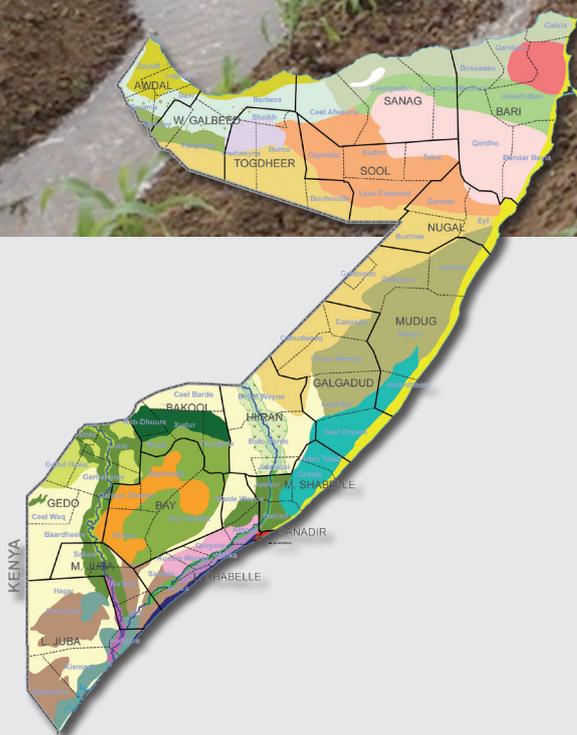


Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Somalia

For a world without hunger



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Acronyms

AFLC	Acute Food and Livelihood Crises
CBOs	Community-based Organizations
EEZ	Exclusive Economic Zone
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FFS	Farmers’ Field School
FSNAU	Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HE	Humanitarian Emergency
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
NGOs	Non-governmental Organizations
PPP	Private Public Partnerships
RAST	Response Analysis Support Team
SWALIM	Somalia Water and Land Information Management
TFG	Transitional Federal Government
WFP	World Food Programme



Executive Summary

Somalia is one of the poorest countries in the world. Torn by a twenty – year long civil war, suffering the absence of a functioning national state, enduring climate-driven and manmade natural disasters and degraded natural recourse base, the country's human development state is in disarray. Food insecurity and threatened livelihoods are pervasive, especially in the South Central region, the physical and economic infrastructure destroyed, delivery of public goods absent or very limited and massive internal and external migration has taken place with large numbers of Internally Displaced Persons.

In this very challenging context, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations set off to formulate its Strategy for 2011-2015 that will be operationalized by rolling Plans of Actions. The overarching objective of the FAO Strategy is to improve livelihoods and food security in Somalia.

The Strategy is articulated around the following six strategic components which constitute the entry points for engagement in Somalia, identified by a series of participatory problem-identification and analysis workshops and in close consultation with national and external stakeholders.

- I. Increasing and stabilizing agricultural production and productivity and rural families' incomes
- II. Improving profitable and sustainable utilization of livestock resources
- III. Sustainable fishing for increased incomes of fishing communities and fishermen
- IV. Managing natural resources for recovery and sustainable use
- V. Supporting Public/Private Partnerships and local institutions and groups
- VI. Improving preparedness

The Strategy puts a strong emphasis on fighting poverty as poverty is considered as the main driver of the past and current conflicts. Central to this emphasis is the understanding of the socio-economic impact of poverty on the lives of Somali men and women. Agriculture (and livestock)-led growth, complemented by income-generating activities and diversification, is the basis on which families' income will be restored and building back better local economies will rest upon. The principle of building back better calls for a linkage at the early stages of humanitarian responses between short-term humanitarian actions and longer-term development interventions. FAO's cooperation and coordination with bilateral and multilateral organizations working in Somalia will build on linking short-term humanitarian actions to long-term development ones.

The Strategy is therefore based on a holistic cooperative approach that calls for the involvement of a variety of actors and partnerships with the private sector and locally based institutions that over the past years have been the main provider of services to local populations. Traditional knowledge has an important role for the Strategy as it devised, throughout Somali history, natural resource management systems and survival strategies that allowed Somalis to cope with risks and shocks. Future interventions will learn from and be built upon traditional coping and survival strategies. At the same time the Strategy advocates for interventions that do no harm and defuse drivers of conflict.

The Strategy is influenced by the high degree of insecurity in the country and therefore risk management features prominently in the Strategy to adapt the design and implementation of interventions.

Finally, monitoring is recognised as a crucial tool to inform programmes and adapt activities by collecting information and data on impact of conflict and FAO's interventions. Monitoring is the instrument that will allow the Strategy to remain flexible and dynamic and to adapt to changing circumstances and opportunities.

Introduction

The FAO Strategy in Somalia – 2011/2015 represents FAO's guiding document for action in Somalia over the next five years. Its overarching objective is to improve livelihoods and food security in Somalia. The Strategy encompasses "one" Somalia – inclusive of three regions Puntland, Somaliland and South Central - although its foundations rest on a regional perspective. It is the result of a consultative process with Ministers, high level regional authorities from Puntland, Somaliland and Transitional Federal Government-TFG /South Central, and Somalia's cooperating partners, who participated in two-day problem identification and analysis workshops. The Strategy builds on recent and current FAO's field activities and the considerable data and analysis from two important FAO Somalia information sources: the Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU) and the Somalia Water and Land Information Management (SWALIM) project. It has been enriched by FAO team's technical expertise and experience on Somalia. The Strategy will be implemented through rolling Plans of Action which will have a regional perspective.

As highlighted at the end of this introduction, several guiding principles inform the Strategy, which is structured along six main components and two enabling factors, mentioned in passing in the introduction and described more in details in following chapters.

Social, conflict and environmental analysis informs each of the strategy components, leading to identification of four cross-cutting outcomes: gender, youth, conflict and environment. The Strategy takes cognisance of the distinct functions of Somali women and men; as well, the vulnerability of its youth population and the need to meet the livelihood needs of each social category within the livelihood system.

Strategic Components

The Strategy recognizes that in rural areas livelihoods and food security depend on natural resource-based production systems: pastoralism, farming and fishing. ¹Only the urban system – out of the five livelihood systems definition used by the FSNAU - is not. Therefore the primary focus and first component of the FAO's Strategy is on stabilizing and increasing agricultural **PRODUCTION AND PRODUCTIVITY** (Strategic component one).

Along with subsistence production for food security, the diversification of household incomes is crucial for achieving resilient livelihood systems. Diversifying incomes by diversifying farm and livestock production, investing in fisheries, increasing access to markets, adding value to farm produce by improving quality, and reaching further afield to sell and process, all create opportunities to **INCREASE INCOMES** (Strategic components two and three).

The Somali people have a long history of sustainably managing and exploiting natural resources. The pastoral livestock system is a prime example. However, poor governance and extended crisis have undermined traditional natural resources management systems. As a consequence, land, soils, water and marine resources have been severely damaged so that it is now crucial to **BUILD SUSTAINABILITY** into production systems, **PROTECT AND MANAGE NATURAL RESOURCES** for recovery, development and address the effects of climate change on natural resource-based production systems (Strategic component four).



The private sector in Somalia is dynamic and vibrant. Money is available for investment where good return exists. The successful manner in which the private sector stepped into the vacuum left by the public sector collapse in the telecommunications, banking and transportations sectors bears this out. For the foreseeable future, encouraging private sector involvement, innovation and entrepreneurship will remain the dominant feature of FAO's approach to interventions in the productive sectors. **PRIVATE/PUBLIC PARTNERSHIPS (PPP)** have been effective means to deliver services, develop economic enterprises (e.g. in the slaughterhouses, water and education sectors) and create jobs. FAO will encourage and support these arrangements for agro-industry development where partnering will be with local institutions and central administrations (Strategic component five).



RISK is inherent to any activity, and significantly more so in Somalia. Operating under conditions resulting from a prolonged crisis and managing the programme from a distance increases risk both in the field and within FAO. Risk mitigation and management and improving preparedness is therefore important and is being built into FAO's programmes and management structure (Strategic component six and Chapter six- Risk management and preparedness).

Enabling factors

Two enabling factors have been acknowledged as critical influences to the achievement of the objective of the Strategy. One is **linking longer-term development actions to short-term humanitarian responses**. By initiating, in parallel with humanitarian responses, a holistic cooperative approach to protect, promote and rebuild livelihoods and achieve food security, the Somali people would get an earlier start to recovery. Another enabling factor is building early interventions on the **survival strategies that the Somali people have put in place to cope with the protracted crises** in their country (Chapter four and five).

Guiding principles

The first guiding principle of the Strategy is to **BUILD BACK BETTER**. Somalia, starting from the first post-coup government, has a poor record of delivering public goods, in particular education and health along with poor infrastructure and underperforming public institutions. In rural areas the lack of agricultural services has constrained the achievement of full production potential which in turn has suppressed

economic growth and deepened poverty beyond pre-crisis levels (Chapter four – Strategic linking of emergency response actions and development and five - Somalia’s drivers of conflict and principles of intervention).

FAO’s experience in Somalia shows that **COOPERATION AND PARTNERSHIPS** can work and be effective in a difficult environment. The benefits are clear at every stage: capturing information and data, identifying and delivering interventions, monitoring effects and impact and making necessary adjustments. They help FAO to be more effective and efficient in the use of resources and time (Chapter eight – Cooperation and cooperation).

The public sector struggles to deliver services to the people, particularly in rural areas. The delivery capacity is often insufficient and access to public goods can be difficult. FAO’s experience shows that **LOCAL INSTITUTIONS**, Community-Based Organizations (CBOs), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), the private sector and self-help groups can fill the gap effectively. FAO will continue to use these organizations as on the spot delivery agents. (Chapter four – Strategic linking of emergency response actions and development).

CAPACITY BUILDING (training, equipment, regulations) of local institutions delivering services, public and traditional organizations, private business, CBOs and NGOs and mid and top-level government institutions will prominently feature in every activity encompassed in this Strategy.

The prolonged crisis in Somalia has a multitude of causes or drivers. There are many points of friction, traditional and recent, that can easily erupt into conflict. A fundamental principle guiding the design and delivery of FAO’s actions is to **DO NO HARM** but seek to mitigate and **DEFUSE DRIVERS OF CONFLICT** (Chapter five - Somalia’s drivers of conflict and principles of intervention).

Today’s Somalia is characterized by change and uncertainty. Change, small and large, can occur frequently and rapidly because civil war remains an overriding concern and old causes of conflict are still in place. The Somali economy is largely dependent on natural resources which, in this arid region, are fragile and sensitive to external pressures. Information collected by **MONITORING** these effects and their impact is essential to inform programming and adjust implementation. This Strategy intends to be dynamic, flexible and adaptive to changing circumstances and opportunities (Chapter seven – Keeping the strategy current and valid).

The document is organized into eight chapters with two annexes. The Strategy itself is presented in chapter one to give the reader easy access to it. The ensuing chapters describe the enabling factors and guiding principles that will keep FAO’s programme in Somalia relevant and effective.



Chapter 1

The FAO Strategy in Somalia 2011/2015

In pursuit of the overarching objective of **IMPROVING LIVELIHOODS AND FOOD SECURITY IN SOMALIA**, the Strategy builds on six components that identify strategic areas for action and two enabling factors that are means to reach strategic objectives. The strategic components have been identified by high level consultations during three regional problem identification and analysis workshops, FAO's experience in Somalia and the input of FAO's technical experts. The substance of FAO's five-year Strategy is presented in the Matrix starting on page 9.

The components define broad themes that, in Somalia's unsettled environment, are expected to change. Monitoring of activities will help FAO to mitigate risks and be opportunistic, adapting and adjusting this Strategy as conditions require.

Each strategic component in the Matrix is accompanied by outcomes that, taken together, become the instruments for attaining the overarching objective. Broad areas of action are also described which can be converted into individual interventions and field activities.

The right column of the Matrix highlights four important cross-cutting outcomes that will bring about behavioural and economic change in the lives of Somali people.

Strategic Components	
I.	Increasing and stabilizing agriculture production and productivity and rural families' incomes
II.	Improving profitable and sustainable utilization of livestock resources
III.	Sustainable fishing for increased incomes of fishing communities and fishermen
IV.	Managing natural resources for recovery and sustainable use
V.	Supporting Public/Private Partnerships and local institutions and groups
VI.	Improving preparedness
Enabling factors	
I.	Linking short-term humanitarian actions to longer term development goals to build back better
II.	Learning from and building on Somali coping and survival tactics
Cross-cutting Outcomes	
I.	Environment
II.	Gender
III.	Youth
IV.	Drivers of conflict

The Strategy also identifies two enabling factors that are means to reach the objectives of the Strategy. Enabling factor I, Linking short-term humanitarian actions to longer term development goals to build back better, will allow to address long-term development goals on poverty, food security and conflict and related interventions in parallel with humanitarian actions. Linking short-term humanitarian actions to longer term development goals will be based on the collection of data, information and analysis on livelihoods, food insecurity and their underlying causes. It will allow identifying, analysing and using the dynamics of food insecurity, household incomes and livelihoods systems for policy work, planning and monitoring. It will also allow establishing an informed process to systematically develop interventions and actions that will start recovery and development processes in parallel with humanitarian actions.

Enabling factor II, Learning from and building on Somali coping and survival tactics, will enable FAO to understand and utilize coping strategies adopted by the Somali people during the protracted crises in their country. In the next years FAO will collect information, document and analyze how Somali families have coped with deteriorating livelihoods and food insecurity and their underlying causes. FAO will share the coping strategies and survival methods adopted by Somali families to protect assets and will adapt local coping mechanisms to design early interventions that will allow development processes to begin in parallel with humanitarian responses. At the same time, insights on coping strategies will enable FAO to better understand how to ease women's drudgery and increase the productivity of survival strategies.

This Strategy is a tool and baseline to guide FAO's actions over the coming five years. It has been prepared with the assumption that most readers will be familiar with today's Somalia and therefore the substance of the Strategy is presented in this chapter. For the new and "casual" reader, supporting information and background are presented in chapters two and three.

An effort has been made to be forthcoming and describe throughout the document how FAO will take action as it pursues this Strategy. Chapters four through eight in particular give specific insight on how some important actions will be undertaken and on enabling factors and guiding principles of the Strategy.

This Strategy would only remain a road map if not followed by a "traveller" to put it into action. The first Plan of Action linked to this strategy will cover 2011-2012. The Plans of Action will include result-based indicators to enable FAO to monitor and measure progress towards achieving the outcomes of the Strategy.

IMPROVING LIVELIHOODS AND FOOD SECURITY IN SOMALIA 2011-2015

OVERALL OBJECTIVE : TO IMPROVE LIVELIHOODS AND FOOD SECURITY IN SOMALIA (2011-2015)		
COMPONENT 1		
STABILIZE AND INCREASE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION AND PRODUCTIVITY AND RURAL FAMILIES' INCOMES		
1A. Outcome: Agriculture production and productivity increased.		
RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES (1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.
Easier access to inputs and agricultural services.	Develop private sector and PPP capacity to supply inputs, equipment, maintenance and farmer training. Support private sector and local organizations for delivery of microcredit.	Increased yields and incomes from farming will reduce rural poverty and improve food security which are among the drivers of conflict (4). Growth in agricultural services will create employment opportunities. (3)
Farmer production and business skills improved.	Support farmer training using farmer field schools, NGOs and CBOs, input suppliers and private/public partnerships.	Employment opportunities created. (3 and 4)
Improved farming practices; Use of appropriate production inputs, mechanization and sustainable and suitable soil and land management (conservation farming).	Support provision of training and advisory services to farmers through local groups and institutions, NGOs and CBOs. Public/private partnerships and agri-business.	Keeping soils productive and using water efficiently will reduce degradation and lessen competition for these resources. (1 and 4)
Updated and improved production technologies introduced.	Support adaptive research and on-farm testing through FFS's private/public cooperation. Improve mechanization of agriculture through the use of traction subsidises or provision of draft animals. Develop locally adapted conservation farming systems.	Technology can reduce labour requirements reducing workload, including for women who are directly involved in farming (2) and create work opportunities. (3) Tools designed for use by women can reduce drudgery of work and increase labour productivity (2).
On-farm water management improved and infrastructure rehabilitated.	Design and rehabilitate on-farm irrigation infrastructure. Improve farmers' technical and management skills on irrigation and water management. Support the establishment of local community based organizations such water user associations for small water infrastructure maintenance and management. Support research on water resources, salinization and the impact of irrigation development.	Improving water use efficiency will lead to increased production/ incomes and reduce poverty (4) while reducing water requirements per unit. (1)

1B. Outcome: Incomes increased and greater incentive to invest for increased production through marketing.		
On-farm post-harvest losses reduced.	<p>Improve on-farm post-harvest management, storage structures and pest control.</p> <p>Improve private and public sector capacity to train farmers in appropriate storage and post-harvest management and safe use storage inputs.</p>	<p>Protects family food supply thus reducing burden on women to make up food deficits. (2)</p> <p>More farm produce of a higher quality to sell will mean more income to reduce poverty which is a driver of conflict. (4)</p>
Access to markets and market information improved.	<p>Rehabilitate and improve management of local and urban markets.</p> <p>Expand market information collection, analysis and dissemination by developing local capacity of private/public sector.</p> <p>Continue to rehabilitate civil infrastructure (roads, canal/roads crossings etc) through cash for work.</p>	<p>Maximize incomes/reduce poverty. (4)</p> <p>Ease burden on women to find alternative food/income sources and when marketing. (2)</p> <p>Creation of employment opportunities thus reducing poverty. (3 and 4)</p> <p>Creation of employment opportunities. (3 and 4)</p>
Value added to farm commodities.	Provide technical support and information to policy and regulatory/standards framework development processes with aim to promote private sector's interest and investment.	Creation of employment opportunities. (3 and 4)

COMPONENT 2

IMPROVING PROFITABLE AND SUSTAINABLE UTILIZATION OF LIVESTOCK RESOURCES

Outcome 2A: Producers' incomes and food security increased and jobs created through marketing and adding value to livestock and products.

RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES
		(1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.
Products for new markets identified.	<p>Research markets for new export opportunities and product requirements.</p> <p>Improve animal by-product processing and marketing.</p>	Higher incomes/less poverty for pastoralists (4) and new employment opportunities. (3)
Market chain infrastructure developed.	<p>Support review of market infrastructure and needs and provide assistance with design and compliance with export requirements.</p> <p>Upgrade marketing and processing capacity and skills.</p> <p>Strengthen animal disease surveillance and reporting, quarantine and certification capacity to meet export requirements.</p> <p>Enhance meat and animal certification capacity in all markets.</p>	Higher incomes/less poverty for pastoralists (4) and new employment opportunities. (3)

Outcome 2B: Disease prevention and control system and capacity to increase production and productivity and protect public health in place.		
Disease surveillance and control system organized and operational.	Raise public and private institutional and technical capacity to investigate animal diseases and enhance their links to international institutions. Establish and support regulation of disease surveillance networks and control structures.	Pastoral incomes raised/poverty reduced. (4) Reduces burden on women to find alternative income and food sources for the family. (2)
Epidemio-surveillance, quarantine and certification system established.	Strengthen field, laboratory and slaughterhouse disease surveillance and reporting by training new people and upgrading skills.	Employment opportunities created. (3 and 4)
Risk of disease transmission from livestock processing and marketing decreased.	Establish a basic veterinary public health system and hazard analysis critical control point (HACCP) system.	Reduced disease risk in families reducing need for care provided women. (2)
Legal and regulatory enabling environment prepared.	Establish standards and regulations of slaughter facilities and their management.	Opportunity to advocate for assessment and consideration of women and youth's involvement. (2 and 3)
Outcome 2C: Household incomes and food security increased through increased livestock production and productivity.		
Animal nutrition improved.	Facilitate and support review of range resources and management issues. Increase rangeland production and improve animal husbandry related extension services	Production and income increased, food security improved and poverty reduced. (4) Increased income reduces need for women to seek alternative sources of food and income for the family. (2)
Assistance to pastoral herders to adapt to changes in the access to environment and natural resources provided.	Support development of policy and legal framework for sustainable range and water management. Increase adoption, production and use of sustainable alternate feeds such as fodder. Support development of drought/stress-resistant fodder varieties.	Will lead to sustainable use of natural resources, reduce overexploitation (1) and reduce competition for resources. (4) New income opportunity to reduce poverty (1) which will help reduce work load of to find sources of income and food women for the family. (2) Reduced dependence on and overuse of grazing resources thus lessening competition. (1 and 4).
Animal production systems improved and economic diversification achieved.	Expand database to include breed characteristics and a comprehensive census of animals' stocks and species. Upgrade animal genetic potential through breeding and improve related extension services (private, PPP, govt) Target poorer/women-headed/rural households for improved poultry production and market options. Training in bee keeping and honey harvesting/packaging. Introduction and adoption of improved bee equipment.	Improved ratio between resources needed per unit of production thus improving resource use (1) and raising incomes (2) and reducing poverty. (4) Increased family income and reduced poverty (4) and easing burden on women to find usually arduous income alternatives. (4) Increase in income earning alternatives and family incomes/reduced poverty burden. (2, 3 and 4) Increase in income earning alternatives in making and selling bee equipment. (3 and 4)

COMPONENT 3		
SUSTAINABLE FISHING FOR INCREASED INCOMES OF FISHING COMMUNITIES AND FISHERMEN		
Outcome 3A: Fishing sustainably.		
RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES
		(1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.
Fisheries sustainably managed and regulated.	<p>Advise and assist in assessment of stock of main fish species</p> <p>Support drafting of policy for sustainable fisheries management and fishing.</p> <p>Provide technical and legal advice in drafting fisheries regulations and enforcement.</p> <p>Strengthen public and private institutions capacity for fisheries management.</p>	Sustainable use of a natural resource, reduce completion over common resources (1) and create new income opportunities. (3)(4)
Capacity for surveillance and monitoring fishing activities and to enforce fishing laws and regulations in place.	Support the establishment of fisheries inspection capacity and control points.	Sustainable use of a natural resource. (1)
Fishermen's awareness, knowledge and adoption of sustainable fishing including methods, gear and participatory management increased	<p>Advise and assist in the design of training in fisheries management (extension services) and of information systems in cooperation with private public sector partnerships and local institutions and associations.</p> <p>Introduce environmental friendly, sustainable and low cost fishing gear and equipment to artisanal fishermen and make it easily available through local suppliers.</p>	<p>Alternative income earning opportunities (3) and community and family incomes raised/poverty reduced. (4)</p> <p>Sustainable fishing using appropriate gear. (1)</p>
Outcome 3B: Family and community incomes increased.		
Value and quality of fish and fish products available for local and export markets increased.	<p>Assist in the establishment of post catch support services (handling and ice) to preserve fish quality.</p> <p>Support planning and design of fishing infrastructure (landing sites, roads).</p> <p>Support and technical advice for the establishment of post catch fish handling (cold chain) and processing (salting/drying) systems and processes.</p> <p>Develop guidelines, build capacity and create awareness for local adoption of international and local standards for fish handling and processing hygiene and sanitation practices.</p> <p>Support the establishment of a food safety certification system with appropriate standards and adequate capacity to inspect and enforce.</p>	<p>Alternative income earning opportunities in market activities and post catch services. (3 and 4)</p> <p>Higher family income and reduction of poverty and food insecurity. (4)</p> <p>More, high-quality fish to sell locally and abroad will increase income and reduce poverty, a driver of conflict (4)</p>

COMPONENT 4		
MANAGING NATURAL RESOURCES FOR RECOVERY AND SUSTAINABLE USE		
Outcome 4A: Capacity to sustainably manage natural resources enhanced.		
RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES
		(1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.
Improved access to natural resources management information.	Provide technical support for land, water, forest and fisheries assessments and management. Undertake skills and capacity building of local institutions in natural resource assessment and information collection	Informed policies and planning for resources use. (1)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Policy, regulations and standards formulated and developed. 	Provide technical support for planning and baseline data. Provide technical support to drafting laws.	Natural resources used sustainability (1) and reduced competition for them. (4)
Improved land and water management systems ready for implementation.	Support planning for management for recovery and sustainable use: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regulation of charcoal production. • Support development of reforestation action programmes. • Training for capacity building of local and regional institutions. 	Sustainable use of resources (1) and reduced competition for control and access. (4) Land degradation and deforestation improved (1)
Mechanisms for water resources monitoring established. Areas prone to environmental events leading to disasters demarked. Early warning, risk reduction and disaster management strategies in place	Strengthen preparedness among stakeholders, their capacity to manage disaster and restoration Support integration of risk reduction strategy and disaster management into policies and plans. Identify, test and introduce new technologies for water management and rain water harvesting. Provide information to support monitoring and early warning of floods and droughts. Provide technical advice on actions to mitigate impact of environmental disasters.	Informed planning and management of water use to increase efficiency of use and conservation (1) which will lead to less competition. (4)
Land use systems for sustainable production and protection established.	Providing land use information to stakeholders and development partners. Assist in developing land planning guidelines. Support development of systems for sustainable land use through research and testing. Training to build land use planning and management capacity at all levels.	Informed land use planning and management for sustainable production and protection (1) which could lead to less violent competition for possession of land. (4)

Information and dissemination systems established to provide information and analysis for land degradation and desertification control planning and action.	<p>Awareness building among stakeholders for natural resource conservation.</p> <p>Establish a forum to facilitate discussion and information sharing on Somali conservation issues and opportunities for cooperative actions for natural resources protection.</p> <p>Training on erosion and sediment control, good environmental practices, and degraded land rehabilitation.</p>	Informed planning and regulation of land use to require sustainable land use and conservation. (1)
Sustainable land use planning and regulation strengthened	<p>Support establishment of a geodetic network to map land characteristics for planning, management and monitoring of land use and condition.</p> <p>Training to build capacity for land registration and information management for cadastral coverage.</p> <p>Draft land law on sustainable land use planning and regulations.</p>	Sustainable land use and conservation. (1)

COMPONENT 5

SUPPORTING PUBLIC/PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS AND LOCAL INSTITUTIONS AND GROUPS

Outcome 5A: Agriculture services delivered to rural producers and FAO's operational reach extended to isolated and difficult areas.

RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES
Local partners identified and cooperating agreements signed for the delivery of support services to FAO activities.	Strengthen capacity of local groups, institutions and organizations through training and basic equipment.	<p>(1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.</p> <p>Local groups led by women and youth (e.g. marketing, and self-help) equally receive capacity building benefits. (2) (3)</p>
PPP arrangements facilitated	Facilitate and advise on Public Private Participation arrangements for service delivery, training and value added activities.	Better delivery of services. (1,2,3 and 4)

COMPONENT 6		
IMPROVING PREPAREDNESS		
Outcome: 6A - Enhanced resilience of rural families to withstand effects of disaster on their assets, livelihoods and food security.		
RESULTS	ACTIONS	CROSS-CUTTING OUTCOMES
		(1) Environment. (2) Gender. (3) Youth. (4) Drivers of conflict.
Communities and families more resilient to unforeseen and harmful events.	Build and protect family assets by supporting crop and livestock diversification and natural resource management.	Reduce decent into deeper poverty and facilitating the build back better process (4).
Families' food security requirements, dynamics and components of family livelihoods and vulnerability causes understood.	Continuing support through the FSNAU for data collection, analysis and regular reporting on food and livelihoods security. Assist in analysis of underlying threats to food and livelihood security and the impact that a disaster may have on them.	Informed planning and intervention design to maximize results and impact on the livelihoods and food security of Somalis. 2, 3 and 4)
Emergency relief, recovery planning and actions unified and integrated into government policies and institutional plans of action in agriculture, rural development, health and education.	Support capacities of local organizations, governments and institutions to plan for, manage and respond to adversity and calamity with private sector participation.	Informed planning and interventions to reduce fall into deeper poverty (4)
FAO is prepared to react to the effects of disasters on food production and family incomes.	Develop a plan of action that will have: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A map showing cropping systems including types and varieties of crops grown, basic inputs and tools used and mechanization requirements and the farming calendar. • Livestock systems mapped including animal type, animal health inputs and feed and water requirements. • A comprehensive listing of sources for crop and livestock inputs beginning with local suppliers and including national and international sources. 	



Chapter 2

Somalia – The Setting

This chapter describes the current situation of Somalia in a number of areas: governance and security, productive sectors, social sectors, poverty and food security.

Governance and security situation

Since the collapse of the central government in 1991, Somalia has not been able to regain internal political unity because of internal schisms and widespread conflict. Over the years various sponsors have made numerous mediation attempts to resolve Somalia's internal political issues with no real success. In 2000 the Transitional National Government (TNG) was formed, but was not effective and was succeeded by the TFG in 2004. The TFG has since struggled to establish effective governance beyond certain districts in Mogadishu.

The TFG remains unstable despite support from the Africa Union Mission (AMISOM). Governance in South Central Somalia is fragmented in towns and villages and is controlled by different opposing forces and organized militias. It is increasingly unlikely that elections in South Central Somalia will be held before the end of the transition period in August 2011 which makes for an uncertain future and could allow a number of organized groups to openly oppose the government or, in a best case scenario, exercise local control to serve local business and trade.

Strong clan allegiances and keen competition for resources is rife in Somalia. Historically it was managed by a traditional system of dispute resolution at the village/clan level led by male elders (*Xeer*), or more recently, and much less satisfactorily, by "strong man" state and local rule. The traditional system still exists and functions and remains a valuable asset to Somalia, though it is continuously challenged by external interests and groups.

On the other hand, with relatively less civil strife to contend with, Somaliland and Puntland have made progress in establishing effective governance. Although under-resourced they have been successful in re-building basic public institutions and service delivery. The Somaliland Republic, in the northwest, declared its independence in 1991, established a level of peace and security and made progress in the reconciliation process re-establishing public institutions, a functioning democratic system of governance

Basic Facts on Population

Total 9.1 million (2009 UN estimate), of which 1.4 million are IDPs (January 2010)

Percentage distribution:

59 percent pastoral or agro-pastoral
17 percent agriculture
4 percent urban



and an active civil society. Puntland, in the northeast, declared itself semi-autonomous from the central government in 1998. It has established some administrative institutions, maintained basic social services, kept civil society functioning and restored a measure of stability and security. Hence, both entities are potential partners for planning and coordinating development assistance, although they are not strong enough yet, nor have sufficient reach for effective service delivery to the village and farm level.

The Somali conflict has affected the lives of millions of people, causing widespread displacement, physical and emotional injuries as well as loss of life. It has disrupted everything from delivery of education and health services to international trade and media freedom. The vested interests in perpetuating the conflict, and the many business leaders that profit as a result of the war economy, are significant and resilient. One of the drivers of the conflict, the private sector, also has at times a role to play in contributing to pro-poor economic development.

The gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in Somalia in 2007 was estimated at under US\$300 per annum and income distribution is highly unequal. The lack of opportunities to earn a decent living means that young men are more easily attracted by offers of payment from radical anti-government groups.

A situation of “complex” or “protracted” emergency like Somalia requires interventions that address both short and long-term dimensions of the crises, addressing immediate and underlying causes and structural deficiencies simultaneously.

Productive Sectors

Somalia has five main World Ecosystem types²: Coastal Aquatic (11 percent), Desert and Semi-Desert (38 percent), Grass and Shrub (36 percent), Crop and Settlements (one percent), and Interrupted Woods (14 percent). Diverse natural resources endowment and arid and semi-arid conditions define Somalia’s productive sectors. The three main productive sectors are livestock, charcoal production and crops. Livestock (mainly live animals and some products) is the largest export with charcoal production ranking second. Fifty-nine percent of the population practice nomadic and semi-nomadic agro-pastoralism, followed by 17 percent made up by farmers.

The political instability and civil strife described above have resulted in governance difficulties and institutional breakdown that have taken a toll on the economy. Most public infrastructure and institutions have been allowed to deteriorate or have been destroyed and not rebuilt. The rule of law is haphazard, absent or opportunistic.

Skilled labour is scarce or unavailable due to loss of talent abroad, a 20-year lapse in educating and training new generations and financial constraints that hamper the mobilization of available talent. On the positive side, with the collapse of the public sector, people have shown remarkable resilience,

Land

Growing competition for land is leading to conflict and degradation. The total land area of Somalia is 637,657 km². About 45% is pastoral land, 14% is forest and woodland and 13% is arable. The Land tenure system is based on communal ownership combined with individual ownership; with ownership skewed towards property transfer from one male to another except in a few instances where Islamic law, allowing female inheritance, is applied. Other immovable assets such as housing and trees follow the same structure. relatively more recent. Water has long been harvested and collected in catchments.

² Animal Info – Somalia. Online at www.animalinfo.org

and an energetic and engaged private sector and vibrant civil society have emerged, as for example in communications and money transfers, transportation and import/exports.

However, the impact of the protracted emergency - caused by recurrent conflict and compounded by intermittent droughts and floods - has resulted in a distorted market system, where rules, norms and practices lead to poor access and utilisation of productive resources and services by women and men from very poor households.

Somali men and women have different and unequal access to agriculture, livestock and fisheries production inputs and technology. They also experience vulnerabilities differently and resort to distinct coping strategies. For example, Female-Headed Households (FHH) among Somali populations experience higher vulnerability to shocks related to livestock losses relative to male headed households in the same wealth groups. Further, barriers to mobility occasioned by the conflict in trade and market routes limit both men and women's access to markets, but have adverse limitations on women's mobility and therefore on their gainful contributions to the productive economy that is far removed from their

households and local markets. Inadequate employment generation opportunity especially in South-Central Somalia limits women's and young men's access to income. Gender disaggregated information on roles and access to agricultural assets and productive inputs by men and women remains scanty making analysis and targeting difficult.

Historically, the Somali economy has been dominated by pastoral livestock and crop production. Both are important for subsistence and cash income and have potential for gains in production and productivity. Production, productivity and profitability for livestock producers and farmers are adversely affected by a variety of factors: the political situation, the deterioration of road and communication infrastructure that constrains delivery of services, inputs, access to markets, financial services and information, limited access to new skills and technology, and personal insecurity and internal displacement. In particular the latter are key factors bearing a critical impact on farmers' livelihoods.

Livestock

The livestock sector is based on a nomadic system characterized by high mobility requiring access to extensive grazing resources. Seasonal movement is essential for pastoralists to manage spatial and temporal changes in grazing resources while enabling pasture recuperation. Mobility provides the best strategy to manage low net productivity, unpredictability and risk in the arid and semi-arid lands of Somalia. It can be vertical, linking highland with lowland areas for winter, spring and summer grazing, and horizontal, through different zones. A distinction can also be made between regular movements

Somalia's Arid/Semi-Arid Climate

Temperature range:

30-45 C maximum

20-30-C minimum

Precipitation (500mm mean annual)

50mm northern coast

500mm northern highlands

150mm interior plateau

350-500 south west

Seasons

Gu rains: April-June

Haga'a dry: July-August

Deyr rains: October-November

Jilal dry: December-March

and emergency movements during critical times caused by drought, conflict or other reasons. Patterns of mobility range from long distance, often cyclical movements covering hundreds of kilometres to various forms of transhumance each demanding different involvement of household and herd members.

For the nomadic system to be effective and sustainable access to extensive grazing resources is necessary. It also requires adequate water access through judiciously placed and maintained supply points as well as access to animal health services and markets. The absence of any of these poses a risk to the producer. Unregulated permanent enclosure of grazing areas and water, deteriorated or damaged water points limit the herders' management choices, namely access to extensive grazing. The result has been extensive over-grazing and rangeland degradation.

Agriculture

In agricultural areas poor water quality and availability and soil quality limit production and productivity. Crops are grown in Puntland, Somaliland and South Central regions mostly under agro-pastoral systems. The arid to semi-arid climate of Puntland limits rainfed crop production to its western part where the highest amount of precipitation falls. Limited amounts of ground water suitable for agriculture restrict irrigated production to oasis farming (shallow wells or springs) over an area relatively small but spread fairly broadly over the north east and central regions. Crop production is highly variable from year to year depending on the rains and local flooding, use of inputs, timing of sowing and weeding and the incidences of pests and diseases.

Land use is limited by soil quality, low rainfall and limited water availability over much of Somalia. Viable alternatives to current production systems are limited or non-existent in the drier grass and woodland areas. This is clearly the case on most of the pastoral land where limited water availability is a major constraint along with low rainfall and poor soils. Opportunistic movement of animals to better grazing and water is the key element in successful nomadic utilization of grasslands.

Crop production is practiced by about one-third of the population. In Somaliland the farmers are agro-pastoralists who practice labour intensive subsistence farming under rainfed and irrigated systems. Irrigated agriculture is found along seasonal streams and rivers and utilizes shallow wells, stream diversions and water harvesting techniques. Rainfed farming is concentrated in the western area of higher rainfall and is more extensive, not being constrained by the need for sources of ground water. Both systems are dependent on seasonal rainfall and are therefore subject to large fluctuations in production. In the north small scale surface and spate irrigation are practiced, usually in dry river beds or nearby areas when the river flows. Water is pumped from shallow wells and, sometimes, underground river flow is tapped especially by small farms that produce fruits and vegetables for local and urban markets.

With two rivers (Juba and Shebelle) that flow year around and their seasonal flooding, South Central Somalia is the main crop producing area and has the highest concentration of livestock. Small scale subsistence farmers use spate and controlled irrigation and grow crops on receding flood waters. Small individual plots or group holdings grow subsistence crops. Larger commercial farms practice controlled irrigation relying on pumps or storage reservoirs that are filled at seasonal high flow periods. Crops are also grown under rainfed conditions in the region. Large plantation agriculture has collapsed. Much of small and large irrigation infrastructure has been destroyed or abandoned because of the civil unrest and

the ensuing acceleration of the collapse of public services.

In order to increase agricultural productivity, farmers need to have access to technology, improved management skills and investment at every level of the value chain. Furthermore, land tenure and dispute issues need to be resolved. This is of course problematic under current conditions given the collapse of research and extension services to reach rural areas, poor communication and transport networks, as well as insufficient investment, capital and skilled manpower. All these issues are of course compounded by the lack of efficient central governance, law and law enforcement.

Marine resources

There is no information collected on the total annual fish harvest nor are there data on fish stocks and their status. Conservative estimates put the country's sustainable annual marine fisheries production in the range of 200,000 metric tons, with the major marine resources being small and large pelagic, demersal fish, sharks and rays, cephalopods, as well as shallow-water and deep-sea lobsters and shrimps.

Although Somalia's territorial waters, along a 3,300 km long coastline, attract large numbers of foreign fishing vessels little benefit accrues to the local economy as most vessels are not registered and not taxed and their catch is not processed or sold in Somalia.

With the heavy fishing pressure exerted by foreign fleets, it is likely that the marine fish populations are being decimated. Somalia does not have policies and management plans in place nor does it have the means to manage its marine resources. There is no infrastructure to support the artisanal fishing industry with gear and equipment and the marketing chain is rudimentary in most places. The tsunami of 26 December 2004 affected the Northeast Somali coast devastating the livelihoods of several thousand of mostly small-scale fisher folks who are dependent on a daily fish catch for food and survival through sales.

The fishing sector has changed significantly during the last 16 years. In the past it was economically stagnant, socially less acceptable, with government controlling fish markets. Lately, there has been a positive change in favour of development of trade and free and open markets. Furthermore, internally displaced persons (IDPs) have shown a substantial interest in fishing. They are also driving the growing demand for fish especially in urban areas such as the capital Mogadishu, where fish consumption has substantially increased.

While other productive sectors have received considerable support, the fisheries sector received negligible attention from the international community during the civil war, except for intermittent interventions

The coastal and marine ecosystems include a wide diversity of habitats that serve as important breeding, nursery and feeding grounds for many species. These include coral reefs, sea grass beds, mangrove forests, estuaries and lagoons, and areas of coastal up-welling.

With a coastline of 3,300 km and a good productive up-welling region off the northeast coast of Puntland, Somalia has good marine fisheries resources. Artisanal fisheries exist along the coasts of the country, in rivers and other inland water bodies. According to available data, there are at least 30,000 persons employed in fishing activities (primary sector) and 60,000 persons in fisheries related activities (secondary sector). In addition, it can be estimated that about 400,000 people are likely to be employed in processing, trading, input supply and related activities. It is also worth noting that existing data most likely underestimates the number of people involved in and dependent on the sector, particularly in the diverse inland fisheries sector.

targeting artisanal fisheries. The sector remains in need of support at different levels. Post-harvest losses are estimated as significant. The catch statistics do not include discards at sea of by-catch and shark carcasses. In the shark case post-harvest losses can amount up to 80 percent of the total catch weight. Fish silage and promotion of salted-dried products could be a marketable solution while providing additional income for fishermen and traders.

There is virtually no value addition in the small scale fisheries sector in Somalia. The high value species captured are directly sold to the Yemeni boats that export them to the United Arab Emirates. Whatever remains in the Somali territory is generally sold without processing apart from gutting. Scale removing and filleting is generally done at the market stalls or at the beach when the buyer indicates so. Some dried and salted products are produced at household level in most of the country, particularly in South Central region coastal locations where some trading occurs with the port of Mombasa.

In the past there used to be an important trade of frozen lobster tails, but this industry is no longer functioning since the collapse of the lobster fishery. There are two active tuna canning factories in Somalia which indicate that it would be possible to undertake local value addition interventions.

The fisheries sector plays a key role in the piracy business. As the main livelihood for most of the coastal population, the fisheries sector is as much a part of the problem as is part of the solution. Helping to develop the livelihoods of the fishing coastal communities and thus to increase their revenue will diminish the pool of potential pirate recruits, while not supporting this sector will increase it.

Demand for fish exceeds supply in urban areas and there is scope for increased consumption in inland areas if the supply of fish could be increased. If sustainably developed and managed, the Somali fisheries sector has the potential to significantly contribute to the national economy through food security, foreign exchange earnings and creation of employment opportunities, on the condition that the resources are managed in a sustainable manner. Effective and sustainable fisheries resource management will require improved fishing, storage, processing and market access infrastructure as well as adequate research and stock assessments.

Forests

Forests cover about 11.4 percent of the total land area of Somalia. Large areas of rangelands used to be covered by various tree species, mainly acacias. Forests form the habitat of many of Somalia's 1,078 known species of animal and 3,028 plant species some of which are unique. The rate of loss of forest and wooded habitat between 1990 and 2005 is estimated at 13.9 percent or 1,151,000 ha with pressure coming from charcoal production and agriculture. Flood plain forests along the Shebelle River have been destroyed by clearing land for small farms and plantations.



Forests are economically important for the production of frankincense, myrrh and charcoal. From the environmental standpoint they are valuable as habitat, for soil stabilization and fertility and water runoff control.

Charcoal production is a major cause of deforestation. Traditionally, Somalis used wood collected from forests for fuel but charcoal is now the preferred local source of fuel and has become a lucrative export commodity, ranking second behind livestock. As a result of charcoal production, trees in traditional grazing areas of Northern Somalia were devastated and the damage continued as the industry moved south.

Forest management for recovery, sustainable use and protection is an urgent issue. Public policy, regulations and the institutional capacity to implement, monitor and enforce will need rebuilding along with programmes to inform and enlist people's participation. Alternative energy sources are needed to reduce the demand for charcoal and wood for fuel. Other income earning opportunities will also help to limit poor people's reliance on destructive forest exploitation.

Import/Exports and Remittances

Remittances by Somalis working and living abroad are significantly estimated at US\$300-500 million and possibly up to US\$ one billion annually when the world economy is healthy, and therefore at 20-50 percent of GDP³.

Exports continue to be dominated by livestock and are sensitive to import bans from traditional customers. Other exports include charcoal, fish, hides and skins and the traditional frankincense, myrrh and gum arabic, which are of local economic importance. Somalia's largest imports are food items including sugar, wheat and flour, rice and cooking oil as well as building materials and fuel. *Khat* is reported to be a major import but is not included in the statistics.

Social Sectors

Investment in public social services (clean water, health care, education) has almost disappeared. The ability of the public sector to provide services to the population is extremely limited and is improving only in Somaliland and Puntland. Somaliland and Puntland have been successful in building some basic institutions and providing services.

The private sector and civil society are the main providers of services including education and health. Poor people – especially displaced and female headed households - cannot access these expensive, yet basic services.

In every aspect, the Somali people are doing without the things that they need in order to be productive, healthy and happy. Somalia scores well below average on most social indicators, South Central being the most problematic, and was ranked 161 out of 163 countries in the 2001 UN Human Development Report (HDR). Subsequent HDRs have not updated Somalia's indicators. Insecurity and weak governance have taken a toll on the social condition of the Somali people. Somalia's social indicators are low both in actual terms and when compared with neighbouring countries.

Access to basic services as well as humanitarian aid is extremely low. Only 29 percent of people have access to clean water (53 percent in urban and 4 percent in rural areas) and a mere 26 percent have access to improved sanitation.

³ M. Hassan and C. Chalmers, UK Somali Remittances Survey, May 2008.

One in five Somalis is illiterate with twice as many men as women literate. Primary school enrolment stands at 22 percent, which ranks among the lowest in the world (UNICEF, 2004-05) with only 16 percent enrolled in primary school in South and Central Somalia. The figures for women are even lower. The mortality of children under five years of age is estimated at 22.4 percent and 16 of every 1,000 women die in childbirth.⁴

Disparities in the distribution of social, human and financial resources between men and women, and disparities in the social roles and responsibilities they hold in different livelihood systems means that the options available to men and women to respond to shocks through their respective contributions to the family livelihood vary not only by gender, but also, by region. Stabilizing and increasing the productivity of men and women will improve economic and food security in rural families.

The situation differs across Somalia with the more peaceful and secure Somaliland and Puntland and urban dwellers faring marginally better in terms of income and access to social services. Meeting the most basic humanitarian needs poses huge challenges because access to humanitarian and development assistance has been severely restricted by the lack of security in much of South Central Somalia.

Poverty

In 2005, Somalia had an estimated total population of about 7.7 million, with people under 18 comprising 53 percent of the total. The fertility rate is high at about 6.8 births per woman. The population is estimated to be growing at 3 percent per year, thus reaching about 9.1 million in 2010. If peace prevails, this number would further increase as a result of returning refugees and the Diaspora.



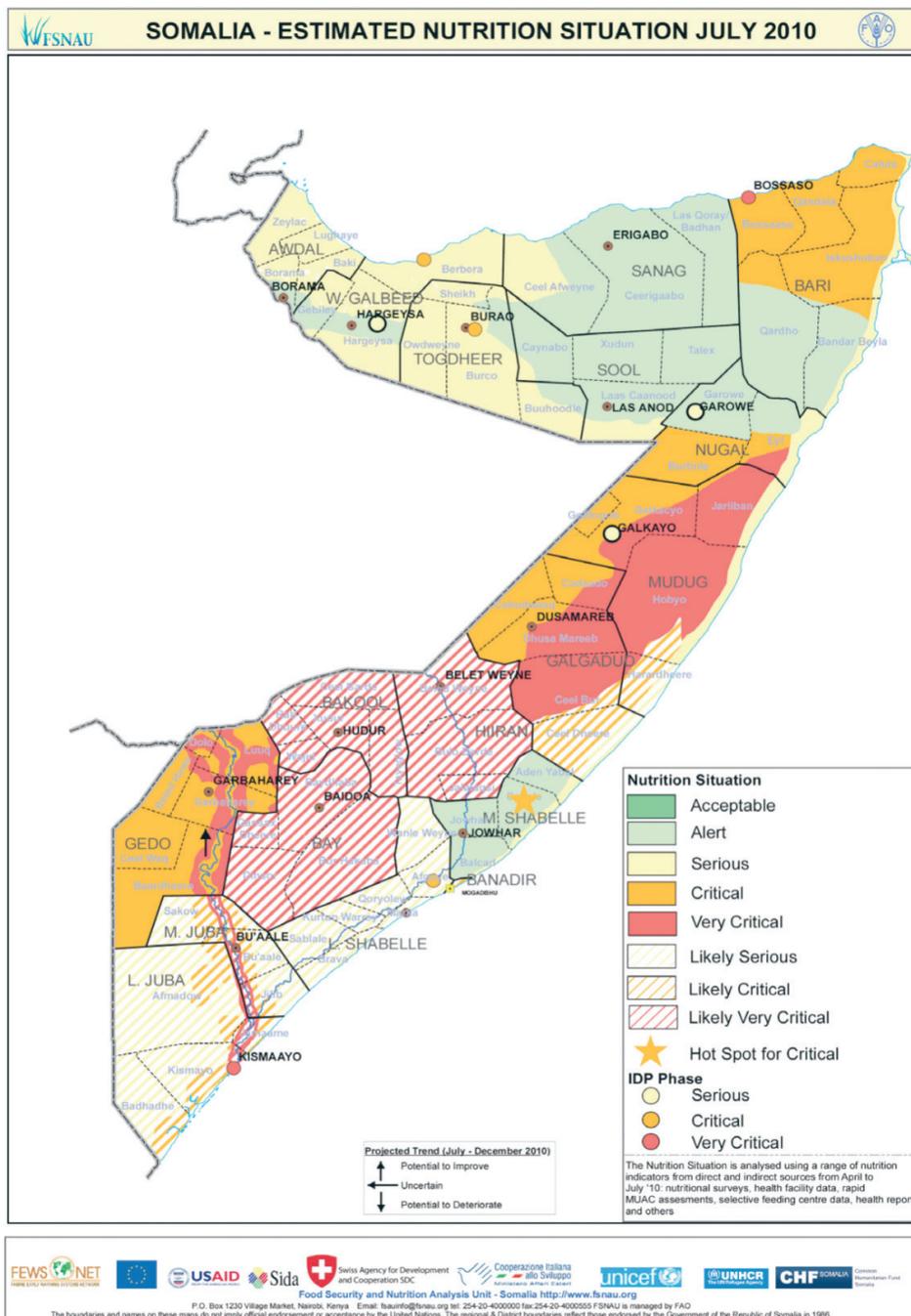
While reasonably accurate figures are unavailable, it is estimated that 43 percent of the population is living in extreme poverty (less than one US dollar per day). However this figure hides a large difference between urban and rural areas, where the rate of extreme poverty is currently 24 and 54 percent. The situation is further skewed by income inequality with household surveys suggesting that the poorest 10 percent of Somalis receive only 1.5 percent of all income generated in the country while the top 10 percent receives more than 35 percent of the total income (UNDP 2003).

Although the figures are large in absolute terms, the incidence of extreme poverty has in fact decreased significantly over the past 20 years, from about 60 percent (UNDP, 2001). About 73 percent of the population live on less than two US dollars per day; 61 percent of urban and 80 percent of rural dwellers. Poverty is associated not only with insufficient income and consumption but also with low outcomes in terms of health, nutrition, literacy, access to basic services, and levels of security.

Somalia's poverty and inequality indices show a mixed picture when compared to neighbouring economies. Somalia's per capita income (US\$226) is lower than that for Kenya and Tanzania (US\$280), but

⁴ IBID

higher than in Eritrea and Ethiopia. Incidence of extreme poverty is much higher in Somalia (43 percent) than in neighbouring countries (23 percent for Kenya and Ethiopia) but lower than in other conflict-affected countries. Similarly, Somalia's poverty-gap ratio measuring the depth of poverty is 18 percent, which is higher than in Ethiopia and Kenya but is smaller than ratios for Sierra Leone, Burundi and Rwanda. One of the most significant factors which have increased per capita income in Somalia, thus explaining why Somalia performs relatively well in income-based monetary measures of poverty when compared to countries in the region, is the large inflow of remittances, about one billion US\$ per annum (World Bank).



Food Insecurity (FSNAU, September, 2010)

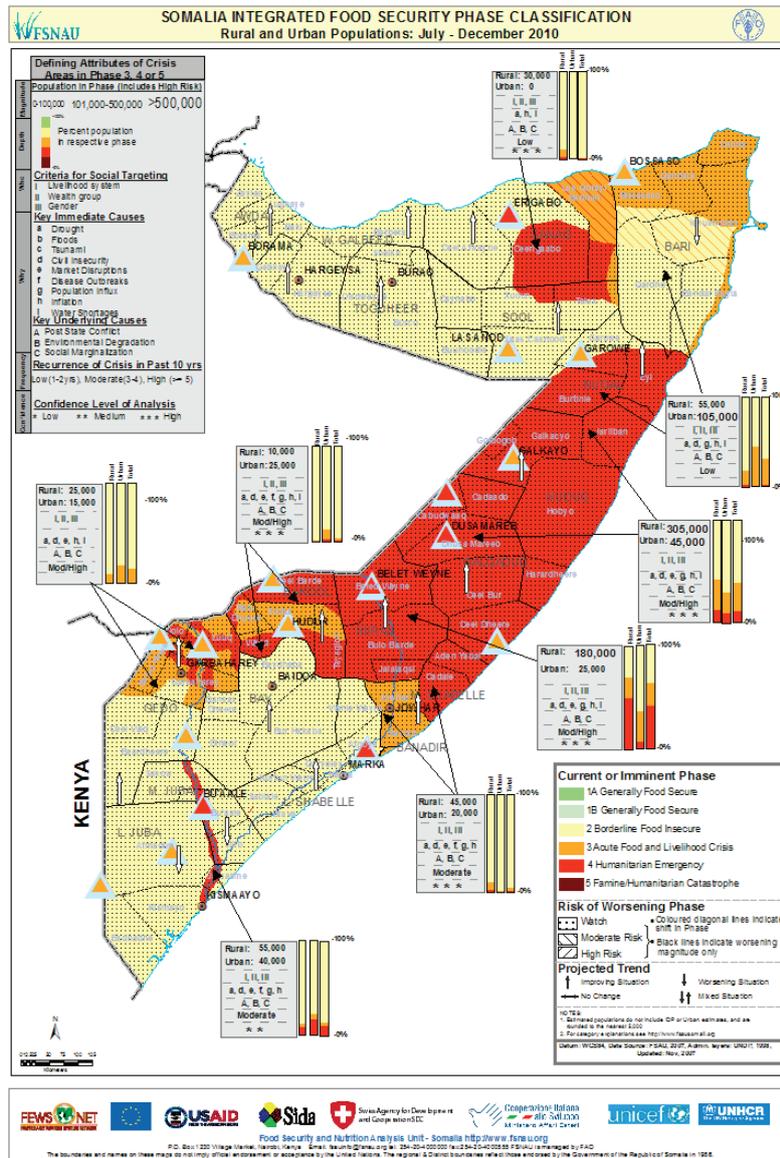
The findings of the FSNAU post Gu 2010 (FSNAU, September, 2010) seasonal assessment confirm that the number of people in need of humanitarian assistance in Somalia dropped by 25 percent in the first half of 2010 when the four-year long drought was broken. The assessment results indicate that improved crop and livestock production, due to favourable seasonal rainfall performance, is the primary reason for improved food security situation in the country. In urban areas, apart from overall improved food production in the country, the number of urban dwellers in crisis significantly decreased in the Post Gu also due to reduced inflation and increased wages.

However, about 27 percent of the total population or an estimated 2 million people still remained in need of emergency humanitarian assistance and/or livelihood support at the end of 2010. Of Somalis living in rural and urban areas 715,000 are in an Acute Food and Livelihood Crises (AFLC) meaning that they are seriously hungry with few income options. In urban areas an estimated 230,000 people are in AFLC and about 80,000 are in Humanitarian Emergency (HE) particularly in South and Central, due to conflict escalation, high numbers of internally displaced persons (IDPs) competing for resources, reduced labour opportunities and soaring costs of living. The urban areas of South and Central have respectively the highest magnitude and intensity of population in crisis (FSNAU, September, 2010).

Furthermore, 90 percent of the estimated 35,000 severely malnourished children in the country remain in the conflict-stricken South and Central zones. One in six children are acutely malnourished and one in twenty-two severely malnourished in the South Central region. The nutrition situation remains as one of the worst in the world. Sustained conflict in South Central Somalia, shrinking humanitarian aid and children's reduced access to basic services overshadow positive developments and severely constraint children's capacity to meet their development potential.

IDPs who have been forced from their homes due to conflict in recent years continue to be the largest single population group in crisis with reduced access to aid agencies' assistance. They continue to be a nutritionally vulnerable group even in relatively peaceful areas with improved access in northern regions. A combination of emergency interventions with integrated humanitarian response is crucial to address this issue.

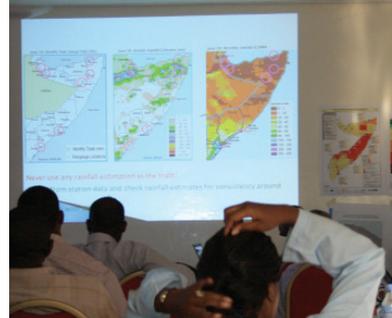
Distribution of Rural Population in Crises, July-December 2010



Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Somalia population tracking system estimates that 1.41 million people are currently displaced within the country- of whom 60-80 percent women - with 92 percent of the displacement cases triggered by conflict. Due to on-going conflict nearly 300,000 people have become internally displaced since January 2010. Most of the IDPs are concentrated in South and Central Somalia in Shebelle and Central regions and key urban areas in Puntland and Somaliland. Mogadishu has the largest number of displaced people accounting for 60 percent of the total. They lack access to adequate food, income and basic services and suffer from natural hazards and human insecurity. They rely on casual labour, self-employed labour, cash and food gifts from the hosting communities and remittances as sources of income.

IDPs' nutritional status is of great concern, with high rates of chronic malnutrition reported – one in five children is malnourished. This compares to one in ten in the host population in Northern regions. Comparable rates are reported between IDPs and host population in South Central.



Chapter 3

Informing the Strategy

The FAO Strategy in Somalia – 2011-2015 is FAO's guiding document for actions in Somalia over the next five years. The Strategy encompasses "one" Somalia, including Puntland, Somaliland and South Central, in relation to FAO's activities, starting from a regional perspective. It is the result of a consultative process with Ministers, other high level authorities from each of three regions and Somalia's cooperating partners who participated in two-day problem identification and analysis workshops with the objective to identify the root causes of continuing vulnerability to food insecurity of rural families. The Strategy builds on recent and current FAO's field activities, on the considerable data and analysis available from the FSNAU, SWALIM and the FAO/Somalia team's technical expertise and experience. The Strategy will be implemented through a series of rolling Plans of Action which will adopt a regional approach.

The three problem identification and analysis workshops identified similar themes and echoed, unsurprisingly, issues defined through various other processes.⁵ This chapter describes the livelihoods systems prevalent in Puntland, Somaliland and South Central, identifies themes common to the three regions (increasing production and income in agriculture, livestock and fisheries, sustainable management of natural resources and building institutional capacity) and highlights differences in emphasis and priorities across the regions that reflect their relative starting points.

Livelihoods

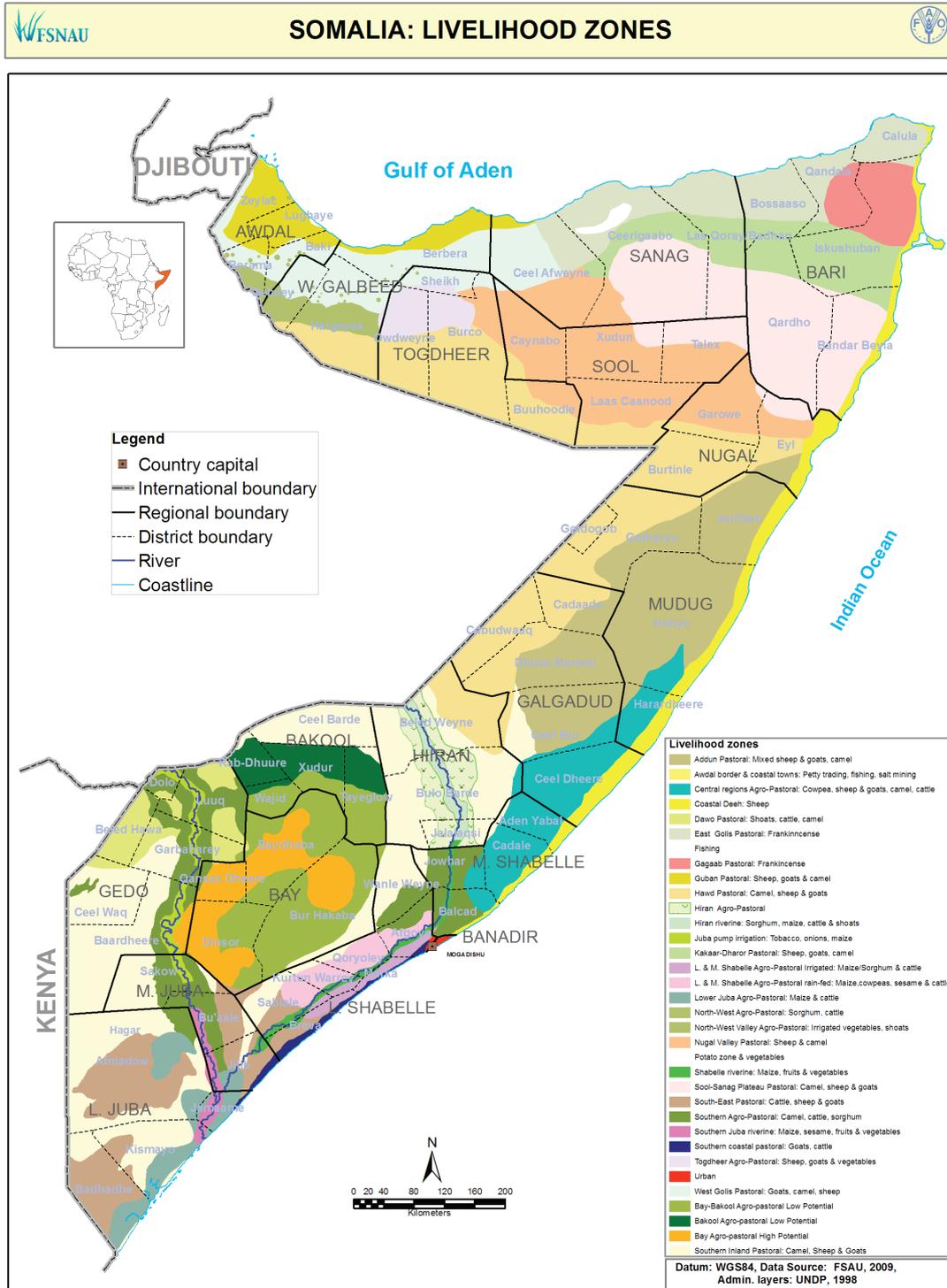
Most Somalis, maybe 80 percent, depend on natural resources for their livelihoods: land for grazing and crops, water for irrigation and livestock, riparian and coastal zones for fisheries, and forests for gums and resins. In the arid climate of Somalia, livestock and crops are highly vulnerable to variations in rainfall. Pastoralists have evolved a management system that enables them to survive on normally low rainfall. Farmers have adopted management systems to capture surface water and deliver it to their crops.

The FSNAU has identified five main livelihood systems in Somalia: pastoral, agro-pastoral, riverine, coastal fishing and urban. These systems are further sub-divided into 33 zones based on agro-climatic characteristics, productive and marketing systems. A brief description of each follows.

Pastoral

The Pastoral system is the second largest livelihood system consisting of 13 livelihood zones, covering about 470,000 km² or approximately 72 percent of total area, extending across the country with the major concentration in central and northern regions. The pastoral population is estimated at 2.3 million (29 percent of the total), of which 52 percent reside in the north, 33 percent in the south and 15 percent in central Somalia.

⁵ The UN/World Bank Somali Joint Needs Assessment Agriculture Cluster Report; The UN/World Bank Reconstruction and Development Programme, 2007 and the World Bank's Interim Strategy Note for Somalia, 2007; The UN Transition Plan for Somalia 2008-2009.



The pastoralists are livestock producers who do not grow crops and are highly vulnerable to climate variability which determines availability of water and grazing.

Agro-pastoral

This system covers 151,000 km², or 23 percent of total land area with 12 zones: 8 in the south, 3 in the north and 1 in central region. Their population represents 26 percent of the total (almost 2 million) with 88 percent concentrated in the south. Field crops and livestock are more or less equally relevant in this system. In six (Middle Juba, Bakool, Gedo, Middle Shabelle, Northwest, and Central) livestock are more important while crop production is more important in Bay, Shabelle, and Lower Juba. Rainfed sorghum and maize are the main subsistence crops and are also sold or traded. Sesame and cowpea are the important cash crops. Fruits and vegetables for both consumption and sale are grown. Most production is rainfed. Livestock (sheep, goats, cattle and camels) are used for family consumption, cash (animal and products sales), transportation, land preparation, and as a crop failure mitigation measure.

Riverine

The four riverine zones are concentrated in Southern Somalia along the Juba and Shabelle rivers and their alluvial plains. They include parts of six regions and cover about 13,300 km² (2 percent of total land) with about 370,000 people (5 percent of the population) involved. The zones are differentiated by the crops grown and irrigation system used. Households usually adopt a combination of rainfed and irrigated production. Irrigated areas produce food and cash crops (maize, rice, tobacco, fruit and vegetables). Rainfed crops include sorghum and maize. Gravity irrigation is dominant along the Shabelle River, which accounts for over 50 percent of total irrigated area, and along the Middle and Lower Juba. Pump irrigation is found along the upper and middle Juba River and flood irrigation is common to both rivers. Families that use controlled (gravity or pump) irrigation generally have higher incomes.

Coastal fishing

Coastal fishing systems along the Indian Ocean coast are sub-divided into southern and northern zones according to the importance of fishing to household income. Coastal fishing is the smallest livelihood system engaging only 2 percent of the population. In southern coastal fishing areas, livestock is the major source of income and is complemented by fishing during dry seasons. In the north, however, livelihoods rely more on the exploitation of marine resources and are more dependent on fishing, which contributes about 90 percent of annual household income. Livestock rearing, mostly comprising sheep and goats, as well as a small number of camels, is the secondary source of livelihood.

Urban

Somali urban areas include 100 densely populated cities and towns and account for the largest portion of the population, about 2.9 million people, or 38 percent of the total. Urban livelihood systems can be differentiated into urban, semi-urban and peri-urban according to population and economic activities. A majority of urbanites rely on market exchange for their incomes. In major urban centres income sources are casual labour, skilled labour, petty trading, businesses employment and remittances. The income sources in semi-urban centres are similar but with lower levels of remuneration. Peri-urban incomes are characterized by mixed rural and urban activities and thus dependent on market exchange, farming and livestock.

Agriculture

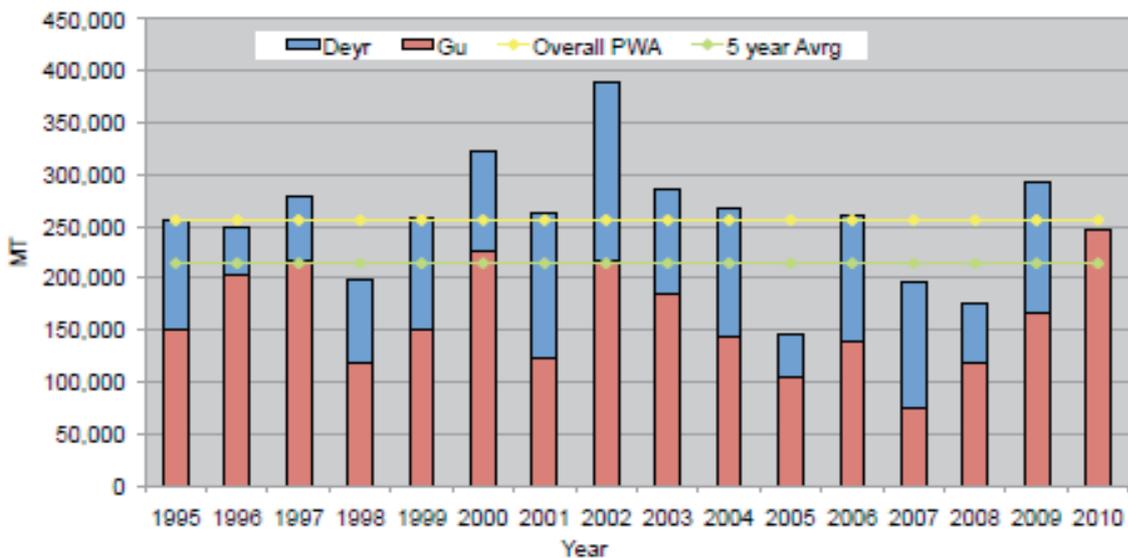
About 67 percent of the population lived in rural areas in 2004 of which 55 percent were engaged in pastoralism and farming. Agro-pastoralism has been and remains the mainstay of the economy with livestock exports being the main foreign exchange earner. Every rural family depends – partly or entirely - on livestock and farming for its livelihood and food security.



In the main, most farmers are agro-pastoralists who practice low input labour intensive subsistence farming, each cropping relatively small areas of land or working cooperatively on larger units.

Today, crop yields are low and have not improved for decades. The long-term post-war (1995-2006) average annual production of cereals in South Somalia amounts to 264,623 metric tonnes with high annual variations due to erratic rainfall, recurrent floods, pests and diseases. In the period 1995-2005 the average yield/hectare was estimated to be 320 kg for sorghum and 660 kg for maize (EC, 2010). Post-war average production is estimated to be 50-60 percent of the pre-war average (1981-1990) showing that Somali crop production has considerable scope for growth. It is estimated that in the post-war years, maize represented about 65 percent of cereal production with sorghum representing the remaining 35 percent. The Lower Shebelle and, to a lesser extent, the Middle Shebelle together produce 70-80 percent of maize and 30 percent of total sorghum. They are also important producers of sesame, fruits and vegetables, although production estimates are not available (FSNAU).

Annual Cereal Production by Season



(FSNAU, September, 2010)

Many factors limit or even reduce agricultural production and productivity. As mentioned before, Somalia's natural resources are seriously deteriorated: deforestation, overgrazing and changes in precipitation patterns and amounts have taken their toll on water supply and availability and soil condition and fertility.

Support services to Somali farmers have always been weak, due to under investment, seldom meeting farmers' demand for inputs and knowledge. With the collapse of central government and ensuing social disruption resulting from insecurity, the provision of services deteriorated further. Although the Somaliland and Puntland governments have tried to restore services to farmers, they have limited resources and other pressing needs including security issues. The situation is significantly more challenging in South Central Somalia.

Women are prominent in crop production particularly in small-scale and subsistence farming. Depending on the area and tradition, women often are the farm managers and, with the help of children, provide heavy labour for land preparation, weeding and harvesting. They sell and barter farm produce using the money to feed, clothe and pay school fees and other household and family needs.

Increases in productivity will require improving "on farm" crop husbandry and management practices through extension and training, access to steady and affordable sources of inputs, effective crop protection services, market incentives, crops diversification and improvement of the genetic yield potential of crops by identifying and testing improved varieties through adaptive research and on-farm testing. Particularly on the seed system, the training on use and production of seeds is crucial as well as the expansion of the genetic portfolio with rainfed and irrigation, long and short cycle varieties. In remote areas or where ecosystems are strongly characterized (soil, water, wind, cropping techniques), seed production from local landraces will be encouraged and supported. The expected increased yield will lead to support improved seed storing methodologies and facilities.

Increases in production will come from the smart use of inputs and the expansion of the area under rainfed crops and oasis farming but the scope is limited by scarcity of available suitable soils, adequate precipitation and water for irrigation.

Increases in production and productivity through investment of time (labour) and money will be driven by attractive financial returns to the farmer. Key inputs (seeds, fertilizer, and chemicals) will have to be available and affordable. Extension and veterinary services (for draft animals) will have to be re-established and the physical infrastructure for access to rural villages and markets rebuilt. Every link in the value chain from the farm gate to the consumer requires strengthening or renewal.

Delivery of many services to farmers through public/private partnerships is possible: successful examples are farmer training in preferred practices and technology transfer through FFS and CBOs. Dealers and suppliers of inputs and equipment can, when properly trained and motivated, and with adequate infrastructure, provide advice and training. These models are a smart and efficient way to deliver services to farmers. Public policy and a regulatory framework should encourage private investment and participation through cost sharing arrangement that would reduce the burden on government.

Irrigation is the surest way of stabilizing and increasing production and productivity but requires higher investment in money and management. Irrigated agriculture has considerable scope for development in the Shebelle and Juba river basins and in other areas where water is available.

The area irrigated in Somalia before the conflict was 112,559 hectares in Lower Shebelle and 23,234 hectares in Lower Juba. It is estimated that the area presently under some form of irrigation is 50-60 percent of the irrigated area before the war; the remainder being either abandoned or used for rainfed agriculture (SWALIM).

The **physical infrastructure** of Somalia had been in a long decline since the late 1960s due to underinvestment in maintenance and new construction, and mismanagement. With the collapse of the central government infrastructure deteriorated even faster. The deterioration of roads has led to the isolation of farming areas and small communities from supply centres thus limiting production by making inputs more difficult and costly to obtain. Distance from markets is a strong disincentive to increasing production.

Skilled and qualified human resources will need to be trained or mobilized. Training institutions will have to be established and the public sector's conditions of service will have to become competitive with the private sector or at least attractive enough to entice talented people.

A first challenge for the Somaliland and Puntland governments is to create the policy and regulatory environment that will encourage investment and participation from the private sector. Government will also have to strengthen existing institutional infrastructure and put in place the conditions to implement policy and regulatory functions.

Agriculture is multi-functional and multi-sectoral by nature with much of the responsibility for the requisites that allow it to be successful lying outside ministries of agriculture. Physical infrastructure, natural resource management and environmental policy, finance and trade, safety and standards usually fall under another ministry. Nevertheless all factors must be in place to enable the sector to achieve partly or fully its potential. Getting this done in the right sequence and at the right time is a major challenge as other sectors struggle with many of the same funding and human resources constraints. Nor is fulfilling their mandates made easier by necessary reliance on support from various co-operating and funding partners who have their own priorities. This latter situation highlights the value of having a forward-looking policy and sound implementation strategy.

Puntland Agriculture

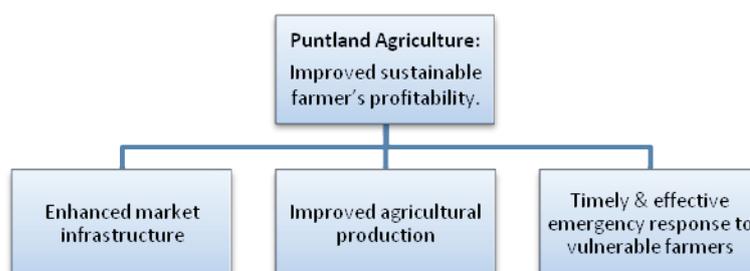
The civil war in South Central Somalia has caused indigenous Puntland people to return to their region, contributing to the increase in urban populations. Increased immigration flows, urbanization patterns and middle class are creating a growing demand for vegetables, fruits and livestock products and increasing competition for limited income opportunities in towns and cities.

Agricultural production is limited by erratic and low amounts of rainfall and by soils that are only marginally suitable for crop production. Puntland has no perennial water courses with the exception of some springs and most users rely on ground water. Mechanization is limited because there is little extensive cultivation,



except in some areas in Eastern Sanag. Animal traction has been introduced to some oasis farming areas. Agricultural inputs are imported by a few local businesses located in Bossaso where farmers have to travel to fetch the products. There are no regulations, standards or monitoring of imports and sales nor of their use.

Crops are grown under rainfed conditions or small scale irrigation in or near seasonal streams, where shallow wells are dug, or near to springs (oasis agriculture). Historically date palms were the main crop in Puntland oasis agriculture and they continue to be grown today, though to a lesser extent. Diversification into vegetables and fruits to meet demand in urban areas started about two decades ago and has resulted in an increase in total crop production and income and its stabilization. Frankincense, myrrh and gum arabic are traditional tree crop products that are still collected and marketed. All three crops have a local market while frankincense is also considered a very valuable export product^{6,7}.



Somaliland Agriculture

The area of Somaliland is 180,000 km². The population is 54 percent pastoralist, 30 percent agro-pastoralist and 16 percent urban¹. Ten percent of the land (1,8m hectares) is suitable for rainfed agriculture and 2-3 percent is actually used for crop production.

Agriculture ranks second in importance after livestock with 30 percent of the population dependent on farming for their livelihoods (WB & UN, 2007). In the absence of government involvement, the private sector and NGOs - including women's groups and organizations - have become active in agriculture and the provision of a variety of services.

People are agro-pastoralists for the most part and farm about 17,000 ha under rainfed and small scale irrigated systems. Irrigated agriculture is found along seasonal streams and rivers and utilizes shallow wells, stream diversions and water harvesting techniques.

Both systems are dependent on seasonal rainfall and are therefore susceptible to large fluctuations in production.



⁶ The objective tree and similar ones that follow reflect the outcomes of three Ministerial-level problem identification workshops held for Puntland, Somaliland and South Central (TFG).

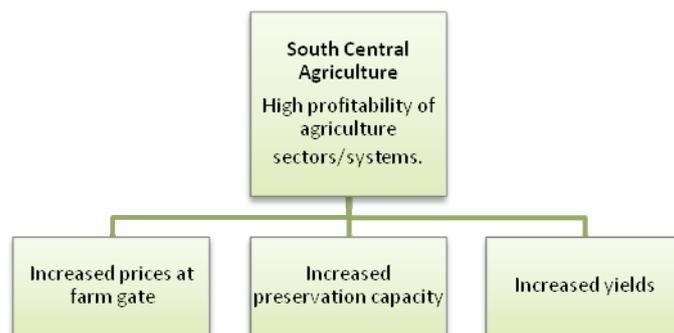
⁷ The small objective trees that are found in throughout this chapter come directly from the consultative workshops convened with each of three regions of Somalia.

Rainfed farming is concentrated in the same general area of higher rainfall and is more extensive, not being constrained by the need for water sources, accounting for almost 90 percent of total farmed area. Most of rainfed crops are consumed by the household or bartered for food items and surpluses are sold. Irrigated crops (fruits, melons and vegetables) are locally consumed and also supply urban markets. Productivity is low in both systems because of the limited use of purchased inputs and improved practices.

Crops are marketed in three ways: (i) Farmers selling directly at organized markets using public transport, (ii) Traders coming with transportation to the farm gate; and (iii) A farmer buying from other farmers and selling at the market.

South Central Agriculture

The two rivers that flow year around (Juba and Shebelle) and their seasonal flooding enable South Central Somalia to be the main crop producing area and support the highest concentration of livestock. Small scale subsistence farmers use spate and controlled irrigation and grow crops on receding flood waters. They farm small individual or group holdings growing subsistence crops. Larger commercial farms practice controlled irrigation relying on pumps or storage reservoirs that are filled at seasonal high flow periods. Crops are also grown under rainfed conditions in the region. It is estimated that 1.25m ha is reasonably suitable for cultivation (FSNAU).



Water management, on and off-farm, is weak in the absence of water use planning, regulation and management. Small irrigation groups do practice a low level of localized on-farm water management but in the absence of a central authority with a sound strategy and management framework, authority and manpower capacity, the region will remain prone to flooding, inefficient water use, salinization and water logging.



Commercial irrigated farming has been greatly affected by the security situation. On-farm infrastructure has not been used nor maintained and some has been destroyed by floods. The once thriving banana (formerly the second largest export), melon and fruit production/export business has disappeared although there have been attempts to revive it. Current estimates are that over 70 percent of the irrigable lands are utilized for rainfed crop production.

Historically the state has been the source of agricultural inputs with the private sector not willing/able to compete. With the collapse of central government the private sector has become more active though still on a limited basis.

Livestock

Livestock sales are the main source of revenue for producers who comprise the majority of the Somali population. People along the marketing chain depend on livestock trading as well. Thus, the livestock sector has a significant influence on food security and poverty. The sector is the main source of foreign exchange earnings (not including remittances), much of which is used to finance imports of food and basic necessities. In Somaliland for example, about 80 percent of foreign exchange earnings come from livestock exports. The share of livestock in agricultural gross domestic product for Somalia in 2000 was about 88 percent. (Knips)

Livestock exports have continued during the persistent crisis by traders with support from local authorities and informal institutions enabling Somalia to be one of the largest exporters of live animal in the world (Little, 2005). Although the trade mainly consists of live animals, export of chilled meat to Middle East countries has increased (ILRI). Livestock and their products are in demand within Somalia but the largest economic return is realized from the export of live animals and carcasses to the Middle East and particularly Saudi Arabia.

As mentioned on page 26, Somali livestock production is based on a nomadic system characterized by high mobility requiring access to extensive grazing resources. It requires few purchased inputs but astute management. The nomadic system has evolved to make maximum sustainable use of the available grazing and water resources.

Mobility is the best strategy to manage unpredictability and risk and survive on low net productivity on the arid and semi-arid lands of Somalia. For the system to be effective and sustainable it requires access - pastoral corridors - to extensive grazing areas and access to water through judiciously located and maintained supply points. Unfortunately, pastoral corridors and water supply points have been endangered. Mobility is being increasingly limited by land being fenced off in enclosures to protect and privatize water points for dry season grazing reserves, commercial fodder production or grazing for lactating animals and farming. Unregulated permanent enclosure of land, water and deteriorated or damaged water points limit the herder's management choices.

Women are very much involved in livestock production, particularly small ruminants and lactating females kept near to the house. They manage the flocks, and with elder males and children, tend them. Women sell milk and animals locally and at markets and slaughter and sell meat, although the decision on when and which animal to sell is taken jointly with the male family head. The money from sales is managed by the women for household and family needs unless the animal is sold for another specific purpose in which case the man will be involved. Traditionally, women manage poultry flocks while men tend and manage nomadic herds.

A number of factors limit livestock production and productivity:

(i) More frequent and longer periods of low precipitation, loss of trees and subsequent increased water runoff, soil and land degradation have reduced the total growth of grass and browse biomass and weakened their capacity to recuperate from drought and overgrazing. Similarly, less total water supply and the deterioration of poorly maintained watering points has added to the grazing pressure, at certain times, on areas that do have water.

(ii) Animal husbandry practices had not changed much over the years and have deteriorated in recent years. Low productivity is correlated with conservative off-take strategies, and, hence, low incomes. Even before the outbreak of civil unrest, service delivery to the livestock sector was inadequate although vaccination campaigns to control most cross-border diseases were somewhat effective, with a high level of external support.

(iii) The inability to deliver services to the livestock sector is a major constraint to increasing production and productivity and accessing export markets. Animal health is important to keep animals alive and healthy and also to ensure compliance with international standards for export which is important in creating a profit incentive to the producer.

(iv) Bans on Somali livestock and livestock products have been imposed off and on for years by importing countries and have a great impact on households with few, if any, income alternatives. The bans usually concern Rift Valley Fever but could also cover trans-boundary diseases⁸. The recent lift of the ban by Saudi Arabia and the consequent opening of the most lucrative export market have changed the scenario. While there has been a positive result of increasing income and herd size, the lift of the ban has also led to negative impacts such as the proliferation of uncontrolled and unplanned berkads (commercial water reservoirs) that are associated with rangeland degradation (FEWSNET, October, 2010).

(v) Little value is added to livestock and livestock products in Somalia. Sheep and goats are mainly exported alive. The market chain from the producer to the port of embarkation is poorly developed. It begins with the producer who usually sells when compelled to because of drought or the need of cash rather than having an option to wait or bargain harder for a better price. It continues through the market chain itself which is in need of improvements in trekking routes including water, fodder for feed, overnight holding areas, veterinary and sanitary inspection services and transparent market information. Disease surveillance and animal health certification has to be rebuilt according to international export standards. Finally, Somalia will have to regain credibility with its trading partners.

Increasing livestock production is a priority for each region and the strategy to achieve it must be holistic in approach. With much of the grazing resource already damaged by overuse, loss of trees, soil degradation and climatic factors, a significant rise in production may not be possible by only increasing animal numbers. Indeed an indirect approach, the **sustainable management of grasslands and water should be at the core of the strategy** (WB & UN, 2007). Improving husbandry with good health services and genetic breed improvement should be accompanied by identifying new markets to exploit and differentiating the livestock product base to meet market requirements through public and private

⁸ Contagious Caprine Pleuro-Pneumonia, Contagious Bovine Pleuro-pneumonia, Peste des Petits Ruminants and Rinderpest.

participation (PPP) although the pastoral system responds slowly to new opportunities on its own.

Production and productivity increases in all three regions will be driven by growing market demand from urban dwellers and trading partners for milk, eggs and meat. These markets will also begin demanding higher quality, safer and more convenient products. It is likely that intensive production will locate nearer to the urban markets and to production resources, particularly water, available labour and support services.

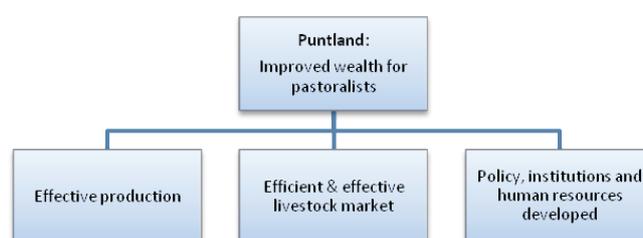
Puntland Livestock

Livestock is the most important productive sector for the people and economy of Puntland. Livestock exports contribute about 80 percent of foreign exchange earnings, 40 percent of GDP and 60 percent of employment (EC, 2010). Camels, goats, sheep and cattle are the foundation of household income, food security and resilience of the livelihood system.



As pointed out above, over many generations the Somali people have developed an effective nomadic management system that has allowed the sustainable use of grass, trees and brush (for browse) resources in this arid region.

The arid climate sustains a fragile ecosystem that has come under heavy pressure from the absence of sustainable management and overuse, changing weather patterns and the effects of a four-year long drought.



Trees (mainly acacia species) on which camels and goats browse, have been destroyed by the charcoal industry and farm land. Remaining grasslands are overgrazed primarily because of the disruption of traditional management systems and by loss of area due to construction of enclosures, land taken for cultivation and deterioration of water supply points. Finally, more frequent and longer dry periods have reduced the regeneration ability of grasses and other important species.

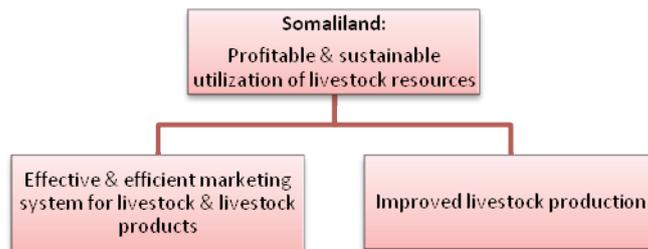
The government has passed a livestock policy and the Puntland Veterinary law code, but does not have enforcement capacity. Veterinary services are weak as well as disease surveillance, epidemiological monitoring and control and meat and milk quality and safety standards.

Easing access to competitive and transparent markets where animals will fetch “fair” prices would be a good mean to encourage herders to sell animals with the possibility of more profit.

Somaliland Livestock

Livestock raising and selling, mainly sheep and goats but also camels and cattle, is the leading productive activity in Somaliland. Livestock and associated products are the main export for the most part to the Arabian Peninsula with Saudi Arabia being the leading market (when its periodic bans of Somali animals and products are not in effect).

Every rural family is dependent, in part or wholly, on livestock for its livelihood. As in the rest of Somalia, herds and flocks productivity is low because of a number of factors not all inherent to pastoral systems: overuse of grass and browse, declining water supplies, absence of health and husbandry support services, isolation from markets and unimproved genetic potential of animals.

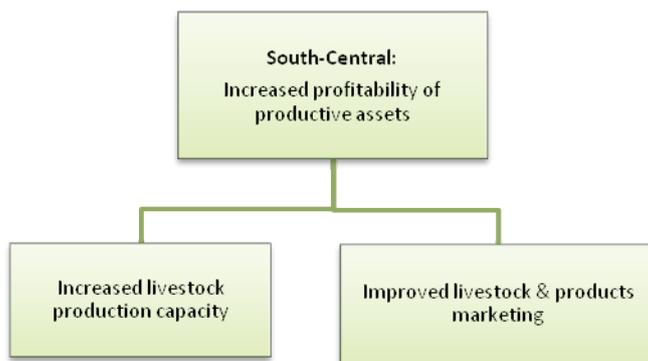


South Central Livestock

The alluvial plains of the Juba and Shebelle rivers in South Central Somalia support the highest crop production and largest concentration of livestock. Irrigated crop production using river water has developed along the rivers. Rainfed crop production is found further away and pastoralists use the more distant alluvial plains for grazing but rely on the rivers for water for livestock.

There are four livestock production systems in South Central Somalia, each adapted to the characteristics of its particular ecological zone: (i) the drier interior area supports pastoral families who keep camels and goats and require extensive areas of browse vegetation; (ii) sheep, cattle, goats and camels are raised in areas with higher precipitation where shifting cultivation is also practiced to produce sorghum and cowpeas in fenced-off areas. After harvest, livestock are allowed to clean up crop residues; (iii) nearer to rivers an irrigated crop-livestock system has developed. The crop-livestock mix adds a dimension of risk aversion and resilience to the family coping strategy; (iv) the fourth system is in the coastal zones.

As is the case throughout Somalia, livestock production has been affected by long-term neglect of services and physical infrastructure, absence of policy and regulatory framework and implementation capacity. Market and value-added infrastructure is damaged or destroyed and does not provide incentives to producers to increase productivity. Government animal health services no longer function though some critical vaccination programmes are operated by NGOs with funding and technical support from Somalia's cooperating partners, including FAO.



Fisheries

As mentioned on page 27, conservative estimates put Somalia's sustainable annual marine fisheries production in the range of 200,000 mt, with the most important marine resources including small and large pelagic, demersal fish, sharks and rays, cephalopods as well as shallow-water and deep-sea lobsters and shrimps. (FAO, 2005)



With the beginning of the civil unrest in Somalia, fisheries policy and management collapsed leaving the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) waters open to unmanaged exploitation. Foreign fishing companies have been taking advantage of the situation. There may be as many as 700 foreign-owned fishing vessels regularly engaged in unlicensed fishing in Somali waters. (FAO, 2005)

Very little licensing revenue is accruing to the State or its people from illegal fishing. Moreover, the fish are processed on board large fishing vessels and delivered directly to foreign markets with no value being added in Somalia. Being unregulated both the industrial and artisanal fishing fleets show little regard for the sustainability of the fish stocks and for the collateral damage inflicted to coral reefs and the biodiversity of the marine system. Policy and regulatory frameworks have not been enacted. Neither is there the institutional strength or resources to implement policy and enforce regulations.

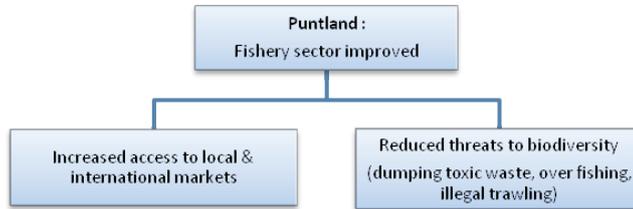
Artisanal fisherman use hand lines, nets and long lines to catch fish and maintain a subsistence existence for their families. They have practiced their trade along the coast for generations catching fish for home consumption as well as selling to markets on the beach, in urban markets and at sea to larger boats. In recent years fishermen had to spend more time at sea to catch the same amount of fish. This is almost certainly due to the reduction of fisheries stocks due to overfishing and habitat destruction (coral reefs) although there is no empirical data to verify it.

The possibility for Somali artisanal fishermen to improve their skills and increase their incomes is constrained by isolation due to poor physical infrastructure, inefficient fishing because of poor gear and skills, weak market chain and absent quality control and safety certification required by foreign markets.

There is space within Somalia's fishing sector for increased economic return to the fisher folk, more employment opportunities and more revenue for government tax coffers. In order to achieve these results, a market chain infrastructure will have to be established through private sector investment and PPP and policy, regulation and management of the industry. Furthermore, the total fisheries resource has to be sustainably managed to recover depleted populations and support artisanal and industrial fishing. Reliable data on the fisheries resource collected from fish landings, fish stocks inventory and monitoring of the numbers of fishing vessels and their catch is a first requirement. A planning and regulatory framework, setting out fisheries policy, and a strategy for sustainable management should be built on that information. The direct net benefit to people living on or near the coast will be alternative income options and improved nutrition from eating fish.

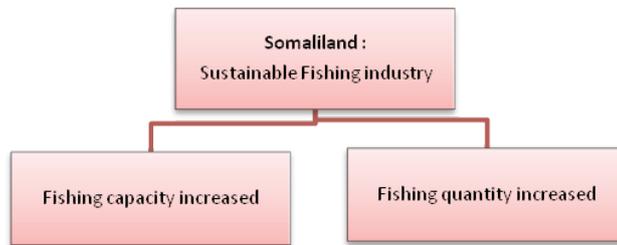
Puntland Fisheries

Puntland has the richest fisheries of Somalia , by quantity and diversity, due to its 1,300 kilometre coast and part of the EEZ lying off its shores (almost half of the country’s total area). Information on the condition of fish stocks is not available but FAO estimated in 1999 that an annual catch of 200,000 tonnes could be sustainable. Neither is it known how much fish is actually taken from Puntland waters each year. However it can be assumed that fish resources are being heavily exploited. Illegal, Unreported, Unregulated (IUU) large fishing boats and artisanal fishing “fleets” have been operating freely in Somali waters driving the decline in fish stocks. Interestingly the increase of piracy in Somali waters has reduced IUU fishing.



Somaliland Fisheries

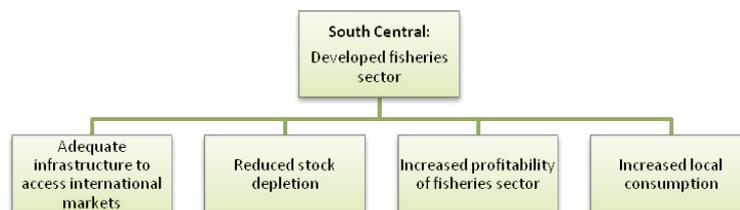
Somaliland’s fishing sector potential is small in comparison to Puntland and the rest of Somalia but its coastline and share of territorial waters support reasonable fisheries resources that could be sustainably managed for profit. A small portion of the population is engaged in fishing and few are employed by the sector even as its fishing resource is being heavily exploited offshore by foreign vessels. There is very little economic return and virtually no management, regulation or oversight of fisheries. Little is known about the amount of fish actually taken, the amount wasted or the extent of collateral damage inflicted to the marine environment.



Fisheries could be developed for the benefit of Somaliland through a holistic strategy that includes the adoption of forward-looking policy and regulatory framework for the sustainable management, access to and use of its marine resource. This holistic strategy would enable and encourage the private sector to invest, participate and service the fisheries industry by supplying equipment, processing and marketing facilities as well as training. Public institutions will have to be rebuilt to train needed human resources and fishermen, carry out research and identify technologies, monitor and regulate the sector.

South Central Fisheries

South Central Somalia has a long coastline (1,200 km) and about 45 percent of the country’s EEZ. These waters have diverse stocks of large and small commercially important fish including tuna, shark, snapper, sardines,



anchovies and lobster. Reliable and recent data on the status of the fisheries is not available so informed sound planning and management are not possible until an accurate assessment is carried out.

Water

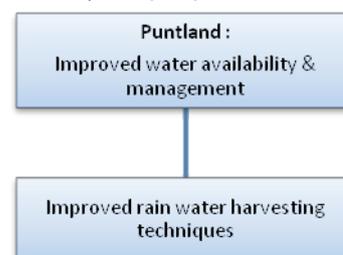
Somalia's climate is arid with precipitation falling in two seasons, April-June and October-November, although the distinction is less clear in the northern highlands. Water is therefore the major limiting factor to the exploitation of land and soil resources. The mean annual precipitation is 500mm with the northern coast and interior plateau receiving the least amount and the northern highlands and southwest receiving the most.

Surface water is the source for 96 percent of water use with ground water making up the balance. Agriculture demand (including livestock) accounts, by far, for most water use [Water Profile of Somalia. www.eoearth.org]. Suitable ground water availability is uneven across the country and quality varies with many sources being saline and unusable or good for only very limited uses. The use of dug wells in dry water courses during the dry seasons has been practiced by Somalis for generations as well as harvesting and collecting water in catchments. The use of bore wells is relatively more recent.

In rural areas the deterioration in the condition of traditional water supply structures, increasingly erratic rainfall and higher rates of runoff resulting from land degradation, has reduced water availability with acute shortages occurring during the dry seasons.

Puntland Water

Water resources in Puntland are limited. Precipitation is low and there are no major rivers. Ground water is relatively deep and often too saline for domestic and agricultural use. Traditionally the people of Puntland have used water harvesting methods to collect water for domestic, agricultural and livestock use. Shallow pans and wells are communally owned and berkads are privately owned. Boreholes are often the only source of "sweet" water but yields are low and they are prone to break down. Unregulated construction of water points often disrupts the traditional grazing/livestock management system.



A growing urban population is putting pressure on municipal governments to supply clean water in towns. The need to increase food production and add value to crop production means that water dependant oasis agriculture must be expanded and intensified. The livestock sector is also affected by increasingly difficult access to water and watering points.

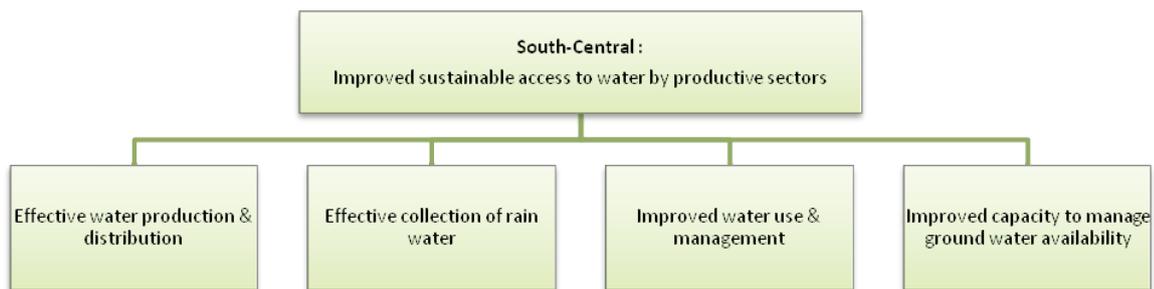
Somaliland Water

Access to suitable and sufficient water for all members of society is proving increasingly difficult in Somaliland and competition for it can lead to conflict as it did between 1994 and 1996. It can be the cause of large scale temporary migrations out of Somaliland, into Ethiopia for example. There are no rivers that flow year around and the sharp distinctions between the dry and wet seasons means that available water is severely limited for several months of the year. Supplying water to urban areas is becoming more of a challenge as more people move to towns and villages. Ground water is limited because of low recharge potential and harvesting of surface is dependent on rainfall.



South Central Water

South Central Somalia benefits from the Juba and Shebelle rivers. In the large area that lies beyond the rivers and their alluvial plains shallow wells are the primary sources of water, followed by dams, bore wells and a few springs. Most of these sources are in rural areas, where hand dug wells predominate, and provide water for livestock and household needs. Water issues in South Central include poor quality (high acidity and salinity) and pathogen contamination (SWALIM).



Environment and Natural Resources

The economy of Somalia and the core of rural livelihoods are rooted in its natural resources. Grass, trees and shrubs feed the livestock that dominate exports and underpin the livelihoods of most of the population. Somalia's forests provide frankincense, myrrh and gum arabic that have export and local market value. The forests also are key factors in maintaining wild life populations (many endemic to Somalia), soil fertility and controlling erosion and water runoff. Somalia's long coast and ocean are home to numerous species of fish and other marine life. Its soils and water resources underpin agriculture and livestock production systems in the two main river valleys.



The serious degradation of the environment began in post-independence early years when government management and regulation weakened or stopped. It accelerated with the collapse of central government, the influx of "refugees" from less secure regions, changing weather patterns, unsustainable land use and increasing poverty. Over more than twenty years of disrupted governance and insecurity, the already inadequate management and protection of natural resources has collapsed almost entirely.

Severe damage is being done to Somalia's environment and natural resources: land degradation caused by overgrazing, deforestation, soil erosion and more frequent dry periods; water pollution from inadequate waste and sanitary facilities and poor water management; marine resources degradation from illegal fishing and hazardous waste disposal in the ocean; chemical contamination from poor or lack of disposal of pesticides and disappearance of wildlife⁹.

⁹ These issues are presented in the WB Interim Strategy Note for Somalia – FY08-09

Overgrazing is resulting in loss of grazing areas to agriculture, private enclosures, a decline in available area with quality grass and loss of trees (browsed by camels, goats and wildlife) that contribute to soil fertility and erosion control. Longer and more frequent dry periods have reduced water supply and degraded grass quality and quantity.

The unregulated production and export of charcoal (the bane of trees but the preferred cooking fuel) has devastated the once abundant acacia trees on the savannah grasslands of Northern Somalia.

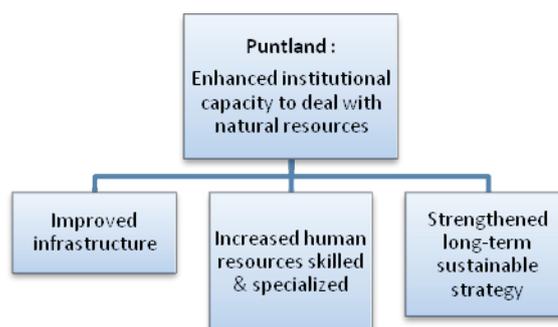
Marine resources are being threatened by illegal dumping of toxic waste into the ocean and on shore (World Bank, 2006). Fishing is uncontrolled and fisheries stocks are under pressure. Although empirical evidence is virtually non-existent, it is not much of a stretch to assume that the large numbers of fishing trawlers¹⁰ seen off Somalia's coast are taking large quantities of fish while not using sustainable methods in the process. Large amounts of unwanted species are caught and thrown back into the sea and damage to coral reef habitats is reckoned to be significant.

In 1995 Somalia had a rich wildlife population consisting of 171 species of which 11 endemic (animalinfor). Today the survival of many is threatened and some may have disappeared. The pressure is coming from the destruction of habitat from deforestation, land and cover degradation and loss, the absence of management of wildlife reserves, uncontrolled hunting and illegal export of young animals.

Peace and security are requisites for taking full action on the environment. Actions should start from information and data collection, analysis and dissemination to planners and managers. Then policy and legal frameworks have to be adopted and human and financial resources mobilized for implementation. Institutional capacity for training, research, outreach and advocacy has to be re-built. Nevertheless, indirect interventions can also help. Conservation farming methods, improved community and on-farm water management, reinforced traditional (clan elders) management and regulation of resources (water, grazing, land) are instruments that can be immediately adopted for environment conservation and sustainable management.

Puntland Environment

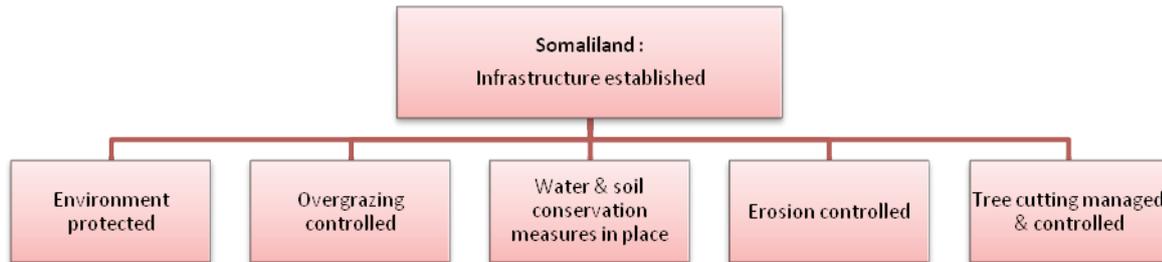
The sea that lies off Puntland's coast is the richest and most diverse in Somalia but its arid climate renders land ecosystems, soil and water sources highly fragile. A guiding policy and regulatory capacity are absent as are necessary financial, human and material resources to sustainably manage and protect environmental assets.



¹⁰ Anecdotal reports suggest that the increased pirate presence has kept some foreign fishing vessels away from Somali waters.

Somaliland Environment

The environmental issues most common in Somaliland include deforestation to charcoal production and wood fuel, soil degradation and erosion, loss of vegetation from overgrazing, over fishing and marine habitat loss and poor waste management. Somaliland’s traditional productive sectors and the livelihoods of most people are dependent on these natural resources.

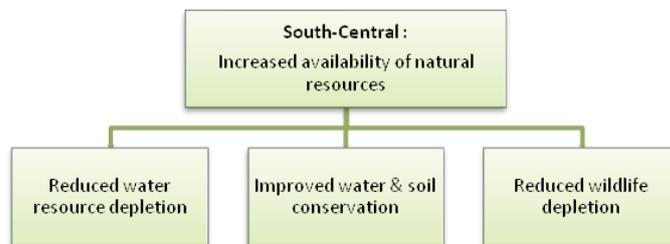


Somaliland has successfully established central governance. It enjoys relative peace and security and has built back basic public services. However, in other areas such as the environment, less has been achieved. Financial and human resource constraints and the necessity to prioritize urgent issues are the main obstacles to a sustainable management of natural resources.

Given the critical importance of natural resources to people’s survival and wellbeing and to the broader economy, it is essential that Somaliland develops a guiding environmental policy, adopts appropriate regulations, establishes management capacity to protect its environment, promotes the recovery and enables the sustainable exploitation of its natural resources.

South Central Environment

South Central Somalia’s productive sectors and the livelihoods of most families are highly dependent on its natural resources: land, water, soil and marine. It is therefore essential that they are sustainably exploited. Right across the board each resource has been



deeply damaged by unsustainable overuse. There are several causes varying with location and the most important follow: (i) population displacement because of insecurity and large movement of people and animals to safer places; (ii) destitute people’s drive for survival and (iii) absence of a natural resource policy, management strategy and framework, and institutional, human and financial resources needed to manage, regulate, monitor and promote sustainable use of natural resources.

Institutional Capacity and Regulatory Framework

Public institutions and administrative units that normally manage and deliver public services have been absent and their ability to function has been curtailed everywhere and particularly in South Central Somalia. Even before 1990 and the onset of the long civil disruptions, the delivery of public services was inefficient and inadequate. Poor conditions of service (exceedingly low salaries and poor management)

resulted in low morale, corruption and an overstuffed civil service, of which a large part not qualified. At the same time, the recruitment and training of the next generation of civil servants and technicians is not taking place.

The general weakening of the civil service has also meant that support services to farmers and herders, extension services, animal health and disease control are absent in many places. Their absence has contributed to the decline in productivity, save in areas where NGOs and CBOs have stepped in with support from funding partners.

Starting in 1991 and 1998 respectively, Somaliland and Puntland have made progress in restoring or reinstating important functions and institutions although much of the focus necessarily remains on security and related issues. Productive sectors such as agriculture, livestock and fisheries - on which the economy, income and food security of households' depend - have been negatively impacted by overuse and subsequent damage and degradation. This has happened in the absence of suitable management and regulatory framework and because of the extraordinarily precarious situation of people who, in their struggle to survive, have abandoned traditional resource management systems. Overgrazing, deforestation, overfishing and loss of marine habitat, erosion and soil degradation are therefore manifestations of unregulated and unsustainable resource use.

The periodic bans on Somalia livestock by importing countries in the absence of a credible disease control and certification system is an example of how institutional failure and regulatory non-compliance hinders economic development and has a direct effect on the wellbeing of rural families.

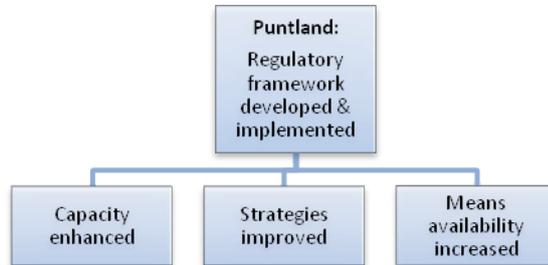
On the positive side, the private sector, ready to seize the opportunity, has invested in communications, banking and transport to fill needs and make a profit. In some cases service delivery is done through public/private partnerships such as water supply in some urban areas. NGOs and CBOs have also been filling gaps with particular success at the village level and in remote areas.

Livestock and farming are the core activities of the rural population and a source of food basics for urban citizens. By establishing the delivery of agricultural services to farmers their ability to stabilize and increase production for family consumption, income and national food security will increase. Training and technology transfer through extension services, improved technologies used on the farm from adaptive research, pest and disease control, access to inputs and credit, stable land tenure through a transparent and equitable land registration and mapping system and access to credit are all important elements that, if in place, will enable farmers and herders to stabilize their production in the current subsistence model and become increasingly productive for the market and household cash income.

Puntland Institutions/Capacity and Regulatory Framework

Since 1998, Puntland has made progress in restoring or reinstating important functions and institutions although much of the focus necessarily remains on security related issues. The Puntland government has been rebuilding its service sector, has now a basic structure in place and is continuing its partnerships with the private sector, NGOs and CBOs, although progress is slow due to human resource and financial constraints.

The problems with the public service sector are clear and recognized in the United Nations Transition Plan for Somalia as well as the United Nations /World Bank Somali Joint Needs Assessment (April, 2007) and Recovery and Development Plan (2007). The latter suggests that the focus for action should be on building a public policy and regulatory framework that, *inter alia*, will: (i) Ensure economic competition and equitable access, (ii) Assure that necessary resources are available, (iii) Facilitate and encourage private sector participation and its regulation and (iv) Limit state delivery to services that the private sector should not or cannot provide.



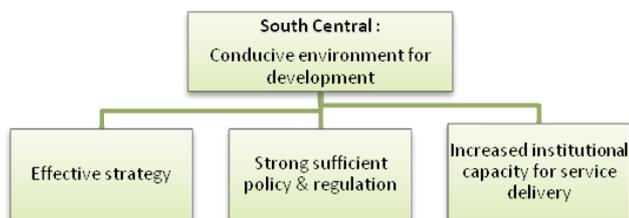
Somaliland Institutions/Capacity and Regulatory Framework

Somaliland declared itself independent from Somalia in 1991. Since then, the government has been able to deliver basic services in some areas but in most locations other actors have moved in to deliver public services directly or in a public/private partnership arrangement with the private sector remaining the main service provider. However, delivery of agricultural and animal health services remains poor. NGOs, communities and the Diaspora provide most of the financing. The poor conditions of service for government employees make it difficult to increase the numbers of service providers.

South Central Institutions/Capacity and Regulatory Framework

South Central Somalia has witnessed the worst of insecurity and fiercest fighting in Somalia. The TFG central government is not able to project its authority and to provide essential social (education, health, security, etc.), infrastructure (roads and water), livestock and agricultural services to the region. Insecurity and deterioration of the roads network limit access to many areas. Where services are available they are typically being delivered by NGOs and CBOs with funding support from some of Somalia’s cooperating partners and in some cases from the private sector.

FAO’s experience in Somalia has shown that NGOs, CBOs and private/public partnerships have an important role in the delivery of public goods. Policies and regulations should build on this finding and encourage and regulate the private sector to invest and enter into partnerships with governments to provide direct services to the productive sectors and to establish, operate and support institutions for research, training and regulation. Partnership with the private sector can mobilize money for investment in providing services and in establishing and implementing regulations, safety and quality standards.



Information and Analysis

Somaliland Information and Analysis

Since the independence declaration in 1991, Somaliland has taken over a public sector and civil service structure weakened by years of mismanagement and neglect. As it has rebuilt public institutions and their functions, the government has increasingly recognized that careful forward-looking planning and sound management are needed. To be successful, these processes presuppose that the basics for good planning and management are in place including data, information and human skills to process, analyze and present them to the planners and managers.



Skilled human resources are limited within the civil service due to financial constraints that preclude mobilizing talented staff and pay for junior cadre's training.

These weaknesses have an impact on how much the government can accomplish and have made it almost impossible to collect, analyze and use information and data for planning and monitoring. The government is concerned that it often must take decisions on the basis of insufficient information and analysis.

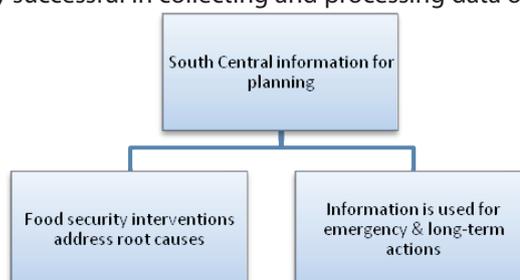


Current and relevant data and information is limited in some case, to specific geographic areas, may not be accurate, or may be in incompatible formats. On the other hand, the FSNAU and the SWALIM project have a broad coverage of Somalia and provide accurate information and analysis on food, nutrition, livelihoods security and water and soils.

South Central Information and Analysis

Data and information have not been collected and analyzed in South Central Somalia since 1991. Even before then data information and analysis were not seen as a priority and no resources were devoted to them. Since then much of the data and information collected has become out of date, has limited relevance or has been lost or destroyed.

However, considerable new and good data and information is being recently generated, accompanied by good analysis. The SWALIM project has been remarkably successful in collecting and processing data on two of Somalia's most important resources, water and soils. It has produced and published many analytical reports and maps which are widely available on the internet. This information will be invaluable to a host of activities including policy-making, establishing use and protection regulations and soil and water management land use planning.



The FSNAU has been remarkably successful in collecting and analysing data. Its analysis and reporting on food, nutrition and livelihoods security is invaluable for early warning of forthcoming problems and for planning of emergency responses and recovery and development actions.



Chapter 4

Strategic Linking of Emergency Response Actions and Development

When a crisis occurs the first priority is to save lives and moderate the impact on the people's wellbeing. Humanitarian aid makes up the largest part of official development assistance (ODA) to Somalia. It amounted to 64 percent of total ODA between 2000 and 2008 (FAO) with the greater amount being directed to South Central region where the humanitarian crisis is more urgent.

Crises are set off by natural disasters such as floods and droughts or armed conflict and they can be prolonged, as in Somalia, by recurring natural disasters and/or continuing conflict. However, as crises continue, they may assume specific characteristics that can complicate responses.

Somalia has acquired many of those characteristics that have been analyzed in details in previous chapters. **Governance is weak, public institutions not functioning and delivery of public services is limited**, although Somaliland and Puntland have made progress in addressing both. As insecurity continues in many parts of the country, **public infrastructure remains in a poor state. Skilled manpower has drained away** to safer areas or out of the country altogether. These weaknesses have caused a **decline in the delivery of agriculture and livestock services** which has contributed to a **decrease in production. Displacement** of people to safer areas has increased pressure on local resources and intensified competition has led to their **overuse and degradation** while exacerbating local tensions. The usurpation of land along with increasing limits to access to public grazing and water has **stripped away assets and livelihoods** of **dispossessed families** and tends to **create points of contention** that can last for years. The net result is deep poverty, where people are not able to cope as calamities continue to strike.

A holistic and forward-looking approach is needed to help the people of Somalia to survive the current crises, manage future ones and achieve the longer term development goal of food and livelihood security. Actions taken at an early stage to restart food production and rebuild family assets pay good dividends by reducing poverty, one of the drivers of conflict in Somalia, and opening the way for recovery and development.

Protecting, promoting and rebuilding livelihoods and achieving food security for the Somali people should be initiated in parallel with humanitarian responses.

Most responses to protracted crises take place in a humanitarian context that often limits the ability to address the real drivers of the crisis in a more comprehensive way. However, experience shows how linking short- and long-term responses in protracted crises, and undertaking or promoting responses that address the structural causes of crises, can support longer term recovery in agricultural livelihoods and food security. (FAO, 2010)

At the earliest stage of humanitarian intervention, opportunities exist to begin rebuilding by linking longer term development actions to shorter term humanitarian actions. **Organizing and delivering humanitarian assistance through local groups, institutions and leaders**, both traditional and new, has proven to work. Supporting them will build local capacity where central government has none or is weak. Longer term assistance actions can therefore be designed and built on the experiences gained and the lessons learned by the people and local institutions as they had to find ways to cope, and on the information and the lessons gleaned by Somalia's cooperating partners.

The long period of insecurity and disruption is the overriding cause of today's poverty, food insecurity, loss of livelihoods and assets, but the long history of poor governance has also taken its toll with many harmful consequences. The productive sectors have never approached their potential and people have never enjoyed normally expected social standards in nutrition, health and education. The goal of response actions should be set higher than merely returning to pre-crisis conditions. **Somalia and its partners should task themselves to "build back better"**.

Adopt a holistic approach to rebuild rural families' livelihoods and achieve food security.

When designing and delivering humanitarian assistance attention must be given to protecting assets, achieving food security and rebuilding livelihoods. This can be accomplished, to some extent, **by linking humanitarian actions to agriculture-led growth**. Eighty percent of the population depends on crops and livestock for their livelihoods. Both have been hit hard and disrupted by conflict, drought and flooding. Climate change is expected to exacerbate the frequency of droughts and floods. However, agriculture is multi-functional and much of the responsibility for the requisites that allow it to be successful lies outside the sector. This means that linking short and long-term actions must be multi-sectoral in concept and practice, both in public policy and cooperating partners' strategies.

Nearly two decades of conflict and insecurity have seen the internal displacement of 1.4 million Somalis currently classified as IDPs (FSNAU), the destruction or deterioration of physical infrastructure and curtailment or total absence of many social services, primarily in the South Central region. The dual outcome is that (i) a large number of people are food insecure, live in deep poverty and depend on humanitarian assistance and (ii) territories and natural resources have been encroached upon, leading to their overuse and degradation and, often, to high levels of tension.

Small farmer access to inputs will have a direct impact on small farmer production and productivity. Delivering inputs to farmers should aim at building local market-based linkages and support informal institutions that have found ways to function and succeed under the prevailing difficult conditions. This will help reduce farmer expenses and strengthen value chain linkages.

The forced takeover of prime agricultural land by individuals has caused many small farmers to abandon agriculture. The deterioration of roads and other infrastructure, road blocks set up by militia, among other factors, have made marketing of products difficult and unprofitable. Heads of household have been forced to seek other means to sustain their families, including requiring family members to find work outside the household, often intensifying competition which can lead to tension and conflict. Early interventions to support local institutions and groups to mitigate these kinds of dispute can help to diffuse them and avert or mitigate conflict.

The problems that afflict Somalia and their consequences all contribute to weaken families' ability to cope with adversity. Natural disasters are not a recent phenomenon to Somalia. What has changed is the frequency and severity of floods and drought and the loss of resiliency within families and communities. Loss of assets to usurpation by the powerful, limited or lack of access to resources, and deterioration and destruction of infrastructure have all constrained or eliminated family livelihood systems.

Early support to traditional leaders and local institutions and groups is a progressive means of filling gaps left by the collapse of public institutions. Where governance and public institutions are not effective, traditional ones and local groups can fulfil many of the functions needed to guide and support communities to achievement of results. In Somalia FAO and others have successfully relied on traditional institutions and private/public partnerships for service delivery. Farmer Field Schools, for example, have been successful in finding solutions to problems and in knowledge transfer. Other opportunities that exist to build on local initiatives should be sought out and exploited.

Competition for resources in arid Somalia where good grazing, fertile soil and water are in short supply is probably as old as Somalia itself. Competition over land and water between pastoralists and farmers and challenges from pastoralists' illegal enclosures is intensifying and increasing the potential for conflict.

These points of friction and potential conflict can be eased through sound policy and equitable regulatory frameworks designed and implemented in full partnership with the users, local groups and institutions including the private sector.

Humanitarian response actions and development activities are being linked through FAO and World Food Programme (WFP) cooperation. Longer term development could be enhanced if this type of cooperation and coordination is broadened to include all partners and is initiated in parallel with and builds, at every opportunity, on the substantial humanitarian support that characterizes official development assistance to Somalia.

Activities that seek to stabilize rural production and create the incentives and means to move towards commercial production and increase productivity are most needed and the easiest to link to first interventions.

Global experience shows that humanitarian clusters are effective platforms for holistic assessment and planning of interventions and establishment of links between short and long-term goals.¹¹ Dialogue initiated in the context of clusters can solve tensions between short-term humanitarian and longer term development actions and their supporting partners. Mutual areas of interest would include cost benefits, coverage of beneficiaries and sustainability issues. (FAO)

¹¹ The cluster approach was proposed as a way of addressing gaps and strengthening the effectiveness of humanitarian response through building partnerships. It ensures predictability and accountability in international responses to humanitarian emergencies, by clarifying the division of labour among organizations, and better defining their roles and responsibilities within the different sectors of the response. It is about making the international humanitarian community more structured, accountable and professional, so that it can be a better partner for host governments, local authorities and local civil society. The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) has designated global cluster leads in eleven areas of humanitarian activity.



Chapter 5

Somalia's Drivers of Conflict and Principles of Intervention

Somalia has been without a central government since 1991, and was in a state of civil war for several years prior to that. Since 2004, a Transitional Federal Government has attempted to exercise some authority but has been unable to extend its control over much of the country. Quasi-independent regional governments have exercised some autonomy and administration in Somaliland and Puntland in the north. In recent years, the conflict has taken on elements of regional rivalry. The conflict led to a major famine in South Central Somalia in 1992–93. Since 2000, there have been localized food-security crises in various parts of the country. Fierce fighting in Mogadishu in 2006 led some half a million residents of the city to flee to the relative safety of the Afgooye corridor, to the northwest of the city. (FAO, 2010)

Somalia is one of the world's twenty-two countries that are in protracted crises. In Somalia the protracted crisis has been caused and perpetuated by conflict and natural disaster - flooding and drought. The most harmful consequence has been its impact on the resilience and wellbeing of Somali households, the loss of livelihoods and assets, increased food insecurity and deepened poverty.

A World Bank Report (World Bank, January, 2005) discusses several drivers of the conflict in Somalia, of which the most pertinent for FAO are highlighted below. However, poverty - the sum of the other drivers - and food insecurity may be at the origin of today's conflicts within Somalia. Poverty and food insecurity allow the factions in the armed conflict to easily recruit among the youth and disaffected, are significant causes of natural resources overexploitation and of the intensifying competition for their control as people struggle for survival.

Governance issues. The collapse of central governance in 1991 intensified the struggle for government control with virtually no moderating influence except from the traditional system of elder clan leaders whose influence though is being eroded. Government control is viewed as a tool to gain economic and political power and a means to provide benefits to one's own faction. At least from the beginning of the first post-coup government in 1969, this has been the driving factor for many players in the continuing fight for power and influence, in particular in the South Central region.

Protracted crises affect men and women differently. Differences in gender roles and disparities in the way men and women are treated play a major role in how protracted crises emerge and are experienced. Better understanding of these differences can improve responses to protracted crises by the societies affected as well as by providers of humanitarian assistance and the international community as a whole. (FAO, 2010)

Economic issues. The livestock ban and its devastating effect on the economy and household livelihoods increased pressure for people to find alternative incomes and competition over them.

The use of *Khat* seems to have increased in response to the tougher struggle for survival. *Khat* is debilitating, affecting health as well as the ability to work. Importing and selling *khat* is a lucrative business that may have several and diverse effects including adding cash to the local economy, diverting remittance money away from productive investments and enabling the purchase of weapons.

Control of commercial arteries (roads, airstrips, seaports) to impose charges for economic gain is a continuing cause of local conflict between various factions with assets changing hands from time to time.

Resource issues. Competition over land and water points in arid Somalia where good grazing, fertile soil and water are limited is probably as old as Somalia itself. Arid climate, poor soils and limited water resources limit the area of good productive grazing and farming potential which are vital for the livelihoods of 80 percent of Somalis.

Due in part to the long (but recently lifted) ban on Somali livestock imports by Saudi Arabia, conflicts over water and grazing resources (already seriously degraded) have increased as herd size grows. Competition for land became more intense as families seek better grazing and "fertile" land to grow crops as a supplement to lower income from livestock sales.

Competition between clans and pastoralists and farmers and the challenges against illegal enclosures by pastoralists are intensifying. Degradation from overuse and a changing climate are increasingly limiting the value and amount of good land for grazing, restricting mobility, farming and water supply thus intensifying competition.

Breakdown of regulating mechanisms. In the absence of management and regulating mechanisms, various competing groups have increasingly resorted to the use of force to settle differences. Historically the Somali people have relied on a traditional system of dispute settlement based on clan elders using commonly accepted principles and their own wisdom to settle disputes. Although the traditional system still exists, mainly within clans or groups, its authority is being eroded by the general breakdown of social order and security. More recently, there seems to be a growing tendency to resort to them particularly in rural areas.

Proliferation of small arms. Small arms proliferation has been driven by easy access, the perceived need for personal protection in the absence of public security, absence of regulation and apparent impunity from prosecution.

Local socio-economic and institutional arrangements that existed prior to a protracted crisis – or were developed in response to it – can provide a sustainable basis for addressing drivers of the crisis and for rebuilding livelihoods after the crisis is over (FAO, 2010).

Conflicts between regions. Somalia is undergoing a reorganization of governance, accompanied by political divisions and disagreements over specific geographical areas. The major areas of contention and rivalry are Sool and Eastern Sanaag (Somaliland and Puntland), the lower Juba and Mudug (inter-clan). These are potential tinder boxes for igniting heightened conflict.

External influences. Foreign states and external groups are having a significant influence in driving and perpetuating conflict in Somalia. Often with opposing agendas, they fuel conflict for their own ends with detrimental impact on the Somali people.

Principles of intervention

Understanding the drivers of conflict is important to plan, design and implement assistance actions in Somalia. A first and underlying rule is to “do no harm” by adopting interventions that would bring clans and regions together or, at minimum, blur their divisions. The “do no harm” principle also applies to FAO and partners’ work. FAO is aware that its own actions and those of other “partners” could increase tensions and fuel conflict if they lead to an intensification of conflict over natural and development resources. The Strategy seeks to do no harm and calls for equitable development as capacity and security allow.

Action to “**build back better**” local economies and restore family incomes is crucial to reduce conflict by fighting poverty. It can result in less competition for resources thus reducing inter-clan tensions. The engine for fighting poverty is livestock and agriculture. Livestock is the main economic activity for most Somalis followed by agriculture. Both are relevant to all regions and groups and thus offer an obvious entry point and an opportunity for equitable and uniting support programmes.

Delivering the wrong kind of assistance in the wrong way can escalate tensions and fuel conflict, further weakening Somalia. **Building on Somali-led successful interventions** at the local level is an opportunity to start and build on a strategy owned and managed by the people to address their priorities.

In “normal” times the roles of men and women differ as does their often unequal access to services and resources. Conflict can amplify these disparities when social services break down, men leave for work or fighting and the family assets are depleted. Almost always the crisis that comes with conflict means the violent exploitation of women and those at the bottom of the social order. FAO’s interventions will help in mitigating some of these effects by addressing the **access issues of women as well as men**.

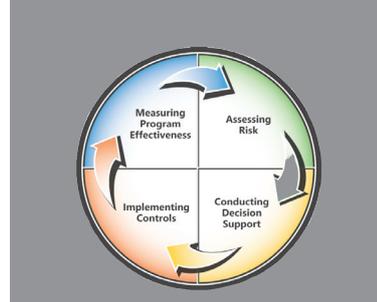
To be effective in Somalia it is necessary to be **aware of these (and other) drivers of conflict** and to understand their effect on humanitarian and development processes. It is also important (see above) that activities do not exacerbate the existing tensions and underlying drivers of conflict. Clan competition is a given and, in the current circumstances, can easily escalate into conflict.

Changes in alliances and areas of conflict can cause the loss of an opportunity or the emergence of a new one. The ebb and flow of conflict and its effect on Somalia will therefore be monitored periodically.

FAO intends to **monitor** the change that its interventions will bring about for the population. Monitoring is aimed at, among other things, detecting negative or harmful effects that may exacerbate the drivers of the Somali conflict. FAO will take the lead and cooperate with other partners in monitoring and analyzing the changing impact of conflict on rural production and food security keeping Somali governments and their cooperating partners informed.

The FAO Somalia Monitoring Unit will be responsible for setting up a simple monitoring system in collaboration with each project and the UN monitoring office. The monitoring system will select few simple and verifiable indicators with means of measurement to monitor the impact of conflict and of development interventions on the population.

FAO will also work with other agencies and partners to coordinate and improve the systems for collection of data on Somalia. It will develop data collection tools and propose data collection approaches. It will work with and train local staff on monitoring approaches and how to operationalize interventions.



Chapter 6

Risk Management And Preparedness¹²

Various levels of risk are inherent to Somalia. Its arid climate and relatively fragile natural resource base have led people to evolve coping mechanisms that for generations enabled them to manage naturally occurring (flood, drought) risks and gave their survival system a remarkable resilience to calamitous events. Their traditional risk management and coping systems have, however, been less successful in dealing with manmade hazards (civil unrest, the effects of natural resource degradation). Attention to these kinds of risk is a prerequisite for successful interventions in Somalia.

Risk identification is the process of recognition and recording of risks. It entails consolidating and structuring existing knowledge about potential risk events, lessons learned from past experience, "what if?" scenarios, and "horizon scanning" in each area on an ongoing basis. (UNICEF)

Good early warning systems and effective use of operational and coordination capacities are requisites for identifying risk, and planning and implementing effective responses. Due to its field presence, its long history of operating in Somalia and the work of the FSNAU and SWALIM, FAO's participation informs and enriches these processes.

The UN Country Team for Somalia is creating a Risk Management capacity within the Office of the Resident Coordinator that will identify risk management challenges, set out priorities, provide advice and assistance in planning for and developing responses. Training is underway to raise awareness on the

importance and payoff from risk management and to build capacity within FAO and other UN Agencies.

As it strengthens results-based and adaptive management of the Somalia Programme, FAO is increasing its capacity for risk assessment, preparedness, early warning, effective response and linking the present to the future to build back better. Risk management and preparedness mechanisms are built into its new Strategy, Plans of Action and individual field actions. FAO Somalia Monitoring Unit, FSNAU, SWALIM, other in house and external sources for data, FAO's field presence and, along with Response Analysis Support Team (RAST), the analysis and participation in the UN Risk Management structure are the key elements that will enable these mechanisms.

Structured and rigorous risk management actions by FAO will pay off for Somalia through: Better preparedness **before**, better response and effect monitoring to inform adaptation **during** and effective and successful "build back better" **after** disaster occurs.

Include in project design clear sequences of intermediate results that, when taken together, will produce the intended objective but have their own intrinsic value when standing alone. If project activities are delayed not all will be lost.

Response Analysis Support Team (RAST) check list for project preparation and approval

- ✓ Is the technical intervention appropriate to circumstances?
- ✓ Will there be the intended impact within the designated time frame?
- ✓ Is there adequate technical and logistics capacity?
- ✓ What are the probabilities of adverse effects from the intervention?
- ✓ Is the budget adequate to cover costs?
- ✓ Will it be possible to monitor achievement of results and risk?

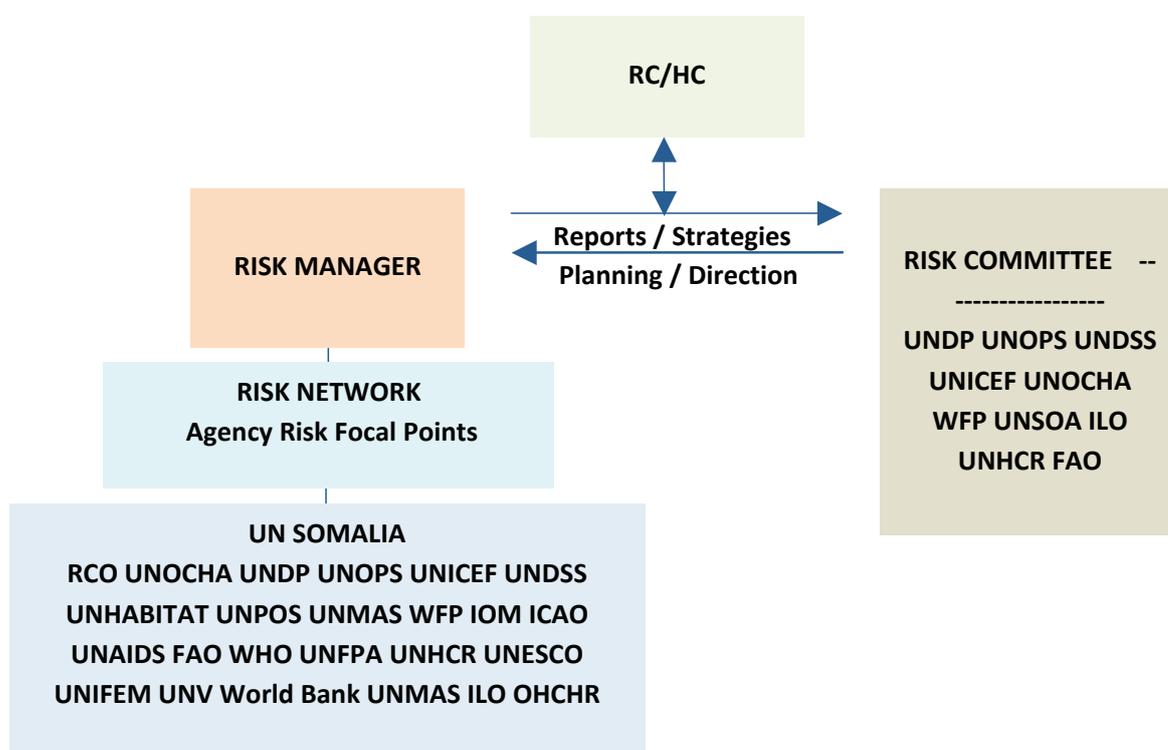
¹² Risk management is the identification, assessment, and prioritization of risks (defined in ISO 31000 as the effect of uncertainty on objectives, whether positive or negative) followed by coordinated and economical application of resources to minimize, monitor, and control the probability and/or impact of unfortunate events^[1] or to maximize the realization of opportunities. (Wikipedia) (Wikipedia)

The RAST was set up with the objective of systematically and more transparently translate needs assessments and other situation analysis information into response plans.

FAO gives significant importance to managing financial risks and those associated with contracting and vendor management. Because of the well-known situation in Somalia, FAO (along with other UN agencies) manages its operations in the sub-regions “remotely” from Nairobi, in some areas without a permanent full presence on the ground. Through its participation in the UN Risk Committee, FAO Somalia actively contributes to and benefits from the jointly developed UN/Somalia service providers (suppliers, contractors, etc.) data base which provides up-to-date information on the performance, qualifications and possible risks of using any of the suppliers delivering goods and providing services that are registered and on the list. This is an effective tool to identify and manage risks such as potential delays, loss or damage of inputs provided through FAO projects.

FAO continues to seek ways to improve its own mechanisms of management, monitoring and control of assets on the ground. The new Monitoring Unit is being designed to enhance its monitoring and reporting ability on the competence and performance of implementing partners, including their use of FAO’s financial and material assets. In addition, FAO is continually striving to improve its contracting instruments by making use of remedy clauses and other protection refinements. Internally, FAO has recently developed a corporate Risk Management Framework and FAO/Somalia will be one of the first country offices to use it in the field.

UN Somalia Risk Management Structure¹³



¹³ Risk Structure, UN Somalia Risk Manager.

Preparedness

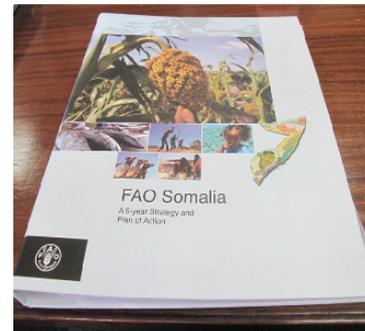
Disaster preparedness minimizes the adverse effects of a hazard through effective precautionary actions, rehabilitation and recovery to ensure the timely, appropriate and effective organization and delivery of relief and assistance following a disaster. (UNDP)

FAO Somalia's approach to **preparedness** is based on four functions:

1. Strengthening the resilience of rural families by diversifying their livelihoods and stabilizing agricultural production for food security and building/protecting their assets.
2. Strengthening capacities and cooperation among local organizations, institutions and the private sector to plan for, manage and respond to disaster events and mainstream preparedness and risk management in Government policies.
3. Obtaining early warning , risk assessment and information using FSNAU analysis and reporting¹⁴ to help target vulnerable groups and identify policies and programmes which will improve their resilience to future shocks. Using SWALIM data and information for early warning and planning response and recovery.
4. Preparing for emergency interventions through prior planning. Examples are an atlas of geographic production systems and characteristics (number of farms, crops and varieties grown, inputs used, livestock systems and probable disease and other issues, etc.), sources for inputs, tools to enable quick responses and a programme for seed production and retention for emergencies.

In parallel with humanitarian response, early actions should be implemented to protect assets, re-establish household incomes and food production to increase families' natural resilience to threatening events and to enable them to retain a sense of dignity. Humanitarian and development actions can work in parallel from the earliest response phase and FAO will advocate for this and present effective response proposals for action.

¹⁴ For example the Integrated Food Security and Humanitarian Phase (IPC) Classification Framework. The **IPC** is an innovative tool for improving food security analysis and decision-making. It is a standardized scale that integrates food security, nutrition and livelihood information into a clear statement about the nature and severity of a crisis and implications for strategic response. IPC was initially developed by FAO in Somalia through the Food Security Analysis Unit and is being developed further by key partners. It has been piloted and is now used in many countries in Africa and Asia.



Chapter 7

Keeping the Strategy Current and Valid

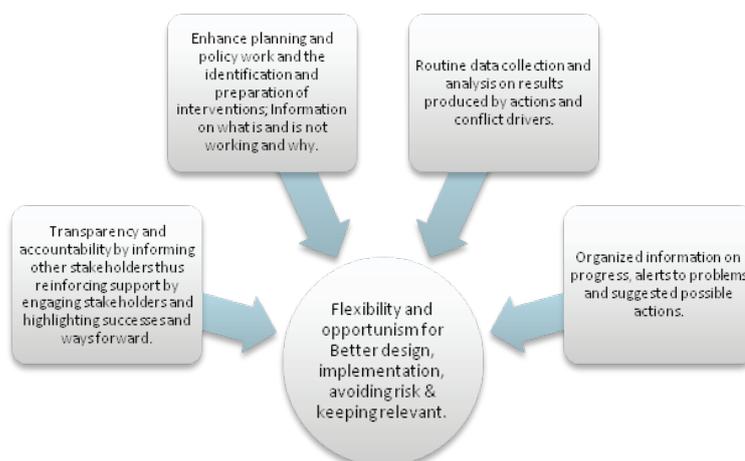
Today's Somalia is characterized by change and uncertainty. Change can occur frequently and rapidly because of continuous strife, civil war and long-lasting factors in Somalia's history. The Somali economy is largely based on natural resources. The nomadic livestock system, irrigation dependent on river water and, to a lesser extent, rainfall and forest derived commodities (charcoal) are natural resource based productive activities that are the foundation of most rural family livelihoods which, in this arid region, can be fragile and sensitive to external pressures. The arid climate and relative fragility of the natural resource base make them highly vulnerable to an array of natural (flood, drought) and manmade (insecurity) shocks that have important consequences for people's wellbeing.

As the Somali people themselves have learned over the millennia, flexibility and opportunism are necessary tools for survival under these conditions as well as the sustainable utilization and maintenance of the resource base. Historically, the Somali people have developed systems that allow them to adjust to floods, drought and other disasters. The mobile nomadic livestock system, water harvesting, spate irrigation and cropping on flooded areas as the water recedes are examples of adapted coping strategies. These systems have three characteristics in common: **flexibility**, **opportunism** and **knowledge** handed down from generation to generation and continuously refined through daily experience. Today, the delivery of emergency and development interventions must also be adaptive and opportunistic and for this real time knowledge and information is essential.

FAO's five-year Strategy for Somalia is the base on which the next Plan of Action will be built. To keep strategy and action plan valid, effective, opportunistic and risk avoiding, they will be regularly reviewed and adapted to the changes occurring in the fluid and unpredictable situation of Somalia and those brought about by the FAO Programme.

The abovementioned FAO Somalia Monitoring Unit will support managers and planners at all levels with the information and analytical support needed to make informed decisions in time and to inform programme and project design. The work of the Unit will enable flexibility and opportunism for smart intervention and adaptation.

Monitoring: A system for assessing the performance of development interventions, partnerships or policy reforms relative to what was planned, in terms of the achievement of outputs and outcomes. Performance measurement relies upon the collection, analysis, interpretation and reporting of data for performance indicators. (OECD/DAC, 2002)



Previous chapters have shown how the twenty-year long conflict in Somalia has led to a decline in most if not all social and economic indicators, deepened poverty and food insecurity. The conflict is dynamic and its driving factors wax and wane, often in short time spans, and require monitoring. As mentioned before, a set of indicators that show change in the “conflict” itself but also in the conflict-driven impact on the rural productive sectors and the work of FAO, will be selected, monitored, analyzed and the results shared broadly.

A necessary requirement for any enterprise is knowledge. The more is known about the efficiency, effectiveness and relevance of interventions, the greater the potential for getting things right and thus, achieving success. FAO’s goal is better design and implementation of its projects by relying on its experience and understanding of Somalia and by using knowledge at the beginning, during and at the end of an intervention. Projects will have fewer unknowns, clearer and better justified objectives, flexible and responsive implementation and, at the end, dissemination of valuable lessons learned: what worked, what didn’t and why. Sharing and disseminating the findings of its monitoring activities will enhance and encourage participation of all partners and enable a high degree of transparency for worthwhile cooperation and coordination.

In partnerships that work the participants engage in regular discourse. Communication can happen informally at all levels when partners have opportunities to discuss implementation and other topics of interest. Partnership dialogue will be strengthened to keep the strategy and Plan of Action up-to-date and valid by facilitating regular information sharing, allowing broad access to monitoring results and data bases through various coordination groups such as the Agriculture and Livelihoods Cluster led by FAO.

Conflict monitoring would have two aspects: monitoring indicators of change and monitoring impact of reconstruction and development interventions on the conflict situation. The first aspect would be the simpler one and should start first. The second aspect would require a detailed selection of indicators related to the specific activities and locations covered by each intervention, and should be built into the design of each project or program. (World Bank, January, 2005)



Chapter 8

Cooperation and Coordination

In the process of cooperation among different partners, to achieve agreed goals each partner contributes certain kinds and levels of capacity, knowledge and competence; each according to their interest, experience or purpose. Individual efforts, by themselves, are almost never sufficient to achieve the intended objective. With vision, careful planning (including accurate assessment of in country capacity and institutional responsibilities) and execution and with very good coordination the desired results can be achieved.

FAO's approach to cooperation in Somalia will be increasingly framed and informed by fundamental principles of development derived from its long experience in delivering technical advice, sector policy guidance and implementing field projects. To increase the value of its own contribution and prospects for success in achieving planned outcomes, FAO will be guided by **four principles for action**:

1. Maintaining its focus on beneficiaries and partners. FAO will not only focus on its own and immediate endeavours but will also seek insights into the vision and development goals of people and partners when assessing unmet needs and deciding on how they can be addressed.
2. Monitoring and adaptive management of contributions to the response and development processes. They will be substantiated by knowledge, capacity and competence, sufficiency, quality and timeliness and seeking participation from other sources to cover gaps, strengthen weaknesses or add value.
3. Adopting transparency in actions, progress, problems and successes which will include clarity on FAO's mandate and scope of action thus further defining gaps.
4. Providing technical and overall coordination in areas where support may be required.

The fundamental **requirements for effective cooperation** and the tenets that will guide FAO's engagement with Somalia's other development partners are the following:

1. Advocate for and pursue holistic and visionary planning and programming to link the present to the future by looking beyond the immediate to the longer-term aspirations of the people and their country.
2. Seek logical common areas for cooperation with other partners and follow them up continuously.
3. Take care that FAO's own strategic direction, actions and proposals are technically sound and justified and that they:
 - a. Address identified needs,
 - b. Are technically, realistically and practically feasible,
 - c. Can be reasonably expected to achieve the intended outcome,
 - d. Are founded on participatory engagement with the people and all cooperating partners (Regional and National Institutions, funding partners, private sector and civil society).

4. Awareness of, and interest in the entirety of national needs and responses (situation, plans of action, and strategies) to enable assessment of the relevance and effect of FAO's activities, to identify gaps that are or could become risks and be pro-active in calling attention to additional needs through regular processes, including Country Team meetings, Clusters and special meetings.

FAO will continue to be an active contributing partner within existing cooperating arrangements for Somalia. It will step up its advocacy using the Agriculture and Livelihood and Food Aid Clusters as platforms to build and strengthen linkages between immediate humanitarian responses and longer term development. It will take up similar themes in bilateral discussions with Somalia's funding partners.

Monitoring and analysis of changes in conditions and progress of field activities, access to good practices and lessons learned from a wide variety of disciplines and sources will help to keep FAO's vision up-to-date and relevant. As mentioned before, monitoring and analysis will be led by the newly established Monitoring Unit.

The United Nations Somalia Assistance Strategy (UNSAS), provides the framework within which cooperation and coordination is facilitated.

The UN the World Bank-led Reconstruction and Development Plan is the main instrument for development planning.

Cooperation and coordination of actions in Somalia go hand-in-hand. Cooperation and coordination mechanisms are complex given the realities in the field - the independent or semi-independent governments of Puntland and Somaliland, the national Transition Federal Government and the uncentralized governance of South Central Somalia - and the large number of cooperating partners. Somalia's political realities require working and cooperating with several layers of authority. Security considerations dictate that oversight and management of operational activities are based in Nairobi and implementation in the field is accomplished through arrangements made with local field-based partners.

Somalia has many international funding and implementation partners¹⁵, each having its mandate and operating methods. Some are funding partners and others can work effectively in the field or may have a specific comparative advantage.

Over the years a system of coordination and cooperation has developed, particularly at the higher level, to achieve coherence among interventions. As governance has strengthened in Puntland and Somaliland the partnership between government and Somalia's cooperating partners has grown and is becoming more effective with increasing Somali leadership.

¹⁵ Including DFID, European Commission, Italy, Japan, Qatar Charity, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, World Bank, FAO, UNDP, UNICEF, ILO, UNHCR.

The humanitarian and development operations in Somalia are coordinated through two mechanisms:

1. The Somalia Support Secretariat (SSS). FAO participates in the Food Security and Economic Development Sector Committee (FSEDSC) including the FSEDSC's three working groups: a) cash based response, b) agriculture and c) livestock, which FAO chairs.
2. The UN Inter-Agency Standing Committee's (IASC) Cluster-based coordination structure.

The Cluster system is managed by the Humanitarian Coordinator and the UN Country Team through the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). Nine clusters have been created, each led by UN Agencies and/ or NGOs. The Agriculture and Livelihoods Cluster is led by FAO and has the participation of international and national partners.

Two other important mechanisms benefit from FAO's participation:

1. United Nations Somalia Assistance Strategy (UNSAS). FAO is leading Pillar II "Poverty Reduction and Livelihoods" and the Officer in Charge participates in the UNSAS Core Group. FAO is sharing and incorporating its experience and technical competence to the process thus fulfilling a technical function.
2. United Nations Country Team (UNCT) provides inputs to the Piracy Trust Fund. FAO is a contact point for the UNCT and technical advisor on coastal livelihoods in anti-piracy discourse.

Overall FAO seeks to ensure technical soundness in UN planning, responses and actions. SWALIM, FSNAU and RAST are key enablers through situation and response analysis and food security situation monitoring.

Where FAO has field presence ((i.e. Somaliland and Puntland sub-offices), it takes the lead as focal point and contributes to other Clusters by participating in their meetings and facilitating their field activities.

FAO adds value to cooperation partnerships for emergency recovery and development through its multi-sector and multi-functional capacities. It brings capacity to marshal technical expertise in many disciplines, locally and globally. FAO has the financial, human resource and monitoring systems and practices in place to manage and deliver technical assistance and implement projects and it has access to in-house and outside sources for data, information and analytical capacity.

FAO has sub-offices in Somalia and extensive knowledge of the country, its people and their issues as a result of its data and information systems (SWALIM, FSNAU), its field and technical staff and their "face-to-face" contact with people, interactions with private and public sector officials and its own institutional memory of lessons learned. FAO also brings together decades of data and information collection, validation, analysis and storage that will be made widely available.

Annex 1

Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC)¹⁶

In the food security community, there has been a lack of clarity and common definitions for classifying various food security situations in terms of varying severity and implications for action.

This lack of clarity is problematic for several reasons:

- The way a situation is classified determines not only the type of response, but also the source of funding, scale, planning timeframe, and organizational roles of different stakeholders.
- Without commonly accepted standards for classifying the nature and severity of food security situations, the design and targeting of interventions can be open to personal, government, agency, and donor biases.

These problems can lead to imprecise or gross misallocations of scarce resources, and in the worst case scenario, even loss of lives.

As a result, there have been increasingly strong calls for improved analysis within the cross-cutting field of food security, including:-

- greater comparability of results from one place to another
- increased rigour
- greater transparency of evidence to support findings
- increased relevance to strategic decision making
- stronger linkages between information and action

Improving analysis along these lines would enable food security interventions to be more needs based, strategic, and timely, and there is an urgent practical and operational need for a food security classification system that is broadly accepted by the wide range of stakeholders. Put simply: “We, the food security community, need a common currency (language and analytical procedures) for describing the nature and severity of food security situations.”

The IPC is designed to fill this critical gap in food security analysis. It provides a common classification system (a ‘common currency’) that draws from the strengths of existing classification systems and integrates them with supporting tools for analysis and communication.

Specifically, the IPC is a means to classify varying phases of current food security situations based on outcomes on human lives and livelihoods. The IPC includes five levels of food security (called ‘phases’): Generally Food Secure, Moderately/Borderline Food Insecure, Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis, Humanitarian Emergency, and Famine/Humanitarian Catastrophe. Additionally, the IPC considers the risk that conditions will deteriorate (called the ‘Risk of Worsening Phase’), including three levels: Watch, Moderate Risk, and High Risk.

¹⁶ fsnau.org/ipc. The Food Security Analysis Unit.

The approach of the IPC is to draw together all available food security information (or 'evidence'), ranging from production figures to livestock prices to civil insecurity to malnutrition rates, to make a Phase Classification and/or Risk of Worsening Phase statement. The IPC relies on, and indeed encourages, multiple data sources and methods. The IPC then provides a 'convergence of evidence' approach and a set of tools to arrive at a 'big picture' analysis, or meta-analysis, of the overall food security situation. The outcomes of the process are several communication tools – specifically a map and population tables – that convey the key messages about the severity and magnitude of food insecurity.

Annex 2

SOMALIA'S COOPERATING PARTNERS

Country	Focus	Main Geographic area
Australia	Water, sanitation, food, livelihoods	Country wide
Canada	Humanitarian needs, education, governance	Country wide
Global Fund to Fight AIDS, tuberculosis & Malaria	Disease	Country wide
Japan	Food, human rights	Country wide & Puntland
Switzerland	Food, water, education for women, health & nutrition, governance, water & sanitation	Country wide and South Central
USA	Food development, education, health & nutrition, governance, water & sanitation	Country wide, South Central.
World Bank	Community development	Somaliland & Puntland
European Commission	Food rural/agriculture development, health & nutrition, governance, water & sanitation	Country wide, Somaliland Puntland & South Central
ECHO	Food & livelihoods, health & nutrition, water & sanitation	South Central & country wide
Belgium	Health & nutrition, education, governance	South Central & country wide
Denmark	Governance, food & rural development, water & sanitation, education	Puntland, Somaliland & country wide
Finland	Health & nutrition, food & rural development	Country wide
France	Humanitarian food & rural development	south/central
Country	Focus	Main Geographic area
Italy	Humanitarian food & rural development, health & nutrition, education, water & sanitation	South Central & country wide
Netherlands	Humanitarian	Country wide
Norway	Water & sanitation, governance, food & rural development	Country wide & South Central
Sweden	Governance, health	Country wide
United Kingdom	Governance & security, health & nutrition, education	Country wide & South Central

Organization	Focus	Main Geographic area
ILO	Employment	Country wide
IOM	Capacity building	Somaliland
UN/AIDS	AIDS	Country wide
UNDP	Governance, livelihoods	Country wide
UNESCO	Education	Country wide
UN-HABITAT	Governance, water & sanitation, resettlement	Country wide
UNHCR	Refugees, education, incomes, governance	Country wide
UNICEF	Education, governance, health & nutrition, water & sanitation, shelter & relief	Country wide
UN-Women	Governance	Country wide
OCHA	Coordination	Country wide
WFP	Food & feeding	Country wide
WHO	Health	Country wide

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