N	S3, N	
2S	<30	<30	high salt content	Solonchaks	N	N	S3	S3	
2C	<30	<30	1 sandy 2 calcareous	Arenosols Cambisols	N	N	S3	S3	
2R	<30	<30	1 calcareous 2 shallow	Regosols, Fluvisols Leptosols	N	N	S3	S3, N	
2aG	<30	<30	high lime, gypsum content	Calcisols, Gypsisols	N	N	S3	S3	arid + altitude >500m
2aL	<30	<30	shallow	Leptosols	N	N	S3/N	S3, N	
2aS	<30	<30	high salt content	Solonchaks	N	N	S3	S3	
2aC	<30	<30	calcareous	Cambisols	N	N	S3	S3	
3V	<30	<30	1 calcareous, clayey 2 calcareous, loamy	Vertisols Regosols	S3	N	S3	S2, S3	arid
4L	<60	<30	shallow and/or stony	Leptosols, Regosols	N	N	S3/N	S3, N	
5C	<30	<60	1 calcareous, loamy 2 sandy	Cambisols Arenosols	S3, N	N	S2	S2, S3	
6G	<60	<60	high gypsum content	Gypsisols	S3	N	S2/3	S2	
6L	<60	<60	1 shallow 2 stony, calcareous 3 sandy, calcareous	Leptosols Gypsisols, Calcisols Arenosols	N	N	S2/3	S2, S3	arid - dry semi- arid
8G	<90	<60	high in gypsum, often stony	Gypsisols	S3	N	S2/3	S2	
8L	<90	<60	shallow	Leptosols	N	N	S3	S3, N	
8C	<90	<60	1 shallow, calcareous 2 high salt content 3 deep and clayey	Calcisols Solonetz Vertisols	S3	N	S2	S3	
8V	<90	<60	deep and clayey	Vertisols	S2	S2, S3	S2	S1	
9S	<60	<90	1 high salt content 2 calcareous, loamy	Solonetz Calcisols	S3	N	S2	S2	dry semi- arid
10S	<120	<30	1 high salt content 2 red loams, clays	Solonetz Luvisols	S2, S3	S3	S2	S2	
11V	60	90	1 deep and clayey 2 calcareous, loamy	Vertisols Calcisols, Regosols	S2	N	S2, S1	S2	
13S	<90	<90	1. high salt content 2 deep and clayey	Solonetz Vertisols	S3, S2	N	S2	S2, S1	
13N	<90	<90	1 deep, red, clayey 2 slowly permeable 3 deep and clayey	Nitisols Planosols Vertisols	S2, S3	N	S2	S2, S1	moist semi- arid
14S	<120	<60	high salt content	Solonetz, Solonchaks	S2, S3	N	S2	S2	
14V	<120	<60	deep and clayey	Vertisols	S2	S2, S3	S2	S1	
14X	<120	<60	1 imperfect drained 2 high salt content	Luvisols Solonetz	S2, S3	N	S2	S1, S2	
14G	<120	<60	1 poor drainage 2 high salt content	Gleysols, Stagnosols Solonchaks	S2, S3	S2, S3	S2	S2	
14P	<120	<60	slowly permeable	Planosols	S2	N	S2	S2	various
D	Dunes		sandy	Arenosols	N	N	S3/N	S3	
F	Floodplains		periodically flooded	Fluvisols	S3	S2	S2	S2	
M	Mountains		shallow	Leptosols	N	N	S3	N, S3	

AEZ = Agro-ecological Zones  
LGP = Length of Growing Period (number of days that precipitations exceeds half potential evapotranspiration)  
Land Suitability: S1=Highly suitable; S2=Moderately suitable; S3=Marginally suitable; N=Not suitable

Source: Swalim, 2011.

For **rain-fed agriculture** development, the interventions would include support to: (i) communities and farmer's groups for promoting the use of oxen and implements, as well as tractor hours for better land preparation and construction of earth dams for water collection on farm; (ii) access to improved and high yielding varieties; and (iii) access to hand tools and implements for weed control, crop harvesting and transportation of farm products.

For **irrigated agriculture** development, the interventions should include support to: (i) restore irrigation canals and access to water pumps; (ii) train communities and farmer's groups located along the secondary canals to maintain the irrigation infrastructure and water pumps; (iii) capacity building for the establishment of extension facilities and the promotion of private service providers in input supply, marketing and micro-finance.

For **livestock development**, the interventions should include support to: (i) improve the delivery of veterinary services through training of community animal health workers and veterinary assistants and the provision of toolkits; (ii) rehabilitate the existing animal watering points and construct new ones along major livestock export routes; (iii) diversify livestock species, for example by introducing chicken farming (in particular for agro-pastoralisms), rabbits, etc.

For **agro-forestry development**, the interventions should include support to (i) the introduce improved charcoal production and agro-forestry management practices; (ii) enhance agro-forestry products through domestication of commercial indigenous trees and shrubs; and (iii) promote beekeeping activities.



Picture 8: A villager in Somalia's dryland

### 3.4 Rural non-farm activities

#### 3.4.1 Overview

Any policy planning for RNF activities in Central-Southern Somalia has to take into account a civil conflict, severe insecurity, widespread poverty, IDP and the effects of recurrent droughts and famine. Furthermore, the rural areas of Central-Southern Somalia are characterized by both environmental

and social vulnerability. Today, the major challenge facing Central-Southern Somalia are thousands of IDP coming from both rural and urban areas: this means thousands of people looking for stable and decent life conditions.

RNF activities represent the second major source for rural livelihood in Somalia after livestock. They absorb surplus labour in rural areas and are complementary to the main economic sectors. With reference to Central-Southern Somalia RNF activities can be divided into handicrafts and small retail trade. The majority of handicraft activities are practised in Southern Somalia, while small retail trade is present everywhere in the country.

Rural handicrafts play an important role in terms of livelihood and income generation, especially for the rural poor. Just like the rest of the Somali economy, however, this sector has been affected by conflicts, drought and a lack of adequate external support. Ranging from blacksmiths to tanners, from hunters to masons, RNF activities have traditionally been the occupation of particular social groups in Somalia, some of which have suffered a certain degree of discrimination because of their skills. Many groups of nomadic pastoralists have historically marginalized other groups, such as artisans and farmers even though they were the main Somali workforce.

The crafts sector can also be analyzed in terms of *gender*. While men usually work as (un)skilled craftsmen such as blacksmiths or carpenters, Somali women usually produce traditional products such as camel wood carvings, camel bells, sewing products and woven straws, traditionally used in Somali houses. Women weave wicker baskets, bags and milk jars. If adequately supported and marketed, this livelihood generating activity could increase women's incomes and their economic opportunities. Moreover women's know-how could also offer opportunities for future training projects. For example, since the weaving of wicker baskets is a traditional practice, adult women with expertise could teach their skills to young girls. Handicraft products can be marketed locally. This for instance is the case of woven materials that are largely used in rural areas. Sewing is also a remunerative economic activity and a source of empowerment for women. Sewing projects for marginalized women, female heads of households or IDP may play an important social role. In some areas of Central-Southern Somalia women's groups rely on sewing to feed and dress their families. If women got the start-up capital to buy the tools they need through a micro-credit system and basic vocational training, they would be able to earn a decent standard of living, be productive and conduct a better life. Supporting women in RNF activities in Central-Southern Somalia amounts to helping the whole nation because there is no greater burden than that of caring for one's family and for the community as a whole.

In Central-Southern Somalia, handicrafts should be part of all poverty reduction and conflict resolution programmes and should be targeted in future training projects. Certain types of crafts (e.g. blacksmiths, carpenters and tailors) have been practised in Central-Southern Somali society for generations with the know-how being transmitted from father to son. The elders in these groups are the custodians of this vital traditional knowledge which is at risk of being lost. In addition to this, handicrafts can be a valuable source of employment opportunities for young people whose only alternatives are migration and enrolment in piracy or in the ranks of the infamous *Al Shaabab*.

Even though handicrafts have not been a major occupation in Somalia if not for certain designated groups, they could turn out to be extremely attractive for younger generations. Somalis are extremely pragmatic and, if properly motivated, could easily acquire the necessary skills.

Apart from handicrafts, small retail trade is the other dominant activity in Central and Southern Somalia and is the main source of livelihood for the poorer and for those who have no other means. The dominant retail trade sectors are: (i) sale of food; (ii) sale of agricultural and livestock products; (iii) sale of clothes and other items.

Again gender issues are relevant. The horticultural produce market is dominated by women: the supply/sale of such produce is their main source of survival since in many cases they have no other means of livelihood to guarantee their food security.

### 3.4.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

RNF activities could be one of the key areas for rural development that should be targeted for intervention. Rural handicrafts could offer solutions to a wide range of social problems. This sector could employ numerous social actors such as IDP, unemployed or ex-combatant youths and many other vulnerable groups that have lost their assets and are outside social safety nets.

The development of handicrafts programmes can also contribute to poverty reduction as well as food and livelihood security. Recovering and supporting these livelihood activities will benefit these communities and will allow them to overcome underdevelopment. Furthermore, handicrafts are complementary to the development of other sectors. For instance, the products forged by blacksmiths are important farm tools such as spades, hoes, shovels etc. used as both domestic and basic working tools. It should not be forgotten that RNF activities can also represent a way for the preservation and strengthening of local traditional knowledge.

Three items of action were originally presented and discussed within the Forum. They cover three main areas: education and vocational training, infrastructure (electrification), and financial resources with special emphasis on micro-credit. All of them were kept, although with slight changes and integrations, and related potential project achievements and policy suggestions were defined (table 3.4.1).

In general terms a strong need for training initiatives to improve skills and attract interest exists. When taking into consideration potential vocational training for this sector, three elements have to be taken into account: (i) traditional local knowledge, (ii) adult illiteracy rates, and (iii) the role of the media. In particular training programmes may present two main problems/difficulties: (i) the elders/knowledge-custodians' illiteracy, and (ii) the trainees' lack of basic education and experience.

The main activities identified in this area regard the identification/qualification of trainers - i.e. basically a matter of capacity building - and the definition and development of training programmes and laboratories. Such priorities cannot be independent from the elders/knowledge-custodians' illiteracy and the trainees' lack of basic education and experience. Solutions could be found in the use of media because Somali people are information addicted. Radio has been a major tool of information for people, even in rural areas. In addition to radio programmes, audio-visual materials (short films) could be used in the training activities and could prove to be more effective than formal and traditional teaching.

Table 3.4.1: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Rural non-farm activities”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Vocational training for youth: field construction, carpentry, mechanics	1. Identification of possible trainees and trainers 2. Training activities and laboratories for skill building	1. VL 2. VL, DL	1. Training objectives to be established in concerted dialogue between villages and Institutions. 2. Funding and designing training courses curricula for capacity building in rural communities.
Solar energy for rural electrification	1. Installation of solar panels at the community level	1. VL	1. Government subsidies and tax breaks for households and businesses installing solar panels.
Public institution of credit and micro-credit schemes	1. Implementation of rotating funds schemes. 2. Development of micro-credit expertise	1. VL 2. DL	1. Grants to Non-Banking Financial Institutions providing micro-credit and social programmes. 2. Ad hoc body establishment to channel lowest-interest public money in support of entrepreneurship in rural areas.

\* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL

Source: own elaboration.

Of course basic education (i.e. literacy and numeracy) is a prerequisite for vocational training for different life skills, as well as for the reintegration of ex-militia. As a consequence a strong link exists between action in the field of education and those related to RNF activities. Additional indications on training and education are provided in section 3.5.

Many RNF activities - including vocational training for them - may also require access to appropriate infrastructure facilities. Electric energy is surely one of them. Rural electrification may result as being a pre-requisite for a proper and effective development of RNF, at least in some areas. The need for solutions that allow a responsible exploitation of local resources and are easy to maintain could suggest the installation of solar panels. These, of course, would also require appropriate training for their maintenance and could turn into new job opportunities at local level.

Another relevant area to be developed is that of access to adequate financial resources and credit. The creation, implementation and maintenance of micro-credit systems to support the establishment and growth of RNF activities seems to be unavoidable. Micro-credit could allow start-up costs to be covered, including the purchase of machines (e.g. sewing machines for dressmakers/tailors) and other inputs. Within such a perspective community revolving funds for rural micro-enterprises development could be established. Micro-credit can operate both for individuals and solidarity groups. In the second case beneficiaries (normally women) are united in a group of 5 to 20 or even more members. This grouping approach provides a loan guarantee mechanism as well as a support group for common problem solving and a safety net for agreed short-term individual financial difficulty. Solidarity groups are organized as a formal association - having their own constitution, rules, regulations, Board and weekly meetings. New members wanting to enter the programme have to provide both a security

guarantee (a deposit) and a guarantor from the wider community that will support the worthiness of the applicant.

Many successful experiences exist, such as those of SAACID and POOLA. Another interesting example involving the Somali community took place in Kakuma Refugee Camp (Kenya). Members of the Somali community in the camp decided to start a micro-credit system to aid groups of women in their business initiatives. After one group had repaid its debt, a space opened up for another group. This system was so effective that Somali leaders estimate that nearly 90% of their population in the camp no longer depend on UNHCR aid.

### 3.5 Education and skill building

#### 3.5.1 Overview

The Somali educational system had improved a great deal during Siad Barre's regime, with special emphasis being put on primary education and on rural nomadic people. Despite this effort, the country's illiteracy rate in 1980 was around 85%. Since the Somali State failed in 1991 the national Somali educational system has basically collapsed. Where education services exist, they have largely been provided by community-based organizations, NGOs and faith-based groups. Teachers are for the most part paid through students fees and it is clear that two of the major constraints to the development of the public education sector are the limited amount of government finance, and the limited availability of well qualified teachers.

The failure of the Somali state has also hit Central-Southern Somalia and especially its rural areas where the educational system is either weak or absent. Central-Southern Somalia has one of the lowest primary school enrolment rates in Africa: only 16% of children of primary school age are actually enrolled in school and only one third of these are girls. Throughout Somalia, the gross enrolment rate for girls is 15% compared to 27% for boys, and the female adult literacy rate is estimated at 27% as compared with 50% for males, indicating that particular attention is needed to increase access to education for girls. These figures represent one of the worst female school enrolment rates in the world.

Currently, the number of primary schools (879) and teachers (7,108 mostly untrained) in Central-Southern Somalia is woefully inadequate, according to UN statistics. Furthermore, over the last two decades the Somali school system, where it exists, has become private, excluding poorer households from the educational cycle. Problems do not only refer to the lack of human resources and infrastructure, but also to the strong deficiency of teaching materials, including books and syllabus in Somali language. Since the outbreak of the civil war several attempts have been made to recover the pre-war school system. In particular, the educational sector has been part of projects sponsored by local, international and Diaspora organizations. According to studies on remittances and the Diaspora, education is the second major sector targeted by money from remittances.

The main problems affecting the education system in Central-Southern Somalia can be traced to three major key-factors. First of all war does not allow children to go to school because of the insecurity it creates and because young people enrol in the militia. This caused a real "lost generation"

of young people who were unable to pursue education during and after the conflict. IDP and migration phenomena also affected education, because people who have fled their homes and are temporarily settled elsewhere do not attend school nor provide their children with basic education. Last but not least rural poverty and underdevelopment influence the possibility to provide decent basic education. This is particularly true for girls: they are normally required to help their mothers at home and this largely prevents them from attending education activities. For Somali women, daughters are a primary aid when they have to feed and take care of entire households.

Future development projects should pay strong attention to a series of priorities, with special reference to weak groups like young people (in particular poorer rural children), IDP and women. Education activities (including non-formal ones) will need to focus on assisting the so called “lost generation”. Literacy and numeracy are critical for sustainable development, because they are prerequisites for vocational training for different life skills, as well as for the reintegration of ex-militia. Life-skills education development will be crucial for preventing major social problems, as for example an HIV/AIDS epidemic.

### 3.5.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

Three items of action were originally presented and discussed by Forum participants. Related policy suggestions to be implemented through pilot projects and scaling up were defined (table 3.5.1).

Table 3.5.1: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Education”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Rehabilitation of primary schools through infrastructure and programmes development.	1. Teaching staff requalification programmes. 2. School infrastructure improvement.	1. SL  2. DL	1. Spreading literacy through infrastructure development and teacher training in rural areas 2. Increasing government funding for education activities and teaching
Expansion of informal education through family-based learning for literacy, numeracy and basic learning	1. Extra-curricular activities for teaching staff. 2. Production of an appropriate syllabus inclusive of off-school educational activities.	1. DL, VL  2. DL, VL	1. Creation of mandatory extra-curricular activities for creativity development and professional skills 2. Launching family-based education opportunities through field professionals to improve livelihoods.
Technical assistance in institutional and community awareness for education	1. Training/education programmes via radio and other media.	1. SL, DL, VL	1. Provision of basic media access to all villagers to spread education awareness in rural areas.
* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL			

Source: own elaboration.

Future development projects should pay particular attention to a series of priorities. Vocational training, mainly for young people, seems to be of paramount importance. Existing constraints in rural areas impose the re-thinking of teaching approaches and programmes. Within this perspective the education system should be able to provide pupils with tools enabling them to acquire professional and practical skills in the short-term. This would suggest a “learning by doing” approach and the adoption of laboratories rather than traditional class activities. Moreover, difficulties related to re-introduction into specific education and training programmes of young people and children who have experienced the trauma of war will be considered. Vocational training programmes should cover the following fields, which at the present are largely uncovered in rural areas:

- well/berkel construction and maintenance;
- carpentry;
- trade operators training (agriculture-livestock value chain and marketing, food storage and processing, livestock value chain and animal fodder trade);
- agriculture and harvesting (farmers’ skills);
- handicraft training.

When considering vocational training, a specific set of initiatives to prepare, train and keep trainers updated will be put in place. Such trainers do not need to be professional teachers: they could be community members with specific skills and capabilities, wishing to take care of young people’s training needs. This would also facilitate young community members to approach the world of work with the direct support of already qualified professionals.

Together with vocational training courses intended to create professional skills it is important to develop specific courses for single sectors of communities and society. For example specific training on nutrition, childcare, sexual education, family care etc. should be implemented for young women/mothers. Basic literacy courses for adults should also be implemented.

Besides courses intended to educate individuals, community-learning courses on issues of collective interest should be developed. They could deal, for example, with issues like health and hygiene, cultivation techniques, community managed irrigation systems, community work for the improvement of existing road infrastructure, etc.

In addition to the definition of a new set of training activities programmes to support the production of teaching materials (e.g. syllabus, talking books, etc.) to be distributed among institutions operating in different districts will also be developed. Such materials are to be prepared using a simple language, easy to use, and introducing educational messages and input encouraging cultural integration. This also includes the recovery of teaching books in Somali language.

In Somali society memory and collective history are based on oral communication. As already mentioned with reference to RNF activities and related training (see section 3.4) media can play a key-role in improving education. Radio programmes that stimulate the curiosity of Somali society, by providing not only information but also entertainment, would be well accepted by the public. In a similar way films, documentaries, cartoons, etc. with an educational profile can be developed and used.

## 3.6 Health Services

### 3.6.1 Overview

The provision of health services in Central-Southern Somalia is very weak because of the limited number of operating health facilities and inadequate equipment, the shortage of skilled staff, inadequate training programmes and facilities and unpredictable availability of materials. Many health facilities are now run down and under-equipped. Moreover they tend to be concentrated in urban areas and service the relatively better off segments of the population. In a similar way, there are only 39 qualified doctors per one million people, unequally distributed throughout the country, and concentrated in the main towns. All these factors contribute - among other things - to the very high rates of under-five mortality (225 per 1,000 live births) and maternal mortality (1,600 per 100,000 and among the highest in the world according to UN statistics). The latter is an issue of pressing importance in Somalia and is strongly connected with that of girls becoming mothers at a very early age. The traditional custom to marry off daughters who have not yet reached full sexual maturity undoubtedly leads to an increase in maternal deaths because their bodies can still not be able to sustain the pregnancy and the lack of development of the pelvis does not allow them to give birth to children, often determining the death of both mother and child.

Additional health related concerns include (i) poor nutritional awareness, (ii) the widespread practice of chewing khat, an intoxicating plant, classified as an illegal drug in some countries, that has a major negative impact on both the physical and mental health status of users, (iii) female genital cutting/mutilation and (iv) the possibility of a burgeoning HIV/AIDS epidemic, though infection rates are currently relatively low. Problems may derive from mobile populations, including IDP, returnees and refugees who face increased vulnerability due to their mobility.

Priority outcomes include better health services for women and children as they are particularly vulnerable, and a reduction in vector borne and communicable diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis.

### 3.6.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

Four items of action were originally presented and discussed in the Forum. Two of them were slightly re-defined. All were kept and related potential project achievements, as well as policy suggestions were detailed (table 3.6.1).

The first real need to be addressed is connected to the development of appropriate health structures with adequate equipment, staff and materials. The health system should be re-organized as a network of health posts operating as outposts in rural areas. This also implies a clear set-up and definition of tasks and competences: health posts can ensure the management of routine and basic activities in the field of health, but need to rely on a higher level network of health centres to address more serious and complicated cases. For example tuberculosis and malaria are diseases whose diagnosis and treatment require specific technologies: while for the analysis of phlegm a microscope may be sufficient, the diagnosis of a tuberculosis lung requires radiology equipment. Since it is not

realistic to provide each health post with such technology, good connections with bigger health centres will be established.

Table 3.6.1: Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of “Health”

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Developing small health centres with adequate equipment and materials	1. Programmes against endemic diseases (TB and malaria) for the whole population. 2. Provision of technology, electricity or other energy supply system to support vaccinations.	1. SL, DL, VL  2. DL	1. Construction and provision of personnel for check-up facilities to be established in each village
Vector-borne diseases receive the necessary attention	1. Establishment of health centres specifically designed to improve maternal and child health.	1. DL	1. Same as above
Support awareness initiatives at community level about the risks of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Maternal mortality;</li> <li>• Infant mortality;</li> <li>• Female genital mutilation.</li> </ul>	1. Activation of health posts run by local professionals to inform local communities.	1. SL, DL, VL	1. Mass-scale health campaigns sponsored by all government stakeholders 2. Creation of public infrastructure to host professionals and events intended to spread preventive health for all critical issues.
Improving health information and monitoring through awareness programmes	1. Training programmes and information campaign on health issues in regards to food and hygiene for children.	1. VL, DL	1. Same as above
* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL			

Source: own elaboration.

When thinking about services to be provided by health posts in rural areas, no doubt exists about the fact they shall include vaccination for local people. The management of a vaccination system implies the adoption of proper technology to allow the vaccine to persist (and, therefore, to be used) over time. Once again - as already mentioned for RNF activities and education - this requires dealing with management of the electricity supply that is currently non-existent in rural areas. The adoption of simple solar or wind energy devices, together with proper training for their maintenance, could lead to an effective solution of the problem.

However healthcare is not just a matter of technology: human resources play a paramount role within it. Health staff (i.e. doctors, nurses, etc.) living and operating in rural areas shall be trained, compensated and kept up-to-date. Health conditions can also be improved by means of a widespread dissemination of information to communities through such personnel. This can help by improving health information, monitoring awareness programmes and changing behaviour with regard to issues such as nutrition, dietary requirements and sexually transmitted diseases. A privileged target audience is that of women and, more precisely, mothers who can be trained on care and attention to personal hygiene, children's nutrition, etc. As already observed for RNF activities (see section 3.4) and

education (see section 3.5) such issues can be included in the range of education initiatives and they can also be implemented by means of appropriate media (e.g. radio programmes, short films and cartoons, etc.).

To overcome poverty, to help the recovery of economic and social standards and improve the livelihoods of rural people; it is necessary to invest in people by providing integrated health and education interventions.

To conclude, the health sector is not totally separated and independent from other sectors and no doubt exists about the opportunity to improve the health of the population by following a set of priority actions along the lines of what has been described so far:

- improving access to safe water and sanitation facilities, balanced food and essential treatment;
- providing basic medical care through a network of sustainable primary healthcare centres (Health Posts) with suitable medical equipment and essential drugs in rural and urban areas;
- establishing and/or rehabilitating therapeutic and supplementary feeding centres for malnourished children and pregnant women in different areas (MCH centres);
- promoting health education and raising public awareness about the prevention of infectious/contagious diseases, personal and public hygiene, nutrition and environmental issues through the involvement of community leaders, religious figures, civil societies and women associations;
- organizing and promoting radio broadcasting programmes as well as written and pictorial advertisements;
- developing and increasing capacity of first line local health workers or professionals through Community Health Workers (CHWs), Traditional Birth Attendances (TBAs), midwives and nurses training facilities;
- rehabilitating a National Immunization and Vaccination Service.

## 3.7 Institutions and governance

### 3.7.1 Overview

Over the last two decades Somalia has become a failed State. The collapse of central institutions has compromised the Country, however it has also allowed the renaissance of local institutions at both district and regional levels. The Country has continued to rely on grassroots institutions that have been marginalized during the two decades of dictatorship by Siad Barre's regime. In this void, local institutions have resumed a crucial role in Somali society. Traditionally, these local institutions play the role of "*Xeer and Gole*": the rule of law regulating the clan system. In other words they are what we can call "social capital assets". Yet, the conflict has put traditional figures under stress. The once noble clan system has degenerated into tribalism and has been used by ruthless individuals/groups for personal and political gains. Despite all this, local institutions continue to operate under traditional figures (Sultans, Ugas, Malakh, Elders etc.) and under the rules of *Xeer and Gole* (*shir geed hoostiis*)

through customary popular assemblies to govern rural areas. The traditional Somali system is liberal, democratic (although it is dominated by men) and equitable. It is based on solidarity, collective action and consensus.

In Central Somalia local institutions seem to flourish as a system of self-governance. They have gained legitimacy because of guaranteed stability relying both on clan loyalties and terrorism. However, they are not formalized and lack both means and basic resources. Chronic insecurity and the complex social and political context has pre-empted local institutions from asserting themselves as effective mechanisms of governance. The major difficulties facing rural institutions are fragility, fragmentation and vulnerability. In fact, beyond the lack of basic resources, rural institutions struggle to apply and enforce the rule of law. This is at the root of several social injustices and inequalities. Institutions in Central and Southern Somalia need to be supported and modernized in order to resist hostile internal and external pressures aiming to destroy them. Furthermore, rural institutions should gain their legitimacy at the local level as a model to create democratic institutions as the ultimate strategy for a bottom-up approach to peace building through a participatory approach.

### 3.7.2 Items of action and potential project achievements

Institution strengthening/building is vital for the future of Somalia. Supporting institutions at all levels remains a key factor for its future development. Two items of action were originally presented and discussed by Forum participants. Related potential project achievements and policy suggestions are listed in table 3.7.1.

Table 3.7.1 - Items of action, potential project achievements and policy suggestions identified in the area of "Institutions and governance"

Items of action	Potential Project Achievements	Level of Action*	Policy Suggestions
Support already existing rural informal institutions through interaction with community leaders	1. Conducting workshops and surveys to identify community needs in rural areas 2. Empowerment and training of leaders to improve: governance capacity, participatory learning, social justice, and planning skills.	1. VL 2. SL, DL, VL	1. Governance mechanisms meant to legitimate local knowledge and the moral economy
Reinforcement and empowerment of local/district government institutions	1. Rehabilitation or creation of properly equipped community centres 2. Rehabilitation or creation of other aggregation centres (e.g. cooperatives)	1. VL 2. DL, VL	1. Funding to create basic infrastructure for governance in each village.
* Household/Village Level=VL - Rural District level=DL - State level=SL			

Source: own elaboration.

Repeated failures to reactivate the Somali State have gradually undermined the confidence of local communities in central institutions and the Government. Conversely, traditional systems of community management have strengthened. Recognizing the knowledge systems of local communities and dialogue creation should be the first step to gradually rebuilding a sense of trust in governance institutions. With this aim, local institutions at district level should be reinforced both in terms of

equipment and, above all, human capital formation and staff resources in order to effectively interact with local communities. By supporting existing rural formal/informal institutions and by enabling local governance, social impacts can be deeper and community's internalization of the rule of law reinforced. As shown in the following table, a series of issues arise in project achievements meant to improve governance structure: empowerment, skills building, community needs, moral economy etc.

As table 3.7.1 shows, **a community approach** will be considered since most sites of actions are intended not only to address specific community problems and needs, but also to give a perspective on everyday life and the real magnitude of struggle. Local institutions will have to be strengthened from within, by socially empowering and politically engaging rural communities in a participatory manner. Development through governance implies multiple issues of democratization and delivery; hence addressing issues related to human resources for governance infrastructure and social transformation of oppressive mechanisms -in harmony with pre-existing anthropological patterns- is of fundamental importance. The creation of new interactive patterns of community dialogue can improve the already "fragile" **social equilibrium**. Governance systems in such a perspective can be integrated in the action of creating favourable conditions for the development and growth of civil society and private sector initiatives. The latter implies support to youth organizations in building awareness about the opportunities offered by local/central institutions and the importance of convergent dialogue in the process of peace building. Women's organizations will also be involved and empowered through massive campaigns sponsored by decentralized Institutions in order to improve children's health and reduce the high rate of sexually transmitted diseases. Local and Diaspora NGOs should support this process with their existing skills and facilitate dialogue during the implementation process of development projects.

Combining the two main suggestions presented here, -participatory social empowerment and livelihood security- can trigger an acceleration in peace building and dialogue creation. It can also have significant impacts for health and government stability. The effort remains to maintain transparency and genuine political will in re-creating a local system of governance by synergizing with community forces. Local actions for human capital building, institutional trust, public good delivery and social change can be policy starting points for adjusting a right strategy, in cooperation with donors, to pursue development objectives through effective governance.



Picture 9: Village Meeting in Somalia

## PART 4

### WAY FORWARD

#### 4.1 Somalia's stakeholders in the development process

Recent events in North Africa (Tunisia, Egypt and Libya) are to be interpreted as human awakening among African people, especially the youth. A more pragmatic approach to development is appearing in relation to human rights, human aspirations, capacity development through freedom, and a democratic State as authority figure promoting such a model. In regards to the latter factor, many economists have argued that development plays a relevant role within the nation-state; a corrupt government system restrains unfolding potential embedded in communities.

In the last years, International cooperation has focused on “threats” related to global poverty, facilitating the spread of drugs, diseases, terrorism, and illegal large-scale migration to wealthier countries. Yet, such issues cannot exclude a broader perspective of action that International cooperation has traditionally engaged in: social justice and solidarity. In this regard, human development along the same line of thought as the Indian economist Amartya Sen - also endorsed by the UN - should be the main direction in policy-making within a renewed conceptual perspective of cooperation. The commitment to bring development prior to GDP growth and consumerism should aim at facilitating rights, capacities and opportunities acquirement in order for the human being to be central in such a self-empowerment process. Reaching such objective implies a complex set of relationships among stakeholders, as described in the following figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: International cooperation stakeholders in Somalia's development.



Source: own elaboration.

In such direction, a new approach of interaction is needed for donors and beneficiaries. The framework 4.2 introduces the concept of interaction among all stakeholders in the policy-making process as much as for development objectives establishment. Approaching divergent interests through dialogue and inclusivity is the starting point to effectively improve International Cooperation in Somalia's development.

## 4.2 Development cooperation in Somalia: an international framework

International cooperation is widely present in Somalia; its coordination centre is located in Nairobi as a consequence of continuous political insecurity in the national capital, Mogadishu. Despite substantial Official Development Assistance (ODA), the shortcomings along with policy ideas – as presented in the previous sections – are still many. In this section the issues analyzed so far are systematized into a more general policy direction – specifically as conceptualized by the *Reconstruction and Development Programme* – intended to improve Somalia's critical conditions (e.g. IDP). In order to fulfill and facilitate such processes development cooperation can leverage on a multidimensional harmonization of the following relationships:

- *multilateral cooperation*: the UN and its agencies;
- *regional cooperation on an inter-governmental scale*: IGAD and the Arab League States;
- *regional cooperation on a transnational scale*: the African Union and the European Union;
- *bilateral cooperation*: US, Norway, Italy, United Kingdom, Uganda, etc.;
- *non-governmental cooperation*: the International Consortium for Somalia inclusive of international and local non-governmental organizations.

Given the multiplicity of stakeholders involved, coordination and joint actions have been recognized as important features in pursuing various development objectives as established by the actors themselves. With this aim, several coordination initiatives have been proposed, such as the International Contact Group (ICG) and a forum within the “International Donor Community for Somalia”.

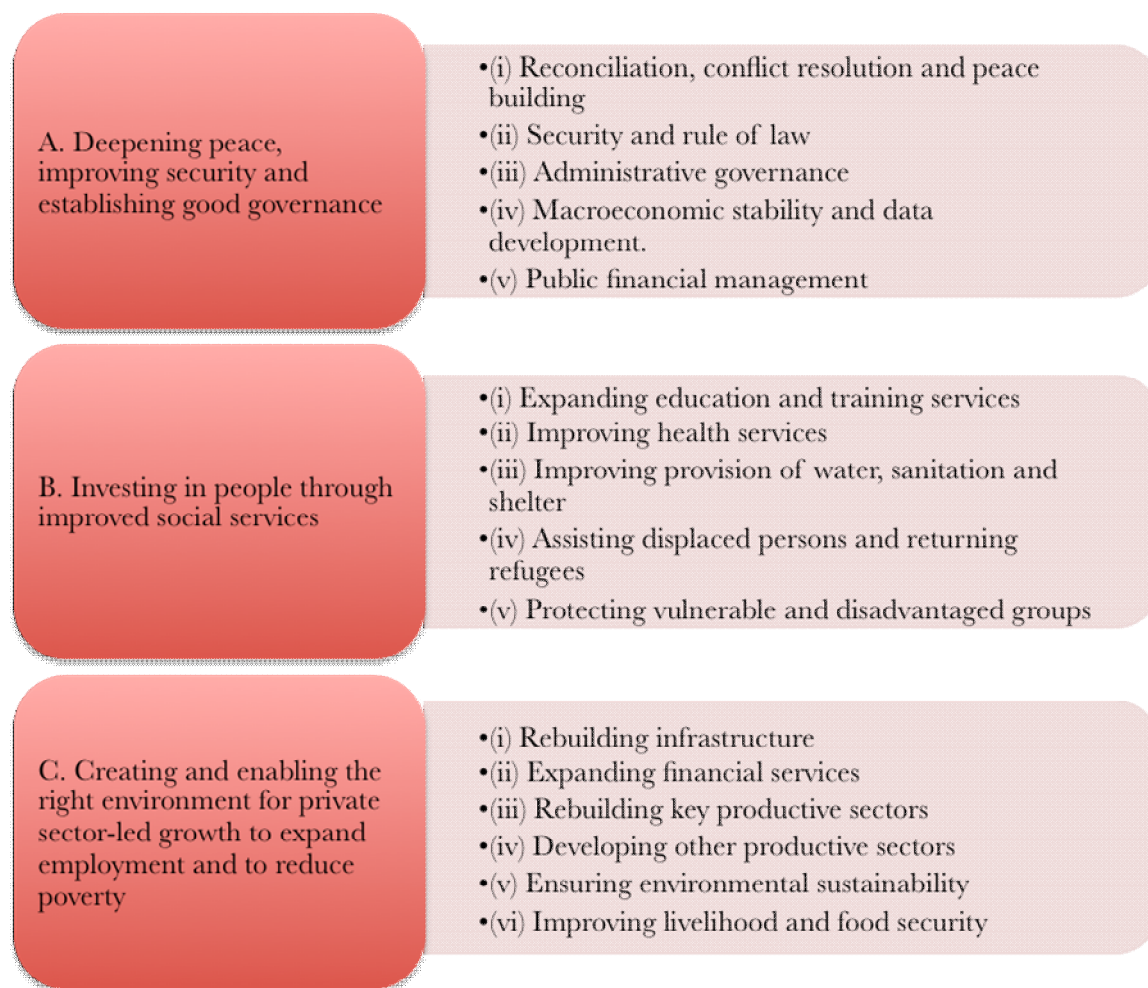
Along with various initiatives Somalia has benefited from significant support by the International Community through ODA. According to data from the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) – operating within the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development in Paris (OECD) – and from the World Bank, Somalia's ODA in 2009 has reached the value of 662 million US\$ (nearly twice the amount allocated in 2007), of which a significant part (77%) comes from bilateral cooperation. The main donors are the US – giving 219 million US\$ (2008-2009 average value) – followed by the EU – assisting with 124 million US\$ –, individual EU Member States (UK: 60 million US\$, Norway: 39 million US\$, Spain: 34 million US\$, etc.) and other countries (Canada: 24 million US\$, Japan: 23 million US\$). ODA was especially intended for “humanitarian aid” (more than 70%) and the rest was destined to “social sectors”, “health and population”, “education” and “programme assistance”.

The establishment of Somalia's Transitional Federal Government in 2005 and the definition of a Transitional Constitution in 2004 (fixed to last for 5 years) were the main results of the Djibouti Peace Conference taking place in 2004. At the end of a transitional period of five years, Somalia was expected to adopt its own Constitution by referendum and then to schedule parliamentary elections by 2011. In order to support the transition process and to promote political willingness to meet what was

established at the Djibouti Peace Conference, the International Community - in particular the UN and the World Bank - has launched a detailed analysis of the socio-political and economic context of Somalia.

In this regard, an important paper was published: the JNA<sup>19</sup>, which further led to the definition of a RDP. In the latter document, priority objectives to be pursued in relation to reconstruction processes in Somalia as defined by the International Development Cooperation are presented in the following figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Objectives of Development Cooperation for Somalia



Source: <http://www.somali-jna.org/index.cfm?Module=ActiveWeb&Page=WebPage&s=clusters>

The EU has aligned its cooperation strategy in relation to political objectives set up by Somalia's RDP. With this aim, specific operational tools were instituted:

19. The Joint Needs Assessment is structured as a Synthesis Report and three main documents are related to: 1) South and Central Somalia, 2) Puntland and 3) Somaliland. Other 6 cluster reports are proposed in relation to the following topics: 1) Governance, safety and rule of law, 2) Macroeconomic policy framework and data development, 3) Infrastructure, 4) Social services and vulnerable groups protection, 5) Productive sectors and the Environment, 6) Livelihoods solutions for the displaced.

- Peace Facility and Stability Instrument;
- European Development Fund (ACP);
- Thematic Budget Line (i.e. food security and other actors);
- Humanitarian Assistance (ECHO).

Along this operational approach, the financial contribution to Somalia from the EU was specified in the Joint Strategy Paper, explicitly indicating a commitment of 212 million Euro to be dispensed over the period 2008-2013. This budget was divided into three main sets of objectives in line with Somalia's RDP. Despite the allocation of each amount, the publication of expenditure for annual programmes has not appeared on the EuropeAid website since 2009.

It would be appropriate to stress the role of International non-governmental organizations engaged in cooperation through the setting up of their own **International Consortium** meant to coordinate operational strategies in Somalia. International cooperation particularly needs to deal immediately with the critical situation of IDP and rural agro-pastoralists who have lost all their assets and are starving. UNHCR figures state that out of a total of almost 1.5 million IDP in Somalia, over 85% of them are concentrated in the Southern-Central regions of the Country. Such movement of people has aggravated already poor local conditions affected by famines and droughts.

IDP are minority groups constrained to live in areas that are landlocked, without infrastructure and international aid organizations support. In some areas of Southern Somalia food aid distribution has been halted due to insecurity and to the presence of the group *Al Shabaab*. IDP breakdown shows they are mostly women, children, elderly people, rural farmers, rural pastoralists and agro-pastoralists who have lost their animals. For them the main supporting livelihood rehabilitation and resettlement mechanisms are traditional activities such as: handicrafts, small animals, small horticulture cultivation, and small retail trade.

In spite of current livelihood constraints faced by IDP, selection criteria for beneficiaries should consider vulnerability, accessibility, priority needs and employment generation – especially for the young who experienced the civil war - in high unemployment areas (i.e. Central and Southern Somalia). The objective of International cooperation is to build people's capacity and skills to improve their living conditions, employment opportunities, basic social and productive infrastructure. These policy directions are also found in the abovementioned *Reconstruction and Development Programme*. Building capacity and livelihood diversification are both crucial aspects for objectives B and C as illustrated in Figure 1. The importance of selecting the beneficiaries in an empowerment perspective – also recognized by some International Agencies - requires a multidimensional approach to tackle people's social, economic, livelihood and critical human conditions. This direction is suggested throughout the document in order to truly bring development and transformation in Somalia instead of a passive process of money transfer.

### 4.3 Way forward for donors and International Cooperation in Somalia

The proposed model to enhance the development effectiveness of International cooperation in Somalia is based on the concept of interaction (Figure 4.1). All levels, from community members to policymakers, need to build a dynamic dialogue through stakeholders' participation, along similar lines to the *International Forum for Rural Development in Somalia*. Traditional knowledge systems

need to be integrated and improved in a concerted action with direct beneficiaries and external actors. Moreover, the development perspective of the whole report emphasizes concepts such as human resources, awareness, cultural mediation, community dimension and multileveled cooperation. Approaching facilitation – instead of imposition - for development will be included in donors' funding conditions, in order to implement projects with sustainable transformative value. This would support a paradigmatic shift from economic progress to social empowerment,

IFAD and its researchers underline the uttermost importance of first resolving conflicts and directing a renewed dialogue - amid donors and beneficiaries - beyond ideologies and straight to the most pressing needs of Somalia's rural communities. A multi-dimensional analysis such as the one presented in this Forum, based its analytical understanding on a cross-sectorial perspective intended to engage civil society in a prioritized process of better governance, improved social justice and livelihood enhancement (Figure 4.2). Such prioritization is at the basis of most policy suggestions as well as funding potential areas of impact. In summary, along with macro systems improvements such as infrastructure overhaul and easier market access, the human and social sides of development also need to be integrated in donors and government project/policy action through harmonic and effective dialogue with local rural communities.

Within this process, the following framework of international cooperation sheds light on potential beneficiaries and guidelines to bring rural development and to initiate successful projects as indicated in the previous sections. The recipients need to be rendered responsible and aware of all actions in their favour in order to achieve sustainable results for the communities. Furthermore, potential donors belonging to multilateral, bilateral, governmental and non-governmental cooperation also need a new focus for action. They should be pro-active actors for new impulses in creating initiatives, exchanges, solidarity and long-term relationships with Somalia's rural communities where projects are implemented.

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