

AN-ABC-397

68894

**SOMALIA:  
TOWARD A REVISED  
RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY**

**Proceedings of the National Conference on  
Somalia's Rural Development Strategy (1981 - 1990)  
The Juba Hotel  
Mogadishu  
24 - 29 June 1985**

published jointly by

Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies  
and Rural Development  
Ministry of Interior  
Mogadishu  
Program for International Development  
Clark University  
Worcester, Massachusetts USA

compiled and edited by

Dr. Hussein M. Adam  
Somali Unit for Research on  
Emergencies and Rural Development  
Dr. Richard Ford  
Clark University

SOMALIA  
TOWARD A REVISED  
RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

Published jointly by

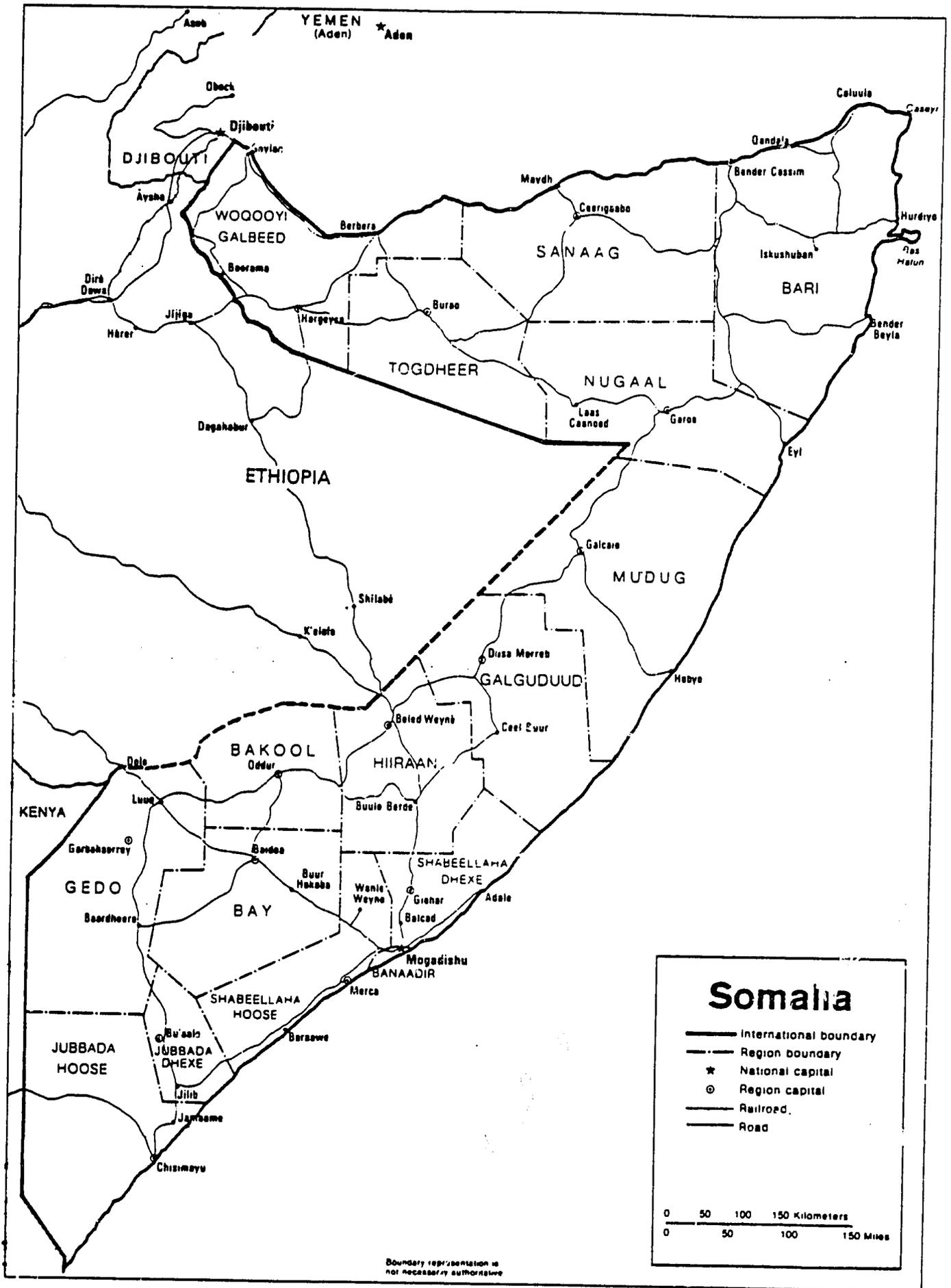
Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies  
and Rural Development  
Ministry of Interior  
Mogadishu

Clark University Program  
for International Development  
Worcester, Massachusetts  
USA

jointly edited by

Dr. Hussein M. Adam (SURERD)  
Dr. Richard Ford (Clark University)

April, 1986



## PREFACE

The National Conference on revising the rural development strategy presented a unique opportunity to review the status of rural development in Somalia and, based on lessons learned over the past few years, to make appropriate amendments. The Conference also provided an opportunity to incorporate themes, issues, and new data which had not previously been included.

The Conference attracted widespread and broadly based participation. Virtually every constituency in the nation's rural development activities was represented ranging from the Vice President, H.E. Hussein Kulmie who presided over the opening to farmers, nomads, and refugees who were interviewed during field visits. Approximately 170 individuals registered for the Conference; no less than 100 people were present at the various plenary sessions.

Seven small working task forces were designated by the Conference Secretariat to focus attention on particular themes and issues related to rural development. The findings of these task force groups and their recommendations are included in the section which contains the committee recommendations.

An initial draft of these proceedings was distributed to Ministries and other interested parties in July, immediately following the Conference. Comments and clarifications were received in response to the first draft, over a period of six months. Thus, the present version is actually a second draft and represents an edited and second version of the Conference.

A third publication is now in preparation, based on the information collected before and during the Conference, on discussions and recommendations of the Conference Task Force working groups, on reactions to the first version of these proceedings, and on a series of discussions and analyses -- including new data such as the World Bank Agricultural Sector Review -- which have taken place over the last few months. This third publication will be a draft revised strategy paper which will be circulated to appropriate ministries and cabinet officers for discussion, amendment, and eventual adoption. The Conference Steering Committee views the open process of papers, field trips, recommendations from small working groups, and open discussion during the Conference plenary sessions as an excellent means to involve a great diversity of constituencies in national policy formulation in rural development.

The process would not have been possible without financial and moral support from a variety of people and institutions. The United States Agency for International Development and Canada's International Development Research Centre, along with UNICEF, made direct grants in support of conference costs. SURERD used some of its internal funds to cover costs of local participation, preparation of conference materials, and logistics. The Somali government, through its ministries and agencies, provided both logistical and financial assistance. SURERD's executive staff, especially Mohamed Hassan Farah, Mohamoud Derie, and Mohamed Shirre along with the SURERD administrative support group, provided invaluable assistance. Two interns from Clark University, Tom Dart and Mel Melnicoe, were instrumental in preparing conference documentation. Dozens of

conference participants themselves helped in many ways including chairing of sessions and working groups, presenting summaries, and helping to write and revise these proceedings. The Somali media, the Juba Hotel, the organizations which sent delegates, and many others also played important roles.

The Conference is especially indebted to H.E. Ahmed Suleiman Abdulle, Minister of Interior as well as several other ministers and high officials who assisted with the opening; to Hersi Abdulle Hersi, Permanent Secretary in Ministry of Interior who closed the Conference; Governor Said Bille Adan of Lower Shabelle Region who hosted several field trips and made a key address; Ahmed Haji Deriye, Director of Planning and Rural Development in Ministry of Interior who supported the conference from its inception. Finally, special thanks go to US-AID for financial assistance to publish these proceedings along with related papers arising from the Conference.

Hussein M. Adam, SURERD  
Richard Ford, Clark University

April, 1986

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	1
Introduction	1
PART I POLICY ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS	12
Opening Address, H.E. Ahmed Suleyman, Minister of Interior	13
Priorities in Rural Development, R. Borthwick, Resident Representative, UNDP	20
Statement by the Director, L. Cohen, United States Agency for International Development	25
Water, Health, and A Rural Development Strategy, S. MacNab, Deputy Director, UNICEF	29
Closing Address, Mr. Hersi Abdule Hersi, Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Interior	36
PART II ISSUE ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS	40
Rural Development in Somalia: Strategy and Performance Dan R. Aronson, Professor of Anthropology, McGill University	41
Rural Development Training and Institutions in Somalia, Dr. M.O. Fadal, Somali Institute for Development, Administration and Management	49
Local Organization and Participation: Community Involvement in Development Programs and Projects, Barbara P. Thomas, Clark University	57
Role of Statistics in Rural Development in Somalia, M. Awil, Director, Central Statistical Department, Ministry of National Planning	65
Reflections on Settlement and Land Tenure Issues, Alan Hoben, African Studies Program, Boston University	69

Table of Contents (continued)	
PART III	SECTOR ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS 76
	Notes on the Establishment of District Programme Coordinators, Dr. Yusuf Hersi, Director, NWISDP 77
	National Range Agency Projects, Dr. A. Karani, Director, National Range Agency 82
	Food Losses in Post-Harvest Systems and Suggested Guidelines for Their Assessment, Abdul H. Quershi Food and Agriculture Organization 87
PART IV	CONFERENCE RECOMMENDATIONS 100
	Recommendations from each of the seven working groups:
	1. Agriculture, Fisheries, Livestock and Rural Industries 101
	2. Health, Education, and Infrastructure 108
	3. Environmental Management, Forestry, Water, Energy, and Drought Contingency Planning 113
	4. Non-Governmental Organizations, Private Voluntary Organizations, and Private Sector Initiatives 121
	5. Resettlement 128
	6. Community Participation and Rural Women 132
	7. Training and Institutions 145
PART V	RELATED MATERIALS 151
	The Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies and Rural Development 152
	An Approach to Somalia's Problem of Environmental Degradation, Dr. A Karani, Manager, NRA 164
	United States Economic Assistance to Somalia 173
	GTZ 191
	World Food Program 195

## Table of Contents (continued)

Conference Schedule	199
Conference Announcement	200
Conference Evaluation	201
Summary of Original Rural Development Strategy Paper	204
Bibliography	224

11

New Approaches to Somalia's  
Rural Development Strategy:  
An Introduction

by

Dr. Hussein M. Adam, Principal Consultant  
(Director), of SURERD

Introductory

As a result of a National Conference held in September 1979, Somalia adopted a National Rural Development Strategy (NRDS) (1981-1990) whose main objectives include:

- increasing food production, especially cereals, and improve nutrition levels;
- increase rural participation;
- reduce rural poverty.

The time frame and environment conditions within which the NRDS policy could be evaluated has altered drastically and it became necessary to brainstorm and obtain feedback in order to adjust and transform certain policy guidelines and the programmes/projects derived from them. In particular, necessary amendments were called for in areas related to:

- a) practical commitment to the process which encourages people - especially rural women - to recognise and develop their potential and participate effectively in development planning and implementation;
- b) focus on the issue of rural energy needs and the related issues of deforestation and environmental degradation;
- c) examine the role of the private, both for profit and the non-profit segment represented by a relatively large number of international non-governmental organisations, NGO's (also referred to as private voluntary organisations, PVOs).
- d) the issue of refugees, resettlements, droughts and the relationships between relief (emergency measures) and development (medium and long term planning).

Problems and Constraints

Accordingly, a National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy convened in Mogadishu at the Juba Hotel, June 24-29, 1985. The Conference opened with two days of plenary brainstorming sessions. During the period, the over 110 participants heard thematic, reflective presentations, technical sector oriented presentations as well as brief activities statements from

national, international organisations and institutions represented at the conference. Frank, heated debates followed several presentations. Among the points raised during the general discussions we may note the following:

1. Somalia, like many other Third World states (especially those in Africa), is essentially a "soft state," i.e. a state lacking the financial, managerial (including trained human resources), technological and physical infrastructural resources to implement its stated objectives, according to this view, countries like Somalia would never be able to achieve the stated NRDS for many years to come;
2. Other speakers pointed to the difference between "strategy" (policy statements) and "plan" (a programmatic budgetary, project oriented exercise. In this connection, lack of coordination between the NRDS and the Five Year Development Plan (FYDP, 1982-1986) was significantly conspicuous: one speaker noted that a careful reading of the FYDP and the NRDS indicates that those who drafted the FYDP had not even utilized the NRDS - the last chapter 17 of the FYDP dwells on "regional and rural development" in a most casual, outlinish and superficial manner;
3. Speaker after speaker pointed to the lack of district and household level statistics; the lack of regional resources oriented baseline studies, studies on rural-urban linkages, the role of informal markets and studies on land-tenure and land-use patterns etc.; such studies could serve as augmentable "panels" so that progress or the lack of it can be monitored over time. Basic data and studies are indispensable for systematic monitoring and feedback to provide programmes with a capacity to adjust and transform over time. The lack of reliable rural (in fact national) indicators prompted the open debates to take, at times, a "chaotic" trend -- some speakers selected certain positive trends (often based on limited observations and hearsay) while others selected negative oriented trends; debates could not be pursued rationally, personal anecdotal observations posited against a contrary anecdotal, journalistic observation: at times one could almost see "electric sparks" released during such highly emotional, stringently vocal confrontations. In order to assess future progress, it is necessary to adopt certain basic quantifiable data and measure these over time (S. McNabb of UNICEFF proposed utilising the infant mortality rate (IMR) as a basic indicator).
4. The UNDP Resident Representative, Mr. R. Borthwick, added his authoritative voice to those who advocated adopting modest, realizable goals; in particular the need to focus on small-scale projects was highlighted. Small-scale projects need to be encouraged within a framework of more systematic project identification, design and monitoring-reporting procedures. Small-scale projects utilising self-help and people's participation need to focus more on rural production (including erosion control, sand dune fixation, tree planting) and less on office and other buildings construction.
5. The traditional sectoral planning method continued to dominate in spite of the NRDS: as is often the case, it came under bitter criticisms, calls were made for an integrated rural development approach but certain mechanisms to achieve it were outlined but few felt that the will existed for radical policy - institutional changes.

6. Financial resources, technical inputs, all these and other "factors" are mostly transmitted within institutions/organisations. The transformation of old and the emergence of new institutions is a crucial aspect of sustainable socio-economic development. The debate over institutions took many forms. The NRDS established a National Inter-Ministerial Coordinating Committee on Rural Development (NICCRD); however the NICCRD hardly meets and that is why it failed, among other things, to integrate the NRDS into the 1982-86 FYDP. Those who felt this body would never attain the objectives set up for it, a minority radical position advocated abolishing the NICCRD and utilising the existing cabinet session to coordinate the NRDS; others, more optimistic/reformist in orientation felt that the NICCRD, like other similar inter-ministerial level coordinating bodies, has failed because it has not adequate backstopping secretariat; it is hoped that the USAID funded Partners in Development Project requiring as it does a coordinating technical body and providing financial, transport and expert inputs to constitute a Secretariat could, through facilitating the tasks of SURERD and the Ministry of Interior's Planning and Rural Development Division, provide a solid basis for backstopping the NICCRD.
7. The role and function of cooperatives as rural participation institutions produced heated exchanges. One speaker advocated doing away with cooperatives as presently constituted. Obviously the issue requires a systematic, comprehensive approach. Some cooperatives are genuinely autonomous (for example the religious oriented production cooperatives), others seem to be highly centralised and controlled from above, others fall in positions in between the more autonomous. what has to be done, in the case of cooperatives and other institutions, is to conduct institutional effectiveness studies (as already proposed by SURERD with the assistance of the Institute for Development Research (IDR) and Boston University's African Studies Programme). Such studies should, ideally, precede the calling of a national conference to specifically examine the role of people's participation, especially women, cooperatives and other self-help organizations (including traditional and new types of Somali NGO's) in rural development.
8. Practically everybody spoke highly in favour of strengthening and broadening training, all forms and levels of training appropriate to rural development institution building. The NRDS 1981-1991 adopted a project document on the Somali Institute of Rural Development Training and Research. Implementation of this critical training/research institute was given top priority.
9. Nevertheless, several speakers pointed to the need to situate training within a broader context: the material and moral incentives necessary to motivate and productively utilise the energies and skills of trained manpower. During several sessions, speakers mentioned the need to achieve general civil service reforms as previously recommended and to strengthen management training for both the public and private sectors (in this connection let us note the impending implementation of a USAID funded Somalia Management Training and Development (SOMTAD) Project).

10. Perhaps, a corollary of the "soft state" argument stated above, is the argument in favour of reducing the state's role in the economy, in favour of running the parastatals as profit oriented units, in favour of encouraging the market mechanisms through flexible price incentives, private enterprise oriented credit, taxation system and foreign exchange regulations.
11. Other speakers took comfort in the failure of key aspects of the NRDS -- educational policies aimed at spreading superficial book and literacy knowledge, thereby alienated rural dwellers from their productive environment and orientating them towards towns, the capital city and "clerical" occupations; such an anti-rural development educational approach, theorized one speaker, had it succeeded, it's realization would have led to most harmful consequences, its failure is therefore a positive factor. Others pointed out that, in judging whether NRDS policies succeeded or failed, it is also important to consider the latent (symbolic, ideological) functions served for the political system as well as manifest policy objectives. The NRDS and FYDP provide symbolic as well as practical values: indeed, in certain instances, there maybe no manifest political support or will for turning symbolic victories into material accomplishments. Another key Somali woman speaker concluded by stating the NRDS had achieved no significant practical results if anything, it has perhaps positively contributed to a crystallization of "urban educated opinion" to the point that, by 1985, most of us have come to see the problematics of "rural development" as an important issue requiring practical solutions.

As mentioned above, the discussions were often heated, emotional, drammatized, anecdotal: the above is our attempt to summarise and analyzed the issues that were explicitly or implicitly raised.

#### On Energy Needs and Environmental Management.

The current NRDS dealt at length with issues of food production: the agriculture/livestock and fisheries sectors of the economy. It also dealt in detail with issues pertaining to rural industries and the provision of social services: education and health facilities. It did not, however, address itself specifically to matters of rural energy needs, environmental management and drought contingency planning. These are newer trends whose impact became more significant after the 1979-1980 period.

The current drought crisis, the serious shortage of food and water in several African countries including Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan, Kenya has led to organization of African Unity to convene an Economic Summit in July 1985; and the General Assembly of the UN has decided to convene a special session at the ministerial level to consider in depth the critical economic situation in Africa, to be held in New York from 27 to 31 May, 1986.

The crisis has led several national governments, including the Somali authorities,

- to develop strategies and national plan of action to combat drought effects and desertification and to become aware of the need for a more global approach;
- to realize that isolated actions, however effective or well-intentioned, need to be coordinated within an overall approach;
- to initiate and promote a new spirit of improved coordination at different levels, also the emergence of a new spirit of subregional solidarity;
- to broaden their national and subregional outlook and adopt a realistic overall attitude towards the future;
- to consider drought not simply as an unpleasant but temporary but mishap, but to recognize it as a fundamental long-term problem.

As pointed out by the woman speaker mentioned above, acknowledging the problem and the shortcomings is a first important step. The mere fact that people at all levels are becoming increasingly aware of the problem offers flickers of hope in an otherwise dismal picture. In Somalia, as in many other parts of Africa, the centuries-old balance between forests and rangelands, the soil and water resources, climate and man with his limited needs has now been upset as a result of, among other factors:

- the increasing human and animal populations making ever greater demands on arable and pasture lands;
- the drain on firewood resources in town and country, but particularly in towns has outpaced natural replacement capacity in many areas;
- this strain on resources has not been offset by any intensification of livestock or crop farming or forestry production;
- the resulting tendency towards increase and spread of over-exploitation with marginal lands being brought into use;

Drought related climatic factors, whether the cause or the consequence, add to the damage caused by human and socio-economic factors.

The challenge is, therefore, to evolve a rural development approach that encourages the use of more productive, less destructive methods without causing too many disruptions: the need to strike a balance, for example, between soil renewal and rural development with its need for more intensive farming, increased fertility and food security.

On Land Use, Settlements and Refugees.

All this calls for a new approach to land tenure, land use and land management issues: its current and potential contribution to our food and energy requirements complement its protective role. Somalia, like all other societies built around farming and grazing, trees play a vital role. Not only do they supply wood for a wide range of uses (heating, cooking, building, farming tools, household implements, etc.), but they also serve as a source of other useful products; gums, cork, foods and medicinal substance. The drought victim settlement sites and the over 30 refugee camp sites have led to the destruction of trees and contributed to the man-made process of desertification. Official reports assume that 700,000 refugees exist in camp settlements in various parts of Somalia and at least an equal number of spontaneously settled refugees in various urban and rural areas. According to the recently issued National Development Strategy and Programme (NDSP) document: <sup>1</sup>

- The constant use by refugees in camps of brush and wood for fuel and construction has already deforested areas with a radius of up to 40 km. around many of the older camps. The situation may create unmanageable problems in a short time by destroying an already fragile ecological balance and causing soil erosion which increases the probability of aridity and drought. These risks are compounded by overgrazing by animals owned by refugees.
- The refugees in camps consume some 20 billion litres of water per annum, while only one-third of the nationals have access to safe drinking water. As groundwater resources are scarce there is a risk that the current heavy consumption by refugees will be at the expense of meeting future needs of the general population.
- As many of the refugee camps have been established at relatively favourable sites in order to facilitate their viability, the non-refugee farming community has been pre-empted from using substantial areas of good agricultural land.
- The pressure of the refugee presence on government services (especially of those spontaneously settled) has resulted in a deterioration of the quality of Services (education, health).

It is significant that the 1985 NDSP document decided to analyse the effects and impact of refugees "along with the various other parameters of development strategy and requirements for external assistance."

The recommended revised NRDS includes the above and other trends and sub-trends not dealt with or lightly referred to in the present strategy document. However, for strategic policy guidelines to be translated into practical measures, the newly revised NRDS must be incorporated into the new FYDP; it is necessary to develop feasible, mostly small-scale projects under its guidelines indicating: <sup>2</sup>

- a) starting and expected completion dates; or still ongoing;
- b) main purpose of project and quantification of anticipated results whenever possible, e.g., number of shallow wells rehabilitated;
- c) specification of costs of material inputs (include food-for-work) and manpower inputs; including self-help component;
- d) management aspects and maintenance required.

Once again, we return to the issue of data base, monitoring and follow-up. successful policy must be grounded upon proper theory and data base about the causes of policy problems and the results that will occur if particular policy strategies are pursued. Policies often fail because linkages in the physical or social system are not well understood. Without better knowledge of such relationships, the selection of any policy is simply a gamble. Moreover, even the best policies, the most carefully devised programmes and projects, sometimes result in failure of a kind which is not only hard to put right but also tends to discourage any further action. It is crucial to set up observation, follow-up and assessment systems in order to monitor progress and analyse the causes of any difficulties which might arise. It is necessary to launch pilot projects with this important back-up mechanism.

Nevertheless, the relationship between micro projects and macro costs must be analyzed and the contradictions must be somehow resolved. One way to do this is let policy oriented social science research throw more light onto issues of land tenure and land use including: drought, desertification, resource mismanagement including private entrepreneurial land grabbing -- all of these threaten future generations. In Somalia, land use patterns involve access to all resources, especially water. Among other things, it is necessary to do in depth case studies involving, for example, refugee settlements, human settlements originating from the 1974-75 drought, large agro-industrial projects, traditional religious community settlements, private farming projects, urban land tenure systems, etc. Selected case studies would focus on the need to analyze efficiency in production in relation to land tenure, as well as present trends in land use systems from the state farms, cooperatives, and new forms of private land use.

The Conference did not seriously focus on issues of urban land tenure or, for example, urban-rural linkages, or the need for a planned policy of secondary cities. Development of these issues concerns aspects of rural and regional development and a parallel development strategy. Among the principal cities of Somalia are Mogadishu, the capital which is almost three times larger than the next largest city, Hargeisa, which is about twice as large as the third, Borao. Other important secondary cities include: Baidoa, Merca-Shalambot, Jowhar, Kismayu, Berbera, Beled Weyne, Erigavo, Borama, Galkayo, Garoe, Gebile, and Las Anod. The predominance of Mogadishu is reflected by the fact that it possesses 81 percent of the national electrical generating capacity (1980), 74 percent of the telephone system, 71 percent of all private cars and taxis, 73 percent of all secondary vocational and technical school enrollments, and 100 percent of the nation's university enrollments. The list of dominance continues with 50 percent of all cinema halls, 87 percent of all private construction companies, 54 percent of all the doctors and 36 percent of all the hospital beds in the nation. In addition, Mogadishu is headquarters for all ministries, parastatals

diplomatic missions, non-governmental organisations, main offices, etc.

A rural development strategy must seriously work out a plan to lessen the gap between Mogadishu and the other cities and towns.

From Relief to Development - the Role of NGO's and PVO's.

The Rural Development Strategy Conference referred to the role of private organizations as part of the new NRDS; however, no rigorous private sector (profit oriented) role was defined and elaborated upon. Instead, the workshop set out to examine the issue because of an overpowering involvement of non-profit and private voluntary organizational representatives. They decided to concentrate on this critical aspect of the overall issue. Moreover, the group decided to focus its attention on the overall theme of the transition from relief (emergency refugee and drought victim activities) to development (planned medium and long-term projects and programmes).

Prior to 1978-79, Somalia did not have much experience with international, non-governmental organizations (INGO's). Most of them came during and because of the refugee crisis of 1979. Many of the INGO's have begun to move away from refugee and emergency work towards some form of development oriented activity, ie, from refugee focussed projects to work with non-refugee reforestation projects, women's groups, and cooperatives, most of which are income generating projects. Globally, more and more INGO's are moving towards socio-economic development and institution building. They are moving from being relief agencies providing food and supplies in time of famine and disaster toward promoting development projects with technical assistance and training in order, hopefully, to promote local self reliance. A recent study indicates that 2200 INGO's provide almost 4 billion US dollars to developing countries each year (1984) and that about 300 North American INGO's were active in Africa in 1985<sup>1</sup>. As of the 1985-86 period, about 26 US based INGO's are reported to be working in Somalia, carrying out over 43 projects in fields such as: refugee, famine and disaster relief (most projects and the longest duration), medicine, public health, community development, education, water, food production, agriculture, small artisan enterprises, reforestation, soil and sand dune stabilization, etc.

Some of the INGO's tend to be Christian evangelical in orientation; others tend to be religiously motivated but nonevangelical; among the purely secular, some are populist in orientation (working toward empowering the poor) while others are more technocratic in orientation seeking government funds, (for example, US-AID). Certain INGO's provide only funds and/or other forms of material inputs while others provide technical assistance and others operationalise their project/programme activities.

Recently the Ministry of Interior and US-AID agreed to implement an 18 million US dollar project known as the "PVO Partners Project" which will significantly increase and sustain the role of INGO's in Somali rural development. Apart from US based INGO's, there are also a number of European based INGO's in Somalia (British, German, Italian, Australian, etc.); only two INGO's are Muslim/Third World: The Islamic Africa Relief Agency (IARA) based in Khartoum and the World Muslim League based in Jedda, Saudi Arabia.

In many parts of Somalia, one finds locally based and indigenous proto-NGO's. For example groups such as Sheikh Banane religious cooperative and artisan cooperatives are becoming important. HAQABTIR is emerging as an important group as is the Horn of Africa Relief and Development Foundation (HARDF). SURERD sees itself and functions in the role of a semi-NGO and serves as a bridge between the NGO community (international and indigenous) and the Government. Being a Muslim country, Somalia has hardly any analogues for INGO's which may be rooted in the Christian evangelical tradition.

During the Rural Development Conference, a number of the INGO's claimed to be engaged in institution building activities. In our view, the significant role that serious INGO's (as well as in the PVO Partners Project) can play is in local institution building. Strengthening local organizations and helping them to take development initiatives is one of the most important roles that an international PVO or INGO can play.

In order to determine the most appropriate INGO's to include in the national development process, a number of issues should be considered. These include matters that relate to the nature of the INGO itself and to the manner in which they operate in the field and with their indigenous counterparts. Some of the issues involve, for example:

1. to what extent is the INGO tied to and heavily involved with a particular governmental agency, either financially or structurally or in terms of policy?
2. is the non-financial support that the INGO provides appropriate and necessary?
3. what percentage of the funds raised are retained by the INGO?
4. does the INGO or indigenous counterpart assume managerial and policy control?
5. how much of the staff is locally hired and how much is hired from abroad?
6. is the technology promoted by the INGO appropriate for the group that will utilize it?
7. does the INGO program/project promote activity on a community basis? a cooperative basis? or a group basis vis-a-vis efforts by individuals?
8. does the INGO focus on simply sector work, thereby promoting its own expertise or does it respond to needs expressed by poor communities by providing assistance in areas they consider to be priorities?
9. does the INGO help its local counterpart organization develop the capacity to assume complete program management and control? Does it train local people for staff positions? Does it help build a financial base so as to decrease dependency on outside funding?
10. is the INGO goal to eventually withdraw and leave a local capacity in its place? Does it replace its own personnel with local staff, over time?

While there are many Somali activities in which foreign INGO's are engaged, their central function should be provision of assistance to local-level groups for the purpose of building up their capacity to address rural development problems.

### IGADD - A Subregional Strategy

One of the Rural Development Workshop recommendations (the one on Environmental Management, Drought Contingency Planning, Energy, and Water Resources) suggests the need to "closely follow the policies and recommendations of IGADD, the InterGovernmental Authority on Drought and Development." IGADD is a manifestation of the will of the Governments of Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan, and Uganda having realized the need to coordinate isolated national strategies, plans, and programmes. Its birth reflects the concrete emergence of a new spirit of subregional solidarity.

The main objective of IGADD involves coordination and supplementation of the efforts of member states to combat the effects of drought and other related natural disasters and to assist their developmental efforts as well as help them to deal with the problems of medium and long term recovery and rehabilitation. Between February, 1985 and the IGADD summit in January, 1986, at least four Minister's Council Sessions and five expert group meetings took place to formulate and adopt the basic IGADD documents and the first IGADD Plan of Action consisting of ten priority areas:

1. Establishment and Improvement of Early Warning Systems
2. Achieving Food Security
3. Improving Agriculture (crop) Production
4. Developing Livestock Production
5. Developing Fisheries Production
6. Developing Water Resources
7. Developing Energy Resources
8. Combating Desertification
9. Developing Infrastructures
10. Developing Research, Training, and Human Resources

IGADD has established a small functional Secretariat headed by an Ethiopian Executive Secretary, a Kenyan Director of Administration and Finance, a Sudanese Director of Planning, Research, and Information, and a Somali Director of Operations and Programme Coordination. The Foreign Minister of Djibouti, the IGADD Headquarters, serves as the First Chairman/Coordinator of the IGADD Council of Ministers (for two years). The 1986 Secretariat budget is estimated at about half a million US dollars; for 1987 and 1988 it is to rise to one million and one half US dollars to be covered by member state contributions according to the following formula:

Djibouti	4.91 percent
Ethiopia	22.71 percent
Kenya	24.88 percent
Somalia	9.92 percent
Sudan	25.00 percent
Uganda	12.59 percent

IGADD has scheduled a Donor's Conference to be held in Djibouti in November, 1986 where sub-regional as well as member state projects will be presented. A subregional strategy and Plan of Action, provided it is implemented, offers better hope for the states of Eastern Africa -- who have cooperated successfully for the past several years -- within the context of the Desert Locust Control Organisation (DLCO) for Eastern Africa.

For subregional cooperation to succeed, massive international assistance is required at this critical point in time. Sub-saharan African countries face an annual shortfall of 4 billion to 7 billion US dollars of external financing required to support policy reforms allegedly designed to halt the continent's economic decline. African countries will require 20 billion to 23 billion US dollars annually in external financing to support reforms which include "realistic" exchange rates, a revival of agriculture, a reduction of the state's role in the economy, and rehabilitation of existing projects. However, reports indicate that only 16 billion US dollars of external assistance seems assured: the urgent need for short increases in financial flows to Africa must be on highly concessional terms since few of the countries can afford commercial interest rates.

IGADD member states have a current debt burden of:

<u>state</u>	<u>total</u> <u>millions \$</u>	<u>per capita</u> <u>\$</u>
Djibouti	NA	NA
Ethiopia	2,036	62
Kenya	4,169	230
Somalia	1,644	365
Sudan	11,000	545
Uganda	1,488	110

The problem of debts, negative terms of trade, foreign exchange for crucial imports -- all these are crushing international issues that pose serious constraints to national and/or even subregional development strategies. Perhaps we should end by citing the appeal in Somalia's recent NDSP document mentioned above:

"The short-term focus of present aid programmes, with their emphasis on austerity and limitations on imports, must be replaced by a broader view of the transformation that will be made possible by forward-looking productive investments."

#### NOTES

<sup>1</sup> Somali Democratic Republic, Ministry of National Planning, National Development Strategy and Programme (NDSP), Mogadishu: September, 1985, pp. 66-67

<sup>2</sup> see Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) "Report of the High Level WCARRD Follow-up and Lagos Plan of Action Strategy Review Mission," 1 - 12 May 1982 (Rome: WCARRD Follow-up Mission No. 8, 1982), pp. 105-106.

<sup>3</sup> InterAction, Diversity in Development: US Voluntary Assistance to Africa (New York: InterAction, 1986)

<sup>4</sup> Report of the Institute for International Economics, 11 DuPont Circle NW, Washington, D.C. USA

<sup>5</sup> Africa Emergency Report, November-December, 1985, p. 4.

<sup>6</sup> NDSP, op. cit., pp. ii - iii.

PART I

POLICY ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS

OPENING ADDRESS BY

H.E. AHMED SULEYMAN,  
MINISTER OF INTERIOR

Mr. Vice-President,

Dear Ministers, Vice-Ministers and other

leaders present here today,

Ladies and Gentlemen,

It gives me great pleasure to welcome you as participants in this National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy. We are pleased to play host to some distinguished experts from abroad. Somalia is always ready to learn from experience in other countries and to make positive contributions within the limits of her capacities.

The topics chosen for this Conference are relevant to the present day problems and needs of Somalia - and indeed of Africa and the rest of the developing countries in general. We must constantly increase our efforts to plan and implement programmes to help the majority of our people in rural areas.

As you recall, in September 1979, the then Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, with assistance from the Food and Agriculture Organization, hosted the first Rural Development Strategy Conference that laid the basis for Somalia's Rural Development Strategy Paper, 1981-1990. The objectives for rural development in Somalia, stated in the Strategy Paper, and complementing the Five Year Development Plan (1982 - 1986), included the following:

1. increase food production, especially cereals, and improve nutrition levels;
2. increase social services such as health, education, and availability of water;

3. increase rural participation in development planning and participation;
4. reduce rural poverty.

The 1981-1990 Strategy Paper went on to elaborate on these and related objectives and to describe several project documents and project ideas in the area of rural development.

The year 1985 provides an opportune moment to review our rural development experience, this being the mid-point within our ten year strategy programme. This Conference permits us to update and review Somalia's present rural development strategy as well as recent documents related to rural development programmes. How many of the project proposals drawn up in 1981 have been implemented? How many have yet to be implemented? What new developments have taken place since 1979 that should be considered in establishing the revised priorities? What are the major constraints and how can we go about overcoming such constraints?

The 1979 Rural Development Strategy Conference was part of a continuing effort to enhance the quality of life in rural areas. In the 1970's the Somali Revolutionary Government mounted major national campaigns, for example:

- ... to combat moving sand dunes, control land degradation, and plant trees;
- ... to spread literacy in rural areas;
- ... to expand health and education services;
- ... to improve livestock health and management.

In this connection, you should also recall:

- ... the settlement programme for the nomadic population made destitute by the drought;
- ... the construction of a large number of infrastructure projects through the self-help movement.

Our Government continues to stress the need for self-reliance in development efforts and the preparation of the public for fuller participation in nation building activities and the achievement of growth with equity.

Your Conference this week is organized into Workshops to deal in a focused manner with the key issues raised in the present Strategy Paper. These workshops include emphasis on the productive sectors including agriculture, live-stock, fisheries, and rural industries as well as the social and economic sectors including health, education, transport, and financial services. These are issues of continuing importance and will be discussed by Workshops I and II. We are anxious to learn from each of these workshops.

You will also analyze issues and trends that have attained greater significance since 1979, including:

... drought and refugees.

Somalia has limited natural resources and those resources have been recently subjected to unbearable pressures of overuse and misuse, due to drought and greatly increased population pressures caused by refugee population. For the future, we need improved drought contingency planning in order to avoid disruptions and distortions of rural development projects on account of drought and related emergencies.

On this theme, I am happy to report that recently the Governments of six eastern African countries have taken steps to establish an Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Development (IGADD) with headquarters to be established in Djibouti. Our Government is contributing positively to this effort to combat the effects of drought and desertification and to promote development on a regional scale since the problems extend beyond the national boundaries of the countries involved.

We therefore look forward to hearing your recommendations on these issues and ways in which we can revise our present rural development strategy to place even more attention on this important topic.

... private initiatives.

We seek a balance, on one hand, between government institutions and government-sponsored interventions and, on the other, from those in the private sector. In our own history, we have many examples of governmental institutions which have provided sound leadership and example in education, communication, transportation, health, security, and rural services. These are important responsibilities and will continue to be provided mostly by our Government.

We can also draw upon many examples from our own history in which private initiatives have also served us well. Food production, livestock management, weaving, tool making, and commerce are but a few examples where our elders have demonstrated extraordinary skills and in which considerable results have been achieved.

We now need to find ways for the public and private sectors to understand each other's needs and to complement each other in ways that will be more effective for rural development. In our audience this morning and in the participants registered for the conference, I see great talents and expertise in this area. I look forward to hearing your suggestions on how our rural development can be made more effective through such collaboration.

... non-governmental organizations.

The role of non-governmental organizations was not discussed in 1979. At that time, NGO's were just beginning to arrive in Somalia to help us tackle the refugee problem. We have been encouraged by their activities and I am pleased to see so many of them represented here this morning. In addition, we have much to learn by the experience of NGO's in some of our neighboring countries such as Kenya and Sudan where they have made remarkable contributions.

Although in some ways the NGO community is new to Somalia, in other ways, it is very old. For example, for years we have had traditions of religious cooperatives and economic self-help groups. Some of these traditional Somali NGO's are represented here and we are pleased to see them. But we need to find ways in which our local NGO community can expand and develop. We ask our NGO colleagues from overseas to help us in three very specific ways. First, we seek training for NGO participation in areas where we are not experienced; we seek as much of this training as possible in Somalia. Second, we ask that the overseas NGO's hire qualified local experts whenever possible, both as a means to localize the organizations as well as to provide experience and expertise to our citizens who will carry on after our overseas colleagues have returned home. Finally, we look for ways in which the NGO community can work more effectively with Government, especially local Government bodies in rural areas. However, we ask them to cooperate with us to avoid overcrowding certain areas and to provide help to some of the more difficult parts of the country that have been largely neglected.

... role of women.

In recent years we have made great strides in increasing women's participation in development. Our education and training programmes include many more women than in the past; government agencies and those in the private sector employ more women than before; we now have specialized agencies concerned with the particular needs of women such as the Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO), the Women's Education Department (Ministry of Education), the Women's Research Section in the National Academy, etc. However, even though we have made good progress, we need to do more and therefore welcome a workshop group which will focus on the issue of local participation in rural development and the role of women.

We have known for generations that food production, water provision, education, health, fuelwood gathering, and family stability have been the special responsibilities of women. These themes are crucial to the success of rural development and we therefore seek ways in which women can be more centrally involved in the planning, management, decision-making, and evaluation of rural development.

... training and institutional development.

A final theme in need of discussion is that of the role of institutions responsible for rural development. As I look around the room this morning I see many organizations represented which have grown remarkably in the last few years. In spite of this growth, there is need to strengthen even more the skills of our technicians and the managerial capability of our institutions. We also need to coordinate our activities more efficiently. We have devoted one workshop to the topic of Human Resources, Training, and Institutional Arrangements and ask that you consider carefully our needs in this area that will make our programmes in rural development more effective.

As we can see, there is much that we can be doing in a planned and organized manner to help community-oriented projects in several areas. Some possible activities that have worked well in the past and require much more careful analysis for expansion include:

- ... water run-off harvesting in order to encourage garden farming among semi-nomadic peoples. We must also look more closely at spring protection, shallow well construction and rehabilitation;
- ... tree planting, community forestry, and fuelwood production, along with much greater attention to combating soil erosion and to stabilizing sand dunes;

- ... mixed farm production, especially as it integrates livestock rearing with farming, poultry and bee-keeping, cottage industries, and (where possible) fishing;
- ... provision of improved, low-cost rural housing;
- ... construction and maintenance of feeder roads as well as strengthened linkages between rural areas and our regional towns.

We look for ways in which these and other action programs can be included directly in the recommendations from your workshops and, eventually, into the Revised National Strategy for Rural Development.

In closing, let me say how pleased I am that you have assembled this week for the important task of rural development. It is a topic which the President considers to be of the highest priority; I can speak with the same assurance that the Cabinet is looking forward to your recommendations; I can also say that the regional officers and the ministries are anxiously awaiting what you will suggest. However, it is worth emphasizing that self-help and rural development begin with what the people are already doing and what the people have found to be important. Somalia has a proud record of accomplishment in a number of rural projects.

What we need to do is learn from these experiences and build on those ideas as well as the inspiration of the people who have been responsible for their own development. But we must also pay attention to costs. We must not place ourselves in a position where we are continually dependent on outside support or on the funds of the Central Government. Instead, we must strive to plan rural oriented projects so that recurrent costs are eventually met largely by the local organization or are sure to be available through normal local Government activities. In this way, the rural programmes will be essentially self-financing and thereby freed from dependence on outside support.

At this point let me both congratulate and thank our President, Jaalle Mohamed Siyaad Barre for the pioneering leadership he has given and continues to give in promoting rural development.

This Conference is sponsored by the Ministry of Interior and organized by the Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies and Rural Development (SURERD) with some technical assistance from Clark University. I wish to thank them for their efficient cooperation in planning and implementing this Conference.

Permit me to express our gratitude to the international organizations that have given technical and material assistance to the organizers of this Conference: the International Development Research Centre of Canada; UNICEF, and the United States Agency for International Development. I also wish to thank all the other international organizations, government ministries, and related agencies for allowing their experts and officials to cooperate with the organizers and to share their expertise and experience as participants in this National Conference.

With this brief statement, I wish you well and permit me now, on behalf of the Vice-President and Minister of National Planning who has honoured us with his presence here, to declare this National Conference open. We look forward to learning of your deliberations and to receiving your recommendations. Thank you.

## PRIORITIES IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

R. BORTHWICK  
Resident Representative  
United Nations Development Program (UNDP)

Any discussion of rural development strategies requires two definitions. Rural development is a term with many meanings. Usually it is simply defined as the improvement in the living standards of the rural people. There is a consensus, I think, that rural development is basically concerned with the alleviation of poverty. However, judging from the topics of the various workshops at this conference, it would appear that rural development to be discussed will have a broader definition.

One could say that rural development in Somalia is the improvement of the living standards of the rural people and the enhancement of their role in the social and economic development of the rural resources of Somalia.

Rural development encompasses a number of sectoral activities, mainly: agriculture and livestock, health, nutrition, water, energy, transportation, and communications. Across all these sectoral activities there must be the institutional arrangements and processes for promoting the participation of the rural people and for integrating and coordinating project implementation.

Strategy is the other term that needs clarification. According to the 1981 Rural Development Strategy document, the term "strategy" is used to describe the combination of policies, intervention programmes, and projects which will be implemented to reach the objectives of rural development in Somalia.

The national strategy for rural development during the period 1981 - 1990 was adopted in May 1981. This follows the broad concept of rural development mentioned above and defines objectives as:

- (a) increasing food production (crops, livestock, and fisheries);
- (b) improving social services (health, education, water, etc.);
- (c) increasing rural participation; and
- (d) reducing rural poverty.

It also calls for institutional changes to strengthen:

- (a) planning and monitoring,
- (b) implementation and formulation at local levels,
- (c) training and research, and
- (d) carrying out a food strategy study.

Strangely omitted were the improvement of shelter and access roads between rural communities and the social services and markets.

Although the strategy was adapted in 1981, rural development in Somalia has, until very recently, largely referred to micro projects of the Ministry of Interior in which there is a strong element of community participation. Thus, the Public Investment Programme (PIP) for 1984 to 1986 and the Five Year Plan index for "Rural and Regional Development" list only projects which fall under the responsibility of the Ministry of Interior. The PIP (1984-86) shows 25.7 million Somali shillings for rural development which amounts to 2 to 3 percent of the total PIP. For comparison, it may be noted that Sh 123.5 million was allocated to the livestock sector and Sh 130.3 million to agriculture.

Recently rural development has been given a boost by the Belgian Survival Fund which is to support fairly large integrated rural community development projects in three districts. These larger projects (US \$2-5 million) will call for

greater application of the intersector coordinating role which the Ministry of Interior has at the regional, district, and local levels.

The 1981 Rural Development Strategy document has not led to any significant acceleration in rural development. In fact, one gets the impression that it has been shelved until recently. However, there is a very strong desire on the part of the government, particularly the Ministry of National Planning and the Ministry of Interior, to expand its rural development activities on an urgent basis. A number of donors, NGO's, and UN organizations are interested in financing community self-help and "grass roots" poverty-oriented activities as well as the larger district development programmes along rural growth centre concepts.

There does not seem to be any intention of the government at the moment to launch a more ambitious strategy of rural development in its broadest sense which would reorient relevant sector development programmes toward a coordinated and ecologically controlled attack on poverty, erratic food production, and the inadequate supplies of water and fuelwood in the rural areas. No doubt this will come.

It will not be easy for this conference and its workshops to develop a revised strategy which would be realistic given the current constraints in resources and manpower. And as rural development covers multiple sectors, with necessary inputs from the field, it could become a long and complex undertaking. Similarly, an investment programme would be most difficult to elaborate. We must be careful not to recommend very general strategies with meaningless aims as has been the case in some of the previous efforts supported by the UN.

The tasks before this conference are major ones. These will, no doubt, be spelled out in the terms of reference of the various working groups but I would emphasise the following tasks:

- (a) an overview of the present situation in rural development,
- (b) identify present bottlenecks to RD and suggest solutions,
- (c) identify needs in manpower and training,
- (d) help to define the role of the various institutions in implementing, servicing, planning, and monitoring micro projects and the integrated district development projects. This would include community institutions, NGOs, Ministry of Interior's departments and other groups, including the donors. Advise where these institutional arrangements are critical and require strengthening,
- (e) assist in clarifying the role the Ministry of Interior could play in coordinated rural development activities at regional and local levels,
- (f) study whether a more decentralised approach could ensure a sounder base in rural development programmes in terms of responding to local conditions and needs, and creating the best opportunities for the programme activities to continue after external assistance ends,
- (g) reviews the possible ways of motivating rural people.

There is no doubt that this conference will generate new and innovative ideas. I hope it will provide more thinking on ways to ensure that the economic development of rural areas will not lead to the destruction of nomadic pastoralism or to less than maximum food production. We must remember that over half of the land of Somalia is suitable for livestock production while less than 5 percent of the land is considered good farming land and both pasture and arable resources must be preserved. The conference must keep in mind the need to strengthen the country's capacity to cope with the recurring droughts which are now becoming a feature across sub-Saharan Africa. Finally, we must be constantly aware of the country's fragile ecosystem which needs special measures for recovery and control if the country is to avoid a permanent ecological disaster affecting future generations of rural people.

This conference has the opportunity to compile a report which will be of immense value to the government. I urge the conference secretariat to publish the report as soon as possible so that it may benefit the expanded cooperation between government, NGOs, and donors which I feel sure will occur in rural development over the next five years.

I wish you all a successful conference and once again thank the Minister and his Ministry, SURERD and Clark University for arranging it. Thank you.

STATEMENT BY THE DIRECTOR,

UNITED STATES AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

L. Cohen  
Director, USAID

It is a pleasure for me to address the National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy, because I share with you the belief that Somalia's development depends on its rural development. In this nation, where the vast majority of the population lives and works in rural areas, and where the urban population relies heavily on the countryside, rural development will remain the force which drives Somalia into the future. As President Siad pointed out in his Revolution Day Speech of 1983: "It is imperative . . . to develop our rural economy and encourage the Somali people not to abandon the mainstream of our economy which is agriculture and livestock."

So the purpose of this conference is a worthy one. It gives us the opportunity to learn from each other, to work together to help strengthen Somalia's Rural Development Strategy, and ultimately, to cooperate in Somalia's future.

Since the 1950s, when the United States Agency for International Development began working in Somalia, more than half of its activities have focused on rural development.

With the Government of Somali Democratic Republic, USAID now funds projects that further rural development in most regions of the country. These projects include: Bay Region Agricultural Development, Central Rangelands Development, Comprehensive Groundwater Development, Agricultural Delivery Systems, Rural Health Delivery, Livestock Marketing, Health, and others. I have prepared a more detailed project listing for those interested. Even our

project to rehabilitate the Kismayo port will, in fact, serve to promote the rural economy of southern Somalia by facilitating the export of agricultural commodities and livestock and the delivery of agricultural imports. While our Commodity Import Program makes foreign exchange available to primarily urban-based importers, highest priority is given to commodities which improve production in rural areas.

A new project we are planning in refugee settlement should be done in the context of rural development. Under the project, refugees and prior residents of the settlement areas will be assisted in an undifferentiated manner, and the rights of others who traditionally have access to water and land will be protected. We hope that the Ministry of Interior will take the lead in the project, with assistance from the National Refugee Commission and line Ministries.

Despite the efforts of the Somali Government, of my agency, and of other organizations concerned with Somalia's rural development, much remains to be done. We have learned a great deal from our past efforts, and we look forward to learning even more from you during this conference.

For a few minutes now, I would like to share with you what USAID has learned from its efforts in Somalia's rural development. The most important lesson is that projects alone have not been and cannot be the solution to Somalia's rural development. The policy environment is critical to the success of projects. More important, the policy environment is critical for herders and farmers to make a better life for themselves and for Somalia. For example, the introduction of new appropriate technologies through projects to increase farm productivity has not proven sufficient to increase agricultural production. But the policy of liberalizing markets so that farmers are paid what their produce is worth gives them the incentive to try the technologies that we can make available and to increase production.

USAID in recent years has been paying close attention to the policy environment, and it has been discussing development-related policies with counterparts of the Somali Government. Our policy dialogue has emphasized the importance of increasing the role of the private sector in the economy, because we have come to realize that given the incentives provided by a liberalized economic environment, the private sector will respond positively.

On a more basic level, we have learned, sometimes through mistakes, unfortunately, that a deep understanding of the local scene is required before anyone should intervene to try to improve it. Pastoralists and farmers have good reasons for doing what they are doing. They know the rural areas better than anyone. This is why it is essential for them to participate in all project design and implementation. Outsiders cannot do it alone. Moreover, we have learned that rural development activities that are initiated by the rural populace are the most likely to succeed. Therefore, we recommend that the donors and Somali Government work even closer with agriculturalists and pastoralists, so that a true partnership can be achieved to carry out rural development.

This is the essence of a new project that USAID plans to start soon with the Ministry of the Interior. Called the PVO Development Partners Project, it will seek to form a partnership between the Somali Government, USAID, Private and Voluntary Agencies, and local Somali community groups. All the partners will provide inputs for project activities. But preference will be given to activities that are initiated by the local community groups themselves. The intention is that by working with PVOs, local groups will improve their abilities to initiate and carry out development activities on their own.

USAID looks forward to being a partner in the PVO Development Partners Project, just as it looks forward to being a partner with all of you in this conference and in the development of Somalia. I hope that we can reinforce that partnership during these next few days and in the years that lie ahead. Thank you very much.

WATER, HEALTH, AND  
A RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

S. MacNab  
Deputy Director  
United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF)

No doubt many participants will be curious as to how and why UNICEF, the United Nations Children's Fund, should be involved in rural development, and indeed be helping to sponsor this conference. Our interest is based on the social services side of rural development, but in this key issue is also related to a concern. Many programmes and projects for rural development, worth millions of dollars, are designed by planners who have a tendency to overlook the fact that rural development is basically about people, mostly poor people, living in poor communities, undernourished, more often sick than healthy with no access to basic services. This is a deep concern for UNICEF. In most cases, the life they face is a constant struggle to survive. A previous speaker has already mentioned the situation in Bari Region where development was not so much the issue as was need for basic survival. However, the fact of the matter is that even with the experience of centuries of living in a harsh difficult environment, many, many of Somalia's rural population do not survive but die at a very young age, usually from a combination of malnutrition and infection.

I am sure you are all aware of the recent outbreak of cholera in the northwest which resulted in hundreds of deaths and much suffering. The rapid response to the epidemic by the government and the international community was remarkable and impressive. Aircraft brought medical teams and tons of drugs to Hargeisa in order to contain the situation. To date, the death toll is approximately 1,100. This of course was an emergency -- a local emergency -- and in these times of crisis, immediate attention and resources are focused on

the problem. But there is another form of emergency -- a continuous silent emergency which affects the rural areas of Somalia and which possibly does not receive the urgency of attention or allocation of resources it merits. It is this silent emergency of poverty and underdevelopment which is of particular concern to UNICEF because the population group that suffers the most under these conditions is children. While the death toll from the cholera epidemic will probably be around 1,300, the annual death toll of children under the age of one in Somalia is estimated at 35,000. Of those that survive, another 30,000 per year will die before reaching the age of four years. There are a total of 65,000 child deaths per year, which is approximately 200 per day, every day of the year.

Using the national infant mortality rate, we can say that since the publication of the National Rural Development Strategy four years ago, 150,000 children below the age of one year have died in the country. One indication of the success of the strategy will be if this figure can be drastically reduced by the year 1991.

As a statement of the need for special attention to be accorded to children within a rural development strategy, and as a measure of progress of such a strategy, the Infant Mortality Rate is perhaps the most crucial of all available statistics. Technically, the IMR is the number of deaths below the age of one year for every 1,000 live births. But because it is a statistic which has as much to say about the quality of children's lives as about the quantity of their deaths, it is also one of the most eloquent indicators of rural development itself. UNICEF places great importance on this indicator, not only because an improvement in the lives of children is important but also because child well-being is a key function of economic growth. Unlike indirect GNP per

head, which can be increased significantly by the disproportionate wealth of a minority, the IMR can be substantially reduced only by improvements in the life and health of the majority. In the case of Somalia, the majority is the rural population.

Progress in rural development can therefore be measured by falling death rates for infants and children. In the past, conventional evidence has been that further significant improvements in the lives of the children -- and consequent reductions in the IMR -- depended primarily on accelerated economic development. UNICEF does not accept that view. While recognising the important contribution of economic growth to the lives of children, we also believe that the means are at hand to make the survival of children into a cause as well as a consequence of rural development. For we believe that there is profound connection between the growth and development of children and the growth and development of the rural economy.

Before outlining possible solutions, let us first look at the problems faced by children in the rural areas. Earlier I mentioned the cholera epidemic in the northwest and the fact that probably 1,300 people will die from the disease. But bear in mind cholera is an acute form of diarrhea and every year diarrhea, in one form or another, kills approximately 20,000 children in Somalia -- one third of all deaths. Diarrhea is caused mostly by contaminated drinking water. According to the National Health Plan, 26 percent of Somalia's children are severely or moderately malnourished and while not the main cause of death, malnutrition leads to the lowering of resistance and allows measles, pneumonia and other infections to cause the untimely death of children. While lack of food and poor feeding habits can bring about malnutrition, one must also look at the situation of the mother to completely understand the picture.

In most rural communities, the women expend a considerable amount of time and energy working in the fields, undertaking household tasks, collecting water, fetching firewood, as well as looking after the needs of her children. This constant demand on her energy depletes the essential body stores of nutrients needed to protect the development of an infant during pregnancy. The result is usually that the baby is malnourished before it is born. A low birth weight infant is 20 times more at risk of death than a normal weight baby. In Somalia, we can say that 30 to 40 percent of all live births will be low birth weights. Obviously the nutrition of the mother predetermines the nutritional status of the child.

The list of problems which rural children face is lengthy, but without doubt diarrhea, measles, respiratory infections, malnutrition and tetanus are the predominant killers. What can, therefore, be done, within the context of rural development to solve some of these problems?

Without doubt, the provision of clean, accessible water would greatly improve the situation in many villages. Not only would water have a direct effect on health but would greatly reduce the time and drudgery expended by women carrying water from distant wells. While this is an obvious felt need, a more vigorous approach is required by the Water Development Agency to extend water to the rural areas. UNICEF's experience in the northwest would suggest that there is possibly a need to have a separate unit either in or possibly attached to the Ministry of the Interior responsible for small-scale community water systems and well improvements, leaving WDA to concentrate on drilling and well development and rehabilitation. If water is the key to survival and health, then the development of community water systems needs priority attention within the rural development strategy.

Although water is an obvious basic need, child deaths could be cut by half in Somalia through the extension of low-cost primary health care systems which focus on the main causes of ill-health. By empowering people with the knowledge about the treatment of diarrhea or the importance of immunization, it would certainly be possible to reduce infant mortality to below 50 by the end of this century. Any system of primary health care will never work unless there is a strong foundation of community participation and involvement -- this means real participation and not merely the use of the community to simply contribute funds or provide labour to construct a health post or water system. True participation must involve the people in the analysis of the situation as well as in planning and implementation.

I think it is very significant to point out that primary health care has already demonstrated considerable success in Somalia. A recent survey showed that the IMR in the refugee camps was half the national average, and that while other factors played a role, the main reason was the active primary health care system and the network of community health workers within the camps. Very soon the system in the northwest of the country will be able to show figures that infant deaths have been drastically reduced using the same low cost, appropriate approach. A key function of primary health care is to empower people with the knowledge to take care of many of their own health problems. At the same time, empowering people with knowledge creates demand mechanisms on local authorities and organisations for services, albeit health services, agricultural inputs, or credit facilities. In many ways, I think that stimulating these demand mechanisms for the local control of development activities and benefits should be one of the objectives of any rural development strategy.

Although improved community based health programmes can play a major role in the improvement of child health, many other factors are also involved. There is one, however, which is so important that it must be stressed and that is female education. Many studies during the past three decades have shown clear correlation between high levels of female literacy and low levels of infant and child mortality. It had previously been thought that female literacy was merely an indicator of general living standards rather than a factor, in its own right, in determining infant and child health. However, research has now shown that maternal education acts as a powerful independent force in reducing the number of infant and child deaths. One explanation is that educated mothers are less fatalistic about illness and are ready to adopt alternative child care practices. I should point out that when I say "female education" I mean three to four years of primary education, not secondary education. I think this fact should also be taken into consideration not only by education planners but also by rural development planners.

I would like to stress that as children make up the majority of the rural population, they should not be considered as mere beneficiaries of welfare programmes but should be given central consideration in the planning and implementation of any rural development strategy. With this in mind, the Infant Mortality Rate should be considered as one of the main indicators of progress of the national strategy. If the IMR remains at the same level, then the national programme will not have met its main objective -- to improve the well-being of the rural people.

Let me say, however, that there are examples of progress in Somalia which are having an impact on IMR -- the challenge for the future is to extend these approaches to the poorest areas and poorest communities throughout the country

as part of rural development. However, there are many gaps in our knowledge about the rural poor in Somalia -- this is an area which should be given attention by national organisations such as SURERD. UNICEF recently produced a study with the Ministry of National Planning on the situation of women and children which reviewed previous poverty analysis studies and concluded that the data were extremely weak and insufficient to use for targeting programmes.

In conclusion, I could say that integrated rural poverty calls for integrated rural development. I note that there are three new programmes soon to be implemented in Somalia which bear that title. All are being implemented through the Ministry of the Interior with assistance from the Belgian Survival Fund. I think that the experience of these district level approaches over the next few years will probably have a great influence on the future path of rural development in Somalia and I would hope that many of the recommendations of this conference can be built into the plans for their implementation, in order to ensure a definite and positive impact on the lives of the people they are designed to help and, in particular, on the lives of children. Thank you.

CLOSING ADDRESS BY

Mr. Hersi Abdule Hersi, Permanent Secretary,  
Ministry of Interior

Dear Participants and Guests,

First of all, let me ask Dr. Hussein M. Adam, sitting on my right, to translate my remarks into English since I am going to address you in Somali.

I wish to thank Governor Said Bille Adan, Lower Shabelle Region, for his kind words of introduction. Let me congratulate all of you for the hard work you have put into these six hectic days; you have even sacrificed holidays to do your work; at the very least that is sign that you do care for the livelihood of the majority of the people in our country.

H.E. the Minister of Interior has already given a key policy statement at the opening session of this National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy. I do not believe I can add anything to what he has stated so comprehensively.

You have just heard the summaries of the seven workshop recommendations. These plus your deliberations, will form the basis of our five-year review of the official 1981 - 1990 Rural Development Strategy Paper.

During the past five years, a number of new trends have appeared; therefore, our Ministry asked SURERD, a research-consultancy unit affiliated to the Ministry of Interior, to coordinate this conference and invite all concerned ministries, agencies, international organisations (UN, bilateral, non-governmental), scholars and researchers to discuss issues and conduct

deliberations aimed at recommending revisions and modifications of the basic strategy document already mentioned.

It is obvious that you have done a lot of work and I am glad to note that you have distributed a conference evaluation form to all the participants. Once the conference recommendations have been distributed to all ministries, agencies and concerned organisations, SURERD will assist the Ministry in incorporating these into a Draft Revised Strategy Paper which will then be submitted to the Cabinet for consideration and approval. From then on, we must move to from policy declarations and to take concrete actions.

Our strategic objectives, as you are already aware, include the following:

- increase food production, especially cereals, and improve nutrition levels;
- increase social services such as health, education and availability of water;
- increase rural participation;
- reduce rural poverty.

What we need to do is to unify actions by pooling our mental, material and financial resources from both the public and private sectors. Our actions must be planned and they must be realistic, taking into full account our own resources and constraints. We need to put special emphasis on the need to develop adequate and appropriate human resources in order to achieve our planned objectives. Our management/administrative system must be given special attention.

Let me also add the need to improve and strengthen the self-help movement, the need to plan such programmes and projects and to involve the people in decision-making processes around such programmes. We need rationally to allocate local, district and regional level funds for corresponding project initiatives before moving on to request central, national level funds which are needed and necessary only when the project costs go beyond local/regional resources. Once we have utilised our own national resources to the maximum extent possible, then can we turn abroad and seek major and small donor financial and technical assistance.

If we do not wish to see the Strategy Paper as a document only fit for the shelves, we must give careful thought to the issue of modalities for plan/programme implementation, and especially the issue of financial and human resources constraints. Whatever we decide to implement, we must do this systematically and we must be able to follow through and to monitor and evaluate all our activities.

Permit me to thank all the ministries, agencies and organisations (national and international) that have sent participants to this Conferences. I wish to extend our gratitude also to those who have contributed financially to enable SURERD to organise such a Conference. There are so many of you here, I cannot thank each one of you individually, however, allow me to thank our guest scholars from abroad: Professor Alan Hoben of Boston University and Professors Barbara Thomas and Richard Ford of Clark University.

H.E. the Minister of Interior wanted to be here personally at this closing session. Unfortunately, other state duties did not permit him to do so and he delegated to me the honour to preside over this session. In a way I have talked long enough. All I really had to do was utter two simple sentences:

- Thank you one and all for all your contributions;
  
- I hereby declare this National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy, formally closed.

Thank you.

40

PART II

ISSUE ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS

RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA: STRATEGY AND PERFORMANCE

by Dan R. Aronson, Ph.D.  
Professor of Anthropology  
McGill University  
Montreal, Quebec, CANADA

Any observer of rural development in Somalia must be struck by an obvious contradiction: on the one hand the number of documents elaborating or reviewing rural development strategy is growing to be a small industry of its own, while on the other hand successful rural development activities are becoming ever harder to find in the country side. If rural development is to be an activity in which planning plays a part and which has broad social benefits, and not just the sum of individual entrepreneurial actions with large net costs to Somali society, then this contradiction must somehow be resolved.

Sources of rural development strategy

The many strategies toward rural development that have been produced may be grouped into four categories. First are the donor agency assessments written both by individual bilateral and by multilateral organizations. The FAO, the International Labour Offices (through the "JASPA" program), the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), and the World Bank have been among the groups that have produced such documents in recent years. Usually heavily statistical, these "donor assessments" often envisage heavy government intervention in complex project work for development. The second type of document includes in-country strategy papers prepared with much fuller Somali input at the level of ministry technical staff. The 1981 strategy paper done by the Ministry of Planning and the various documents prepared for the Public Investment Programme fit into this category. The projects for which they advocate reflect more strongly the political priorities of government,

but they also contain long lists of projects desired by individual ministries or added because of the vagaries of international financing availability. The third category of rural development strategies includes the documents that result from conferences like this one. This series of position papers has come from popular meetings and party conferences, and from meetings of the union of cooperatives and of other diverse interest groups. What they lack in statistical or economic analysis they gain back in fidelity to the needs of the groups that articulate them. Finally, the fourth category of strategy is not a separate set of papers but rather the real portfolio of rural development projects being undertaken. These actual activities still qualify as "strategy" rather than as rural development itself because the vast majority of them are not yet having much impact. Building up rural infrastructure, training technical staff or laying supply lines (for veterinary drugs, or credit, or inputs, for example) are actions in furtherance of a strategy, but it is not yet possible to measure the "performance" of the strategy in achieving rural development. This actual project portfolio is, of course, a pragmatic series of compromises between the abstract priorities of the technical agencies, the limitations and predilections of the funding agencies, and the will and commitment of Somali authorities to follow through on decisions for action.

What "rural development" has been achieved?

Rural development everywhere has two faces. There is the aspect of planned activity, mounted by government with related policy decisions and field operations. And there is the side of spontaneous activity by rural people themselves, taking their opportunities where they can find them within the structure of government policies -- or finding the gaps or cracks between policies. (This dialectic of policy and entrepreneurialism goes on everywhere,

no matter the official attitude towards the legitimacy of private or public sector activities.)

Over the last decade in Somalia there has been a vast succession of different policies, programs, and individually-instigated development activities. A full review of them, or of the lessons learned from them, is impossible here. Such a review would include the following:

1) A bitter series of calamities, some natural or otherwise uncontrollable, others man-made, has laid waste to the execution of plans since at least the beginning of the 1970's. Droughts, the ramifications of big power politics, war, refugee influxes, abrupt shifts in labor and livestock markets and fiscal crises have followed one upon the other without let-up. Government has shouldered an enormous burden of responding to these crises, but some new catastrophe seems to appear just as the last one is getting under control. Inevitably, therefore, government has been reacting to unplanned situations much more than it has been able to act towards its own planned goals.

2) Project plans have been over-ambitious, and progress has been painful at best. It is impossible to judge whether the complicated rural development projects that government has undertaken would have succeeded if the long series of crises had not diverted both resources and attention. Other countries in somewhat more favorable circumstances have not had much more success with big projects. When projects in Somalia have been set up semi-autonomously, they have tended to drain talent and commitment from line ministries. When they have been placed directly into ministries, their management and finances have been drained by other ministerial priorities. Either way, progress has been slow at best, many projects have been totally immobilized, and the attempt to build up an ongoing capacity to undertake such work has been stymied.

3) Both in general management of the economy and in project work, government and foreign donors have convinced themselves that broad goals could be

realized in minimum time, or that government could control forces that were really beyond its capacity. This over-expectation of quick and authoritative performance, and the equally quick reversals of field when goals were not forthcoming on short schedules, was counter-productive: the continuous effort to build big organizations and control economic behavior everywhere led only to misfired dirigisme, widespread social economic alienation, and crises of morale in the civil service. Government could simply not hope to solve all the problems, obvious and wrenching though they were, that analysts and strategy-builders could so easily discern.

4) As government's limitations have been coming into clearer focus, so has realization of the vigor of private sector activities. The immobility of many donor-funded interventions stands in sharp contrast to the dynamism of the urban economies in the three or four large cities, of peri-urban food and fodder production, of the livestock industry, of the international migration of Somali labor, of private farming especially in the middle Shebelli (and elsewhere), and formerly of the g'at trade. Each of these activities may offer models for development that can be generalized, but it should also be realized that each offers major profits to only a relatively few Somalis. At the same time, broad studies such as those carried out by the Bay Region Project, by Professor Tyler's follow-up to the WCARRD analysis, or by Vali Jamal's extensions of the ILO analyses all show the grinding poverty and marginalization of most Somalis on the farms and in the rangelands.

What can be added to "strategy" at this point?

What has been briefly outlined here is that it is performance, achievement, that has lagged in Somalia and not strategy building. Goals for development have not yet been lacking, and more revisions or greater precision may be helpful in terms of ideas but will not necessarily provide the fuel to get the

country moving. Perhaps what is necessary now is to restrict the programs in rural development very sharply, especially if it is widely agreed that, however sad, there are more things that must be done in Somalia than can be done. To try to work on all fronts at once will perpetuate the "planners' fallacy" that the world will yield to "plans" just because it will see how necessary it is to do so.

If we are to move beyond the contradiction between over-planning and under-performing, it will be by the interim means of radically limiting the number and breadth of planned development objectives. This conference could be a first step toward recognizing the many environmental, economic, and political constraints to the success of "heavy" planning in Somalia. In short we should be talking not about adding to the objectives but about subtracting, about shortening and sharpening the lists of priorities and projects to that minimum vital to running the economy and society in the most realistic ways possible. Key ideas for making the choices that will lead to the widest social benefit include the following:

- 1) The centerpiece of all planning efforts must remain the three-fourths of all Somalis who are still dependent upon livestock. The bulk of increased government services must go to them, and the income to expand the services must in turn come from the taxes raised from their increased productivity. Elaborate schemes to help a few hundred fishermen or farmers must be costed not only internally, but for what they do to divert focus away from the overwhelmingly largest segment of the population.

- 2) The crop sector, and especially irrigation, must be seen as the servant of the much vaster pastoral population. There is a crucial point here: different development strategies for the river basins depend on different images of the role of agriculture in future Somali society. If irrigation

is to be the salvation of the nomadic population, then labor-intensive programs are necessary to absorb surplus population from the rangelands. If the river valleys are to be the generators or multipliers of funds to serve the essentially pastoral society, then there are many more options as to the types of crops and systems of production that might be put into place. In short, crop and livestock planning must follow from a clear and unified vision of the role of each in the total economy that is to emerge.

3) Leeway must be found for sounder, stronger initiatives "from below" that has been the case to date. Government can recognize and nurture private and local community initiatives with minimal effort, and can thereby help place some of the burden from development where it most obviously belongs, on rural people themselves. Instead of sapping such initiatives or trying to control them, government could find ways to monitor and to learn from them for further application elsewhere. Sources both of information and of energy are out there already: inexpensive research in "farm systems," for example, has demonstrated major crop constraints without the need for elaborate agricultural research in semi-artificial conditions: small projects by non-governmental organizations (NGO's) has in many countries proven invaluable in developing solutions to local problems in ways that are of minimum cost either to rural producers or to government; finally, local and regional governments can be offered certain technical advice if they themselves can elicit workable projects based on local initiative. The resulting partnership, between central government providing the regulatory incentives and local groups providing the community commitment, is much more likely to achieve tangible results than the present arrangement whereby central government provides ideas, resources, supervision, and control, and often finds itself speaking to no one in particular at the local level.

4) A firm policy is necessary to put a moratorium on the private appropriation of communal resources. All over the country development possibilities

are being pre-empted by the headlong rush to fence or register land, to gain control of water supplies, and to secure the most productive land of every kind. These developments are so recent that government has yet officially to recognize their significance, but there is at the same time a ready admission on most people's part that significant threats to many local production systems are being mounted under the banner of private sector enthusiasm. Not all private sector activity is bad, of course, but an adequate calculation of costs -- for example to an extensive grazing system that crucially depends on a small dry-season grazing area -- must be done, case by case, to determine the impact of privatizing key resources. Otherwise, there is a real danger that development strategy-building will soon be irrelevant to large numbers in the population who would be squeezed permanently off the land.

5) Realistic timing for development programming must be allowed. It is folly to think -- as has been done in Somalia and elsewhere -- that new systems can be devised in the first year of a project, new technology in the second, and new extension methods in the third so that "results" can be measured in the fourth. Rather, information gathered now on which projects might be based are for the projects of the early and mid-1990's, given the lead times actually necessary to prepare and mount projects that will have demonstrably positive impacts at any time after they begin. Somalia can ill afford instant solutions that are no solutions, or temporary band-aids to heal serious wounds.

A realistic rural development strategy, in summary, would provide ways to find answers to a few of Somalia's problems, would rely on local initiatives to solve them, would envisage solutions on a ten- or fifteen-year lead time, and would ensure that in the meantime no loss of strategic land or water resources took effect that would deny success a priori to project intentions. The focus of the efforts would be Somali's still-pastoral population, and so

the Mogadishu bias now seen in so many projects would also vanish.

#### Conclusion

There is absolutely no doubt that rural development is taking place on a large scale in contemporary Somalia, or that it will continue to do so. What we as thinkers and planners must address are the questions as to whether this development is positive and progressive, and whether government has played or can play a progressive role in the changes under way. Crucial in any discussion of a role for planning is the discussion of goals, and it is not now clear that Somalis agree on which goals are the most fundamental to achieve. If those could be decided, then it might be much easier to revise the rural development strategy than is now perceived.

## RURAL DEVELOPMENT TRAINING AND INSTITUTIONS IN SOMALIA

Dr. M. O. Fadal

Somali Institute for Development, Administration, and Management (SIDAM)

### Introduction

Rural development is a top priority area for Somali Government development policy. This is based on the realisation that the bulk of the country's natural and human resources are of a rural nature and any sound development and planning policy has to deal with that. The launching of the 1974/75 Literacy and Rural Development Campaign, the resettlement effort of the drought-stricken nomads, and the laying down of the National Strategy for Rural Development (1981-1990) are only few prominent examples among many.

The major objective of this Second National Conference on Rural Development will be to analyse the achievements of rural development so far and to give new impetus and direction where need arises for the rest of the decade. As a modest contribution to that national effort, this paper will attempt to throw light on the aspect of training and institution-building in rural development.

### Training

Rural training is generally a way of building skills, developing attitudes, and increasing knowledge for a person or a group of rural or related occupations. The skill to be transmitted could be new to the recipient or it could be the improvement of one already in use. Rural training may include a variety of skills among them: daily life skills, income generating skills, skills related to the provision of basic community services and facilities, occupational skills, non-vocational skills such as leadership participation in

rural institutions, and skills of functional literacy. Rural training should not mean an inferior form of training which serves only to institutionalise the rurality and to perpetuate backward development. It should have the seeds of change and progress in it without, of course, leading to the alienation of the rural people from their environment and productive way of life. Rural training should also be specific, i.e., designed for the rural environment to improve the productive and participatory capability of the rural population. But it should as well have the generalising quality of bridging the gap between the rural and the urban area--facilitating the acquisition of the social amenities and development already enjoyed in the urban area by the rural community.

In this context rural training provides the rural community with skills which enable individuals to improve their productive capacity of an activity already used e.g., pottery or improve utilisation of an available resource like livestock, pasture, soil crops, irrigation, fishing, etc. It also means introduction of new skills which may be sources for generating additional income, creating employment opportunity, introducing new health care methods, etc. Each training program of this nature has a specific target group such as women, youth, landless peasants, housewives, midwives, etc.

The multi-sectored rural development projects and development activities going on all over the country require a trained cadre which has the appropriate skill to manage them. Sector based technical skills such as hydrology, agronomy, veterinary, etc. are necessary but are not enough to assure successful management of rural development projects and programmes.

It is necessary to train technicians in rural development management skills which could enable them to have a conceptual understanding of the interdisciplinary nature of rural development activities. There is need to have a

trained staff which could man the rural development offices and sectors of the regions and districts of the country. The skills of planning, evaluation, monitoring, administration, research, and management are all areas of pivotal importance for a successful rural development process.

Rural development training in our context has, on the one hand, to improve the productive capability of rural people enhancing their living standards; increase their sociopolitical involvement in matters influencing their lives, and achieve a degree of equity. Training has, on the other hand, to prepare manpower equipped with the necessary management skills to execute effective rural development programmes.

### Institutions

There are a variety of institutions conducting rural training programmes in Somalia. The institutions, each dealing with a definite problem or catering to a specific group, have developed independent of each other with no proper policy guidelines or subsequent coordination. They include:

1. The Somali Institute for Development, Administration and Management;
2. The Women's Education Department (Ministry of Education) and the Somali Women's Democratic Organisation's Training Centres;
3. The National Adult Education Institute (Ministry of Education);
4. The Cooperative Training Centre.

Rural training programmes of a less formal nature are also conducted through the facilities of:

- The Ministry of Agriculture through the Agriculture Extension programme and the Agriculture Crash programme,
- The Ministry of Health through the primary Health Care programme,

- The Settlement Development Agency, and
- Non-Governmental Organisations.

Most of the training programmes these institutions are conducting are of a technical nature as described earlier. The rural development management aspect of the training has no such variety of institutions to boast. Management and administration has been lately identified as the weakest points of every aspect of our national institutional structure. Rural development is no exception and may have even suffered more than any other sector due to the negative attitude of the qualified people towards working in the rural areas. This is further aggravated by the inbuilt institutional bias of first satisfying the manpower needs of the centre and allowing the periphery to wait.

SIDAM took a pioneering initiative in an attempt to bridge that gap. Its efforts towards rural development training were made in three major directions:

- (i) SIDAM introduced a one-year rural development diploma-course which was mainly oriented towards producing rural animators. The programme continued for three years and was finally discontinued in 1984. It was abandoned partly due to financial constraints but also due to the lack of recognition and interest shown by the ministries/agencies with regards to the programme graduates assigned to them;
- (ii) SIDAM conducts training courses at the Police Academy, in an attempt to reach the higher Government officials, regularly trained there, with emphasis on rural development management.
- (iii) SIDAM conducts short rural development seminars for selected target groups.

The idea of developing a linkage programme with the National University has lately been under discussion in SIDAM. It may mean introducing rural development management courses there or offering a post-graduate short-term diploma course in SIDAM for the graduates of relevant faculties.

#### Institution-Building in Rural Development

Institutions fully or partially involved with rural development are many, some of them more successful than others. But institutionalisation of the

concept and structure of rural development is far behind other countries with which we share similar problems. The dropping of the name (Rural Development) from the Ministry of Interior (MOI) hasn't helped to clear the confusion of what its fate is within the Ministry.

The coordination and consolidation of rural development is an entity within our national plans and budget. The coordinating role of the ex-Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development has never properly materialised. This was mainly due to the uncooperative attitude of the other concerned sectoral ministries and agencies which saw the role of the Ministry of LG/RD as only that of building local slaughterhouses and managing small projects. They successfully evaded any possibility of developing a central plan and budget for rural development and barred any possibility of that ministry knowing what activities they were running, what has been achieved, etc. As a result, no one worked out a representative and comprehensive picture about what development efforts are going on in the rural areas.

The Ministry of LG/RD itself failed to establish and strengthen rural development offices in the regions and to substantially equip its present department of Planning and Rural Development for such a crucial task. The Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies and Rural Development (SURERD) with all its limited capability and coverage is a positive step towards institution building in rural development.

Institution-building is part and parcel of the nation-building process we are undergoing. It is often considered to fall into the enshrined domain of the Government with little attention being given to the role of the individual. But there is no shortage of examples of individuals who have won a place in Somalia's living history for their dedication towards an institution. Our leaders often reward nations that excel in their efforts for nation building.

It is time the academic and professional community took the initiative of recognizing the effort and achievements of the best of their peers.

As a modest contribution to such a course, this paper highlights the efforts in the area of institution-building in rural development of:

1. Ibrahim Mohamoud Abyan in SIDAM;
2. Hawa Adan in the Women's Education Department;
3. Dr. Hussein Mohamed Adam in SURERD; and
4. Haqabtir leaders as a collective in their pioneering effort as the first Somali PVO.

#### Rural Development Training and Research Institute

The National Workshop on Rural Development, held in 1979, made, among others, the following recommendations. A quote from the Workshop Report stated:

- V) Provide training for regional and district administration cadres for formulation of community development programmes and coordination of development activities.
- VI) Provide training for officials of development ministries and agencies, in project formulation and implementation, with emphasis on integrated rural development, and
- VII) Establishment of a centre for rural development research and studies on rural peoples and their problems.

Apart from the over-strained effort SIDAM has invested in the area, the gap on training, research, and documentation in the national rural development programme exists. The need to establish a Rural Development Training Institute (RDTI) is today even more imperative. It should have the following objectives:

- a.) Assist the Government to determine priorities, based on felt needs of different areas and communities, resource-availability and possibility of employment generation and provision of basic needs in order to develop policies, programmes, and projects in rural development.

- b.) Train and develop a cadre of national professional staff for designing and conducting training programmes, and for formulation, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of development and research projects in their respective fields of competence and specialisation.
- c.) Undertake training programmes designed to suit different levels and categories of government and local government officials, as well as village workers, with special emphasis on A) intersectoral integration and coordination and B) training of trainees.
- d.) Carry out research into socioeconomic problems of rural areas and communities.
- e.) Develop criteria and methods for planning, monitoring, and evaluation of rural development projects, with focus on their impact on the life of the different categories of the rural people, particularly in the context of national policy for socioeconomic development pertaining to the preservation of the environment, rehabilitation of rangelands, agro-pastoral integration, social infrastructures and rural institutions.
- f.) Assist and advise the Government on setting up or strengthening of training and/or research centres, projects in rural development in regions or districts, etc.
- g.) Act as documentation centre for all the national and international experience for rural development. Establish contact with the African, Arab, and other institutes and research centres involved with rural development.

### Conclusion

A lot of national and international effort has gone into rural development training in Somalia. It may not be easily quantifiable for lack of a coordinating machinery, and it may not match the level of most of the other countries in the region. Still, it is substantial. Most of this effort is directed towards technical topics related to the rural people. The area of rural development management, which mainly involves preparing a qualified manpower pool, is less significantly represented in these efforts. Skills like project management, project proposal preparation, planning from a grass roots level in rural development, monitoring and evaluation, research, and environmental

preservation need to be developed. The establishment of a Rural Development Training Institute and strengthening of those institutions already involved with specialised aspects of rural development training should be considered a priority if the plans and strategies for rural development are to meet their objectives.

## LOCAL ORGANIZATION AND PARTICIPATION

### Community Involvement in Development Programs and Projects

Barbara P. Thomas

Assistant Professor, Director of Teaching

International Development Program

Clark University

(Comments made at the National Conference for a Mid-Decade Review of Rural Development in Somalia, June, 1985)

Is there a role for local organizations in the development process? Recently, when working in Kenya, I had opportunity to ask a subchief what his community needed. He responded, "Any child can tell you - roads, water, and health care." Perhaps the answer is not as simple as he implied, but a lesson is there: local residents do have view points and priorities. Farmers, villagers - men and women - need to be asked what is important to them.

Often planners don't ask, don't involve people at the local level, and consequently, operate on the basis of some widely held myths. What are these myths? There are at least four myths which are widely held:

- 1) Everyone at the village level is the same.

Let us use Bangladesh as an illustration. In a densely populated, primarily rural country, most Bangladeshis earn their living from the land. Poverty is widespread and the needs of much of the population are acute. To an outsider the similarities of problems at the village level may vastly outweigh the differences, yet people at the village level are not all the same. To suggest that they are ignores critical differences. There are, first of all,

differences related to ownership of land. Nearly 50 percent of Bangladeshis are landless while trying to earn a living from agriculture. Hence, the landed, even those with a small fraction of an acre, have access to a critical resource which is unavailable to the landless. Other variables are also significant: gender, age, educational levels, religion. In areas less homogeneous than Bangladesh, ethnicity, race and language can also constitute critical differences at the local level. Everyone in a village is not the same. Moreover, such an assumption ignores differences between villages: variations in resource base, environment, land use patterns, land/man ratios.

2) Villagers do not know much.

A second myth is that villagers are ignorant. They do not really understand what is good for them. The Government knows. Planners know. People sitting in the capital city know. Such attitudes lead to a "top down" approach in which local communities are rarely consulted about their needs and their priorities. It is an approach which has characterized many aid agencies. NORAD, for example, working in Mbere in Kenya's Embu District in the mid-1970's failed in its efforts to introduce group ranching because the local people had not been consulted about their needs and concerns for managing herds. Similarly, the knowledge of local residents is often ignored. Knowledge of grasses and watering spots, of climate and soils, of local institutions and social relationships can be central to the success of development projects. Not only is it untrue that "villagers don't know much," they often have highly relevant ideas and information.

3) What is foreign is better.

Perhaps colonial governments launched this myth in the early years of their governance. Perhaps it is perpetuated by an aspiring middle class, by donor agencies, and by international businesses seeking to gain a toehold in a new market. Whatever the source, this "myth" is also widespread. It may lead to "high tech" solutions and to inappropriate technology fostered by those who probably also subscribe to myth number two. An illustration from Sudan is useful. In the community of Abyei in Southern Sudan, the American Government sponsored a multi-purpose development project. This Harvard-administered project followed - by several years - a multi-purpose Russian Government project in the same area. A research associate with the Harvard team brought back with her from Abyei an interesting photograph. There, side by side, were two large, rusted, useless tractors - one American and the other Russian - both utterly inoperable in this remote region of Sudan. Clearly indiscriminate introduction of foreign goods is unlikely to be "better" and may be both wasteful and harmful.

4) Doing anything is better than doing nothing.

We are all familiar with development projects which have been both ill conceived and mismanaged thereby making more problems for the community than the people had to begin with. As one speaker put it, "Don't just move for movement's sake." There must be careful groundwork and excellent management of good ideas in order to assure that an activity is successful. In Mbere, the United Nations launched some women's groups in poultry-raising, but the costs of feeding and maintaining the chickens during a period of drought far exceeded the benefit to the women. In another part of the country, cattle dips for which the construction process was mismanaged brought no benefits whatsoever to the community. Certainly doing anything was not better than doing nothing.

### Local organizations

Working with local organizations at the community level can help counter or dispel some of these myths. The range of these organizations is considerable. They may be traditional, growing out of indigenous structures responsive to cherished, time-honored ways of dealing with common problems. They may be modern, perhaps encouraged by recent governmental action. They may be formal with constitutions, membership, dues, and various carefully delineated plans and objectives. They may be informal without rules and regulations and with shifting patterns of personal involvement. They may be long-term or they may be limited.

The form of such organizations varies substantially. In parts of Africa the traditional age-grade groups still function for purposes of governance and social support. There are mutual aid teams which likewise seem to grow out of traditional practices for sharing labor at times of peak demand in the agricultural cycle or of sharing responsibility for maintenance of common rural infrastructure. There are water-user associations, women's groups, cooperatives, village development associations, and local development councils.

Such groups may be multi-purpose or they may be single purpose. A multi-purpose village development association, for example, might be involved in building a road, constructing and managing a health clinic and expanding a school. A tea growers association would focus exclusively on the management of tea production and marketing small holder tea farmers as a single purpose organization.

Many organizations are built around the sharing or use of a particular factor of production. This may be labor as in the women's agricultural work parties whereby women work on each other's land and may also work as a team for a farmer in the area. Or the shared factor of production may be capital, the rotating credit societies, or the pooled income used to purchase a jointly owned investment in land, or perhaps a shop or maize grinding equipment.

Finally, groups are often defined in terms of the characteristics of the group members. They may be residents of a particular community, parents of children in a given school, women of a particular church, or farmers growing a particular commodity.

The key question we want to ask is: How can community participation through local organizations help in the effective design and execution of development programs and projects?

First, the community can provide local level knowledge of environmental conditions, socio-economic opportunities and constraints, or cultural patterns useful for project design.

Second, local organizations can help mediate this process and can help adapt a project to local conditions as defined by community residents. This process can be a cost effective way to gain community support and cooperation for the organization helps present the project to the community and helps shape it to community needs.

Third, local organizations can foster the generation of local resources thereby encouraging commitment to a project. These resources may include labor contributions, administrative or management skills, material, or cash. As a device for generating resources, local organizations may call for assistance in "topping up" aid contributed from outside. Or it may provide the core support

which is then supplemented by selective outside assistance. For example, in some parts of Kenya local committees traditionally build the school "up to the lentils" while the aid agency provides metal sheets for a roof or cement for the floor. Approximately 10 percent of Kenya's development budget is comprised of self-help contributions from the rural areas. This represents a substantial contribution to rural infrastructure.

Fourth, a local organization can help a program or project identify and reach the target group. Its presence, of course, does not assure that the target group is reached, but community participating in a local organization is likely to make it more difficult for elites to "capture" the benefits of projects. Moreover, an organization is more likely to reflect a broad range of concerns or to have the potential to do so.

Fifth, organizations permit a two-way flow of information providing important feedback to those at the top and communication channels with information and advice for those at the bottom.

Sixth, local organizations facilitate the generation of multiplier effects from projects and spin-off benefits. For example, cattle dips in Muchungucha, a sub-location in Murang'a District in Kenya, permitted the acquisition and maintenance of grade and half-breed cattle by local residents. The opportunity to maintain these cattle in a healthy, tick-free condition led to the formation of the Muchungucha Women's Group. This group raised money which was offered to its members on a rotating basis for the purpose of purchasing improved breeds of cattle. In 1974 there were no grade cattle in Muchungucha. In 1979, there were cattle dips, grade cattle, and women's organizations raising funds for cattle and for other things as well.

In sum, there is an argument for working with local organizations. That much is very clear. What we must now ask are questions related to the specific situation in Somalia:

- 1) What organizations exist which can be useful in the development process?
- 2) What new ones might be created and might operate successfully in a new environment?
- 3) In what ways do people participate in organizations and in development projects?
- 4) How can we involve specific groups in project identification and design, in implementation, in sharing benefits, and in evaluation processes.
- 5) How can the Government and Non-Governmental Organizations promote and sustain local organizations in the context of equity-oriented development?
- 6) How can local organizations contribute effectively to specific national development goals?

I would argue that rural people acting through local organizations will do so most effectively when there is a good fit between what they perceive as benefits and needs and the particular strategy the government is promoting. At the heart of this issue is the empowerment of local communities. Governments are often afraid to decentralize power, and, in fact, want to penetrate and control rather than disperse power. Thus there is a dilemma. On the one hand, a Government may want to strengthen a rural community in order to increase the chances of effectiveness of its rural development strategy. On the other, to strengthen local communities is to foster empowerment and perhaps, ultimately,

to diminish the power of the center. Such issues provide the context in which the specifics of program and project strategy and implementation are developed.

None of this, of course, is easy. The challenge brings to mind the Institute for Agriculture in Zimbabwe, Kushinga Phikelela. "Kushinga" is a Shona word. "Phikelela" is an Ndebele word. They mean the same thing: to be brave and to persevere under truly difficult conditions. No one will deny that the conditions for bringing about effective local participation are difficult to establish; few will deny the value of persevering.

ROLE OF STATISTICS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOMALIA

M. Awil, Director

Central Statistical Department, Ministry of National Planning

In a country like Somalia where the large majority of the population resides in the rural areas, overall national development must incorporate the rural development processes. Just as the availability of relevant statistics is central to overall development planning, so it is for rural development as well. It is well established and is fully recognised in Somalia also that meaningful planning is not possible without the availability of the required data on the social and economic aspects of population and resources. Although development strategies may vary from country to country and also the stage of development, availability, and potential of resources, there are some statistical needs which are of basic importance to all issues. In addition there is also need for specific efforts to generate data to fulfill special needs. Thus for Somalia, rural development needs have been given importance and are, to a large extent, consistent with the overall major development objectives of the development plans, especially those concerned with (1) raising the standard of living of the people, (2) reducing disparities in income, and (3) improving access to social services, especially for rural populations.

For rural development planning and for evaluating the impact of rural development plans, statistical indicators for the country as a whole and those relating to the regions or specific areas are necessary to assess the situation as it exists from time to time. Since the development process aims at improving the overall living conditions of the people, statistical data in general, and the socioeconomic indicators of the people in particular, are essential to prepare the plans at the national, regional, and sectoral levels.

First of all, it is essential to have the statistical data reflecting the demographic, social, and economic realities existing at the beginning of the planning period. This set of data is generally referred to as the benchmark information, from which future progress can be assessed.

The sectors for which statistical data are needed, in order to be used for rural development, are: the size and distribution of population by geographic areas; urban-rural sectors; the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics; labour force; agriculture, including livestock and fisheries; industrial establishments, if any; domestic trade and prices; transportation and communication; education; health; foreign trade; and income of individuals and families, etc.

In Somalia, where the Central Statistical Department of the Ministry of National Planning represents the core of the country's statistical system with an authority under the Statistical Law to collect, analyse and publish statistics, some of the basic data useful for rural development have been collected. The Department has conducted a national population and livestock census in 1975, carried out a number of demographic and related surveys, and is continuously collecting as well as publishing data either on the basis of direct enumeration or out of the data collected and supplied by other departments. Some of the statistical series released by the Central Statistical Department include the Yearly Statistical Abstract, Industrial Report, Foreign Trade Statistics, etc. The consumer price index is published on a monthly basis. In the field of population, the department publishes a number of reports on the basis of small-scale socioeconomic surveys. However, the major field efforts by the department were the first ever national population and livestock census of 1975, which was followed by 1980 Survey of Population, and the 1982 Labour Force Survey. Another demographic survey of Bay, Banadir, and Lower Shabelle

regions was carried out in 1980. All these surveys collected important information relating to both urban and rural segments of Somalia's population.

In the field of agriculture, the Department carried out a pilot survey of Merca region during late 1983. Also a number of industrial surveys and a household budget survey was carried out by the Department.

In addition to the Central Statistical Department, educational statistics are compiled and published by the Ministry of Education. Similarly useful health statistics are being collected under the auspices of the Ministry of Health. Also there are a number of small-scale studies which are carried out from time to time by the concerned agencies.

Most of the aforementioned statistics are of direct or indirect relevance to rural development in the country. For example, the 1975 census provided the urban and rural breakdown of the population totals which were further distributed by male-female, age-sex, literacy and educational levels, economic activity, etc. The 1980 Survey of Population provided useful data on the occurrence of births and deaths in the rural and urban households in addition to the age-sex distribution, literacy and education, economic activity, and internal migration. The 1982 Labour Force Survey collected more detailed information about the economic activity and migration along with usual demographic information. The educational statistics provide information about school enrollments, teachers, and related data.

In spite of the efforts so far made in the collection and compilation of statistics relevant to rural development, there is still a wide gap between the data requirements for appropriate rural development and the existing statistical output from all the sources. For example, the data specific to the particular areas such as regions and districts are generally lacking. Moreover, the

information available in most cases is not the latest. Given the shortage of resources, both in terms of money and technical manpower, it is extremely difficult for a least developed country like Somalia to cater to the needs of all the sectors of the economy in an up-to-date way. However, given the resources, efforts can be made to provide more specific sets of statistical data for specific areas, which are, of course, very important for rural development planning, execution, and monitoring.

REFLECTIONS ON SETTLEMENTS AND  
LAND TENURE ISSUES IN SOMALIA

by

Prof. Alan Hoben  
Director, African Studies Program  
Boston University

INTRODUCTORY

Although pastoralism has taken precedence over settled cultivation in Somalia in the past, since independence the emphasis of the government and of economic planners has been on cultivation and to more secure and more formal systems of land distribution. Until recently, the policy of the government was to establish state farms and to foster the development of cooperatives. Now, however, a shift in international alignment and economic philosophy has led to encouragement of private farming ventures. Under a 1975 land law, the State has the power to grant long-term leases of land and with this measure hopes to encourage long-term investment in farming.

According to Agricultural Land Law 73 of 1975, the Secretary of Agriculture is responsible for distribution, supervision and management of all agricultural land. Urban land, on the other hand, is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of State for Public Works.

Critical Tenure Issues in National Policy

The long-term leases provided for by Law No. 73 provide tenure security and therefore encourage long-term investment in farming. They also tend to prevent land fragmentation by declaring minimum ownership size. But the law ignores completely the long-standing customary systems of land ownership and

the indigenous institutions that still govern access to land and pasture. The law ignores the practices and needs of pastoralists--despite the fact that they constitute over 60 percent of the Somali society. Another striking feature of the law is that it favors cooperatives, state farms, parastatals and corporate agricultural enterprises over private individual farmers in terms of the size of holdings permitted, the length of lease granted and access to credit and machinery.

Nor has sufficient attention been given to dealing with the problems of land registration. The process of land registration is unnecessarily cumbersome and often application materials are lost in the process. Credit from state banks is usually available only for cooperatives and not to the individual farmers.

Other critical tenure issues are posed by the new irrigation projects, such as that in the Juba Valley, and by resettlement projects. Both types of programs are designed to introduce new tenure patterns of more intensive land use, patterns that differ from those already in place.

#### Land Tenure and Agricultural Production

Although the government of Somalia has recently shifted its emphasis from cooperatives to individually held farms as the preferred unit of agricultural production, there has been no research that shows that one or the other form of production as it exist in Somalia is more efficient.

#### Implications for Project Design

Throughout this century there have been written laws of the country designed to govern land ownership, access to water and pasturage and other social activities. At many points, the laws contradict custom. On a practical

level, however, the traditional social institutions continue to dictate access to natural resources. Compliance to state laws may be gaining some popularity in the urban land tenure system but in the rural agriculture clan affiliations and cultural norms dominate most social activities. It is, therefore, extremely crucial to consider these traditional social relations during project design. The loyalty and compliance of these groups (clans) to any government activities can only be gained if they are invited to be a significant part of the scheme. Without their active participation most development projects are doomed to fail.

#### General Conclusions

The most general conclusion of these reflections is that in Somalia today there is no single coherent resource tenure system. Instead indigenous systems coexist and at times conflict with statutory law and administrative procedures. The most fundamental conflict between indigenous and modern concepts of resource tenure centers on the role of the "clan system." In the indigenous system, an individual's access to use free or unowned resources and his right to prevent others from gaining access to the resources he owned were guaranteed only insofar as he was a member of a corporate, descent-structured political community. In the modern system the clan system is given no recognition. Instead, resource rights are vested in the state.

Moreover, there is a contradiction between the state's desire to eliminate the clan system and its need to rely on it to a considerable extent in some regions to maintain the peace at the local level.

The law also differs with tradition and practice in its failure to give legal recognition to pastoral rights in range land, in its failure to recognize that many Somali require access to land and water at more than one location,

and in forbidding private land transfer by rental or sale. Further problems are created by the fact the official land registration system is underdeveloped and lacks integrity.

Conflict generated by these institutional contradictions and by competition for resources are resolved through arbitration and mediation within the administration, rather than in the courts. The outcome of this process is influenced by the disputants' ability to mobilize political and economic resources, as well as by customary sentiment and the law and administrative directives.

Development assistance introduces new resources into this political process of resource allocation. The way in which it is introduced can have a profound influence on the ability of competing interest groups, public and private, modern and traditional, to obtain and maintain access to essential land and water resources.

This point, important for any rural development project, is crucial for projects that touch the interests of comparatively weak social groups, such as refugees, displaced or disorganized riverine peoples, and farmers in remote areas. It is essential that projects affecting such groups provide them with the knowledge and the means to enjoy the rights they are, in principle, guaranteed in Somali law.<sup>1</sup>

#### The Feasibility of Settling Refugees in Inhabited Areas

Problems entailed in settling refugees raise two issues. First, is there unused high potential land in these areas? Then, is there land which is not claimed already by local inhabitants?

---

<sup>1</sup>It is interesting that, in a general sense, most of the problems and policy issues encountered in Somalia are characteristic of other sub-Saharan African land tenure situations today.

The belief that there is abundant unused land suitable for crop production in Somalia should be viewed with caution. Presently accepted figures are based on crude surveys and estimates that have become enshrined in planning documents through repetition. Closer examination (as for example in the Hunting Technical Services survey of the Bay region, mentioned above) has revealed much local variation in soil quality and rainfall which is masked by broad classification but is vital to actual potential. Nor is high potential land of value without water for human and animal consumption. Indeed, water is the limiting factor of land exploitation in most of the interriverine area where cultivation is possible. In Somalia's harsh and variable climatic conditions, average rainfall and river levels are misleading. Avoiding risks of crop failure and drought through storage and geographic mobility must be of paramount concern to cultivator and planner alike.

The constraints on settling new lands can undoubtedly be overcome through careful studies, the provision of water, and construction of roads. All of these activities are costly. The question is not whether new land is available, but how much will it cost to develop it? Experience to date indicates that both irrigated perimeters and mechanized farming approaches to new land development in Somalia are costly per household settled and are difficult to justify on purely economic grounds as well.

It can be taken as axiomatic that Somali agro-pastoralists and full-time cultivators have, through experimentation, accumulated a detailed knowledge of their local environment and its resource potential. They have occupied the lands best suited to their needs. It is unlikely that there are large amounts of high potential land that can be brought under cultivation with traditional technologies in the inhabited areas of the interriverine area.

The answer to the second question is negative -- there are no lands in Somalia where pastoralists or cultivators do not already have long-established rights. It is evident from the cases in the previous section that, through the law does not recognize these rights, local people are prepared to defend them with vigor. It is also evident that district and regional government must give de facto, though not de jure, recognition to these traditional claims, as well. The degree of recognition varies with the strength of the traditional group in question. Marginal groups, such as riverine villagers, refugees, and perhaps former clients, fare less well than others in the dispute settlement process.

The question of whether a lease can guarantee access to land is thus problematic. The answer depends on the political and economic resources of the leaseholder, relative to that of other claimants. A highly capitalized settlement project or private farm is unlikely to experience problems, once land development has commenced. Marginal groups, such as refugees, are at greater risk of being challenged.

If land is to be secured for project-related or settlement purposes, it is essential that the claims of local inhabitants be fully investigated and that resources be made available to them, if necessary, to reach an equitable agreement.

Any refugee settlements project should include funding for technical assistance with three objectives:

- Increasing the capacity of the district and regional agricultural coordinators to comply with existing registration procedures;
- Educating local groups and refugee settlers about their rights and the procedures required to secure them; and
- Increasing capacity of these groups to register their land and defend their rights.

The project should also provide funding and appropriate technical assistance for a study of land tenure issues in the district(s) or region(s) concerned. The objective of the study should be to clarify the way different kinds of individuals and groups obtain access to land, water, and other resources, such as fuelwood; how their access is affected by developments within and beyond the project area; and how planners and administrators can best take account of local residents' needs and interests. The conceptual framework of the study should be grounded in the issues raised in this preliminary analysis. More detailed scopes of work should be prepared after project implementation sites have been selected.

The study should be based on a combination of in-depth participant-observer and survey methods. It is especially critical that these be designed so as to capture the far-flung residential and income-generating strategies typical of somali households. The study should be moderate in cost (\$50,000), realistic in its approach, and centered on policy, rather than on disciplinary objectives. It should be undertaken in the initial phase of project implementation and should be designed to engage the active interest and participation of local government officials.

276-

PART III

SECTOR ORIENTED PRESENTATIONS

TECHNICAL PAPERS

23 JUNE 1985

NOTES ON THE ESTABLISHMENT OF  
DISTRICT PROGRAMME COORDINATORS: A PROPOSAL

Dr. Yusuf Hersi  
Coordinator, Northwest Integrated  
Social Development Program (NWISDP)

Background

- The Northwest Integrated Social Development Programme (NWISDP) was launched as a component of Somalia's rural development strategy for the decade 1981-1990 with its emphasis on multisectoral approaches, strengthening regional and local development oriented institutions, increased grass root participation, and the importance of monitoring and evaluation in rural development projects;
- The Ministry of Interior (previously the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development) has, since the beginning of the programme, had overall responsibility for the integration and mutual cooperation of the various sectors of the NWISDP through the office of the Coordinator, but has allowed great latitude in actual project implementation and supervision;
- Field activities and involvements of the NWISDP in most districts of the Northwestern Region are becoming firmly established;
- Participation and cooperation with the NWISDP by the local communities and the local authorities at the district level are becoming increasingly important;
- The Regional and District Development Committees (headed by the Governors and DCs, respectively) and other locally based organizations have, so far, played only a modest role in the NWISDP;
- An increasing body of information is being generated by NWISDP individual projects;
- The time is approaching when one should start assessing the impact and effect of the various programmes in term of the overall situation of women and children;

All these factors point towards a need to establish a body within the Ministry of Interior, capable of and responsible for long-term coordination, monitoring, and evaluation at the project level with most direct contact with the communities, i.e., the district level.

One proposes that this body should be composed of specially trained individuals, tentatively called District Programme Coordinators (DPCs), who would be based in the districts and would work under the supervision of the NWISDP Coordinator.

#### Functions of the District Programme Coordinator

- To be responsible for coordination and cooperation between the various NWISDP components at the district level;
- To report regularly on programme activities in the district to the NWISDP Coordinator, as well as other relevant developments (e.g., population movements, drought conditions, refugee influx, etc.);
- To help coordinate the collection and processing of much of the data gathered in the communities by the programme components and to participate in the planning and implementation of social surveys, when required;
- To establish close contacts between community leaders and local government bodies (e.g., district officials, development committees, party officials, women's groups, etc.) with the aim of bringing the latter more directly in touch with community activities and problems;
- To be an integral part of the NWISDP team as the Ministry of Interior's direct representatives on the district level while cooperating fully with the representatives from other ministries.

#### Base

- The DPCs shall be selected from candidates nominated by the Ministry of the Interior through the District Commissioners and become part of the NWISDP staff;
- The DPCs shall be empowered directly by their Ministry to request that consultations be held between any parties involved in rural development on the district level and to have full access to the Ministry's facilities in the district;
- If possible, they shall be given space and be physically based in the office of the district team in order to keep up-to-date on development in the field and the contribute to the integration of the programme on the district level;
- The DPCs shall, as far as possible, coordinate any travel in the field with that of the PHC district team according to its regular field visit schedule, while any other travel will have to be arranged through the offices of the local authorities or by the coordinator's office;

- Within the NWISDP, the DPCs shall be chair of the District Coordination Committees (composed of themselves, the DMOs, District Sanitarians, and WDA District Officers), and report directly to the Coordinator;

#### Financing

- The salaries of the DPC shall come from the Ministry of Interior where they are already employed;
- Incentives, DSA, stationery, supplies, etc., are to be provided through the budget of the Coordinator's Office.

#### Training

- The DPCs will have to undergo extensive training, planned to take place in two phases in the first instance, with training courses in Hargeisa, partly in conjunction with the PHC district team;
- Formal training will be accompanied with extensive on-the-job training, including a short 'apprenticeship' period with the PHC district team in order to become closely acquainted with the field activities of the NWISDP;
- The training will be organized by the UNICEF monitoring and evaluation officer in collaboration with the NWISDP coordinator and staff from the various projects;
- A training aid or manual will be prepared and further developed into a handbook for future reference for the DPCs;
- The training course and the training manual/handbook will be written in the Somali language.

#### Tentative work schedule (only in relation to the DPCs)

- February 85: - Presentation of background papers on the establishment of the DPCs to the various NWISDP components for comment and discussion
- March 85: - Beginning of translation of teaching material  
- Final revision of background paper on the establishment of DPCs  
- Consultations about the DPCs in Mogadishu with UNICEF and the Ministry of Interior (NWISDP Coordinator)  
- Continued selection and translation of teaching material
- April/May 85: - Nomination of DPC candidates by the district authorities in Berbera, Hargeisa, Gabiley, and Boorama  
- Interviewing of candidates and selection of DPCs  
- Further collection of teaching material and consultations in Mogadishu (Monitoring & Evaluation Officer)

- Final preparation of teaching material and manual
- June 85: - First DPC training course, 3 weeks (Hargeisa)
- Jul/Sept.85: - First work period of the DPCs, on-the-job training  
- Revision of training manual into a handbook
- October 85: - Second DPC training course, 2 weeks (Hargeisa), possibly with the assistance of someone from UNICER/ESARO

Outline of a tentative job-description for the DPCs

1.) Coordination

- Keep in constant touch with all NWISDP activities in the district and encourage common action by two or more projects when possible;
- Exchange information with and keep up-to-date with the activities of other ministries and agencies engaged in rural development in the district (e.g., NWRADP, NRA, Min. of Education, etc.) in order to try to integrate relevant activities with the regular work of the NWISDP;

2.) Monitoring

- In cooperation with PHC, process and analyze on a regular basis data gathered by CHWs (e.g., epidemiological, rainfall, market prices, etc.) and help detect and rectify any perceived irregularities or shortcomings in the data flow or quality of information generated;
- Help initiate any corrective actions on the basis of the data received;
- Try to assess the immediate impact of project activities through analysis of incoming data and field reports, interaction with the staff of the various programme components, and occasional field visits;
- Keep up-to-date files on each programme assisted community in the district, including the upgrading of community maps indicating satellites, water sources, roads, tracks, settlement patterns, etc.;
- In cooperation with the various project components, undertake surveys of communities whenever necessary to assess the feasibility or impact of certain project activities or at the request of the NWISDP Coordinator;
- Keep well informed about any factors or events affecting the demography or welfare of the community (e.g., seasonal migration, food shortages, drought) and report on any imminent crises;

3.) Community participation

- Become acquainted with the leadership of the communities and keep up-to-date with any changes in the leadership;
- In cooperation with other NWISDP components, identify channels within the communities best suited for the delivery of the "software" of the various projects;

- Enlist the full support of district officials such as the DC, the Mayor, District Party Secretary, etc. for encouraging the communities in participating in the activities of NWISDP and establish two-way communication channels between the communities and the district authorities;
- Establish links between the communities and the district based organizations such as the development committees, family life centres, women's organizations, etc., for the further strengthening of community participation in the various project activities.

4.) Other activities

- Give direct assistance to the various NWISDP components whenever required and possible;
- Relay immediate information from the communities to the district and regional authorities about matters requiring urgent attention (e.g., outbreak of animal epidemics, school closures due to lack of teachers, etc.);
- Enlist the support of district authorities, if needed, to help solving conflict situations within the communities which affect the progress of the NWISDP.

TECHNICAL PAPERS

NATIONAL RANGE AGENCY PROJECTS

Dr. Abdullahi A. Karani

General Manager - National Range Agency

(For presentation at the Seminar on Relationships of Somalia Government  
Agencies in Rural Development - 24 June 1985, Mogadishu)

I want to take this opportunity to give you a brief description of the current project work taking place in Somalia under the jurisdiction of the National Range Agency (NRA); there are also several other projects in the pipeline which we hope will soon be operational. Other officers in our organization, mostly the Department Directors such as the departments of Range, Forestry, Wildlife, Administration, Personnel, and Transportation, will brief you on their activities later on in the seminar.

First some background on the National Range Agency - It was created as an autonomous agency within the Ministry of Livestock, Forestry and Range by Law No. 23 of 16 August 1976. Other legislation which authorizes or directs NRA to manage and develop Somalia's rangelands are Law No. 68 of 20 October 1970 on Forestry, Range, and Wildlife, and Law No. 3 of 4 February 1979 decreed as the Range Development Act.

NRA was created to design and implement a national range development and management strategy. It is authorized and directed to (a) design and implement range developments and management plans, (b) establish grazing and famine reserves, (c) develop fodder production, (d) carry out stockwater development,

(e) promote the organization and function of livestock owner groups (Range Livestock Associations - RLA's) and (f) survey, map, and analyze the rangeland and its resources. It is also authorized to create forest reserves, to control the use of forest plants and other plant species to achieve more efficient utilization) and to control hunting of wild animal and the sale of their products.

The NRA is headed by the General Manager with his headquarter office being divided into seven functional departments (each headed by a Director): General Administration; Personnel; Transport; Range Environment; Forestry; Wildlife; and Research, Training, and Planning. In the field NRA has eighteen regional offices, each under a Regional Director responsible for coordination with local authorities and other government agencies. In areas where development projects are being implemented, technical management is carried out by District Range Officers in charge of all activities in each district.

#### Major development projects

Northern Rangelands Development Project - This project was planned by the World Bank, funded mostly by the Kuwait Fund and was executed by FAO in 1976. It was to run for a five year period but was reviewed and modified in 1979 and will terminate at the end of this month (June 1985). It covered the regions most affected by drought at its inception and provided for equipment, transport, operating funds and technical assistance personnel to carry out the following:

- subdivide regions into seasonal and drought grazing reserves;
- establish two fodder farms in each district;
- develop stockwater structures as required by a range management plan;
- provide non-formal education to pastoralists in support of management;

- expand the training at the Burao Range School and develop a range management course at the Afgoi Secondary School;
- expand the veterinary services in the NRDP area.

These objectives have been largely achieved as the project draws to a close.

Central Rangelands Development Project - This project was also planned by the World Bank and was patterned to some extent on the NRDP (above). It actually started in 1980 and was due to be finished in June of 1986. However, major modifications in design and management in 1984 led to its extension by the donors until 1988. These donors (IDA/IFAD, USAID, GTZ, WFP, and the Somali Government) jointly financed and executed the project which covers the three priority districts in the Mudug, Galgadud, and Hiran regions. The project provides equipment transport, operating funds and technical assistance personnel for the following:

- range development, including grazing reserves, boreholes, access tracks, personnel housing, offices and workshops, and NRA field services;
- range studies and trials, including grazing systems and improvements, a forage laboratory, aerial and ground surveys, and mapping and range vegetation analysis;
- strengthening the NRA Headquarters: range monitoring unit, borehole drilling and maintenance unit, a central workshop for vehicle maintenance and support in administrative functions;
- training: non-formal education of staff and pastoralists, formation and guidance of grazing association, formal training at Somalia National University and overseas scholarships.

Rural Reservoir (water) Rehabilitation - This is a project to rehabilitate 33 of 40 earthen reservoirs with a capacity of 20,000 - 25,000 M<sup>3</sup> each of water storage in the Lower Shabelle, Middle Juba, and Bay Regions - which were originally constructed by the European Development Fund during 1976-1979. The current funding is from the UNCDF, Italian Government, and Somali Government. The NRA has been given the responsibility of rehabilitating, operating, and maintaining these reservoirs. The work began in 1982 and at this time there have been the following accomplishments:

- Construction of a workshop and the establishment of repair and maintenance facilities in Mogadishu;
- rehabilitation of earthworks at 10 reservoirs;
- rehabilitation of water distribution systems at 11 reservoirs;
- training of 100 water attendants, mechanics, operators, drivers, and other technicians;
- completion of a project document on livestock development and range management on three pilot reservoirs, one in each of the regions.

Sand Dune Stabilization Projects - There are three types of sand dunes in Somalia and there are current stabilization efforts in each: (a) the white colored coastal dunes. An example is the project at Brava where 1500 ha are to be treated in the three-year period of 1984-1986; this dune occupies an area of 200 km<sup>2</sup>. Another example is the Adale dune of an estimated 150 km<sup>2</sup> on which stabilization efforts are just beginning; (b) the old Red Sandridge area parallel to the coast of which the best example is the Shalambot dune covering an area of 780 km<sup>2</sup>; there are 1200 ha treated here in the three-year period of 1982-1984. This project is to be extended; (c) the Continental dunes which

normally occur in the interior. Current stabilization efforts on these dunes, which occupy several 100 km<sup>2</sup> are mostly in the Northern and Central Rangeland project areas, but only take place on a few 100 ha per year.

On On-Going Projects - There are many other projects currently being undertaken; most of these are related to the Forestry Development Program:

- Forestry Assistance to Headquarters
- Qorioley Forestry Program
- Jalalaqsi Reforestation Program
- Hiran Refugee Forestation Program
- Vita Fuelwood Testing Program
- Afgoi Forestry and Wildlife Training Center

Another project only just completed is the Inventory of the Southern Rangelands; this is expected to provide the basis for additional projects in that part of Somalia.

Further, there are several additional projects in the pipeline which are expected to be funded in the near future:

- community/village Forestry Pilot Program;
- strengthening of Forestry Department and Intensification of sand fixation activities;
- fuelwood and charcoal production in rural areas;
- water arresting schemes;
- establishment of an Evaluation and Monitoring Unit in the Forestry Department.

TECHNICAL PAPERS

FOOD LOSSES IN POST-HARVEST SYSTEM AND  
SUGGESTED GUIDELINES FOR THEIR ASSESSMENT

by

Abdul H. Qureshi

Acting Representative of the Food and Agriculture  
Organization of the United Nations in the  
Democratic Republic of Somalia, Mogadishu.

## Introduction

The United Nations General Assembly, in 1975, concerned with increasing world food supply in the face of increasing population, especially in the developing countries, called for a 50 percent reduction in overall food losses by 1985 and beyond. In the tropics and subtropics, about 70 developing nations with a combined population of over 2000 million are increasing in population each year. The need to prevent food losses is therefore a major FAO priority. Continued progress towards prevention of food losses, both quantitatively and qualitatively, could save many lives throughout the developing world.

The Report Committee on Food Security, constituted by the Government of India, indicated in their interim report that post harvest loss is 9.3 percent of total production, of which the losses in storage due to rodents, birds, insects, and moisture are 2.5, 0.85, 2.55, and 0.48 percent respectively; the total being 6.5 percent. Padua (1977) estimated losses of rice at different stages of post harvest management as:

<u>Function</u>	<u>Percent range of loss</u>
Harvesting	1 to 3
Handling	2 to 7
Threshing	2 to 6
Drying	1 to 5
Storage	2 to 6
Milling	2 to 10

Loss assessment is essential in determining future food requirements. Reliable information could be collected as some techniques for measuring losses, especially for food grains, exist. In many cases, however, it may be

impossible to make precise and scientific estimates as sophisticated methods may be difficult to apply. Nonetheless, loss assessments in a given local setting may be carried out in a way that the methodology is meaningful, economical, and suitable to the socioeconomical structure of the area.

### Factors Contributing to Post-Harvest Losses

Post harvest losses pass through a number of stages through which the food grain is channeled. How, why, and where the losses occur include:

1. Losses due to shattering of grain at harvest in the field;
2. Losses at the time of threshing where some grain may spillover, be eaten by birds, be swept away by wind, or be left over on the stalk unthreshed or even crushed during threshing process;
3. Losses during transportation of crops from field to threshing floor, to the farmers stores or wholesalers' store, and eventually to retailers. Such losses may be due to poor transportation systems which may not protect against adverse weather conditions, or poor quality containers, or bags with loose stitching. Some transporters carry grain bags and animals in their big lorries. The livestock not only eat out of the grain bags but contaminate the grain with their urine and droppings;
4. Losses may occur at drying and processing points;
5. Most critical of the losses of food grains is in the storage system, whether at the farm or traders premises; or government warehouses or even in the residential store of the consumer.

Losses in storage result from several factors:

1. Nutritive and other chemical and biochemical changes emanating from poor storage conditions may result in deterioration of nutritive parts of the grain. For example, loss of vitamins, carbohydrates, and fats is one major problem. Chemical changes also bring about increased rancidity. Discoloration may also be brought about by certain metabolites of some of the micro-organisms;
2. Growth of micro-organisms may cause foul odors due to bacterial activity and may produce toxic material as one of their metabolic products. Mycotoxins, produced by Aspergillus and Fusarium species, are well known examples. Discoloration, increased heat production, and caking due to microbial activity is not uncommon under poor storage conditions, sometimes resulting in complete deterioration of grain;

3. Insects are major sources of losses in food grains as they have the potential to increase in multiple proportions in a few weeks time and grow at the expense of the grains. Insect infestations may also produce increased heat within grain masses and may pose hazards;
4. Losses due to rodent infestation in warehouses rank second to insect infestation. Rodents damage standing crops and stored grain as well. They eat whole grains, produce litter, and contaminate grain with their excreta, urine, and hair. Such contaminated food may also contain some ectoparasites, rendering the grain unhealthy for human consumption and unacceptable for the international market. Rodents gnaw holes in jute bags, polypropylene bags, and other synthetic containers creating conditions for spillage of grains and rendering containers beyond repair. Rodents are well known to transmit diseases, some fatal to humans;
5. Careless stacking of bags in warehouses makes periodic inspection and fumigation under gas-proof sheets difficult. Under such a situation, insect control may be delayed or omitted, resulting in further loss of grain;
6. Leaky roofs of warehouses cause wetting of grain which may remain undetected and cause heating and rotting. Structurally defective warehouses may also allow the harbouring of birds, bats, and lizards which may also take a portion of grain, besides being a nuisance. Seepage of water through defective floors or splashes of rain through defective doors and ventilators may also take place;
7. Losses, though mostly qualitative, may occur during drying operations, especially if proper drying and handling techniques are not observed;
3. Losses during processing can't be overlooked, especially in the processing of grain that requires shelling, milling, hulling, husking, and polishing;
9. Losses may also take place during packaging and handling.

### Harvest Losses

Improper harvesting usually results in losses up to five percent of the crop. Therefore better production techniques alone are not sufficient to solve the food problem. Attention must be paid to correct methods of harvesting. Assessment of correct time for harvesting is also necessary to avoid harvest losses. The grain should be just mature with a moisture content between 20-25 percent. Ruiz (1965) concluded that the average grain losses at different harvesting time were:

a-	1 week before maturity	: 0.77 percent
b-	at maturity	: 3.35 "
c-	1 week after maturity	: 5.63 "
d	2 weeks after maturity	: 8.64 "
e-	3 weeks after maturity	: 40.70 "
f-	5 weeks after maturity	: 60.46 "

From the above study, it is evident that timing of the harvest and moisture content are one of the fundamental and basic requirements to achieve minimum food losses. The above data may not be precisely applicable to some of the local conditions. But with proper local investigation, it is possible to obtain the optimum timing for harvesting.

In recent years, the problem of harvesting and threshing has become more acute because of the new short and high yielding varieties of most grain and cereals being introduced. This, together with increased use of pesticides and fertilizers, has resulted in double cropping or even more in some parts of the world. This causes harvesting so close to the planting that harvesting becomes a hastening affair and naturally creates difficulties, especially where traditional methods for harvesting are used. Johnson (1968) studied the labour requirements for rice production in the Philippines for both the single and the double cropped farms. His study indicated that while there was some surplus of labour during the slack period, a labour shortage occurred during the harvesting season, resulting in hastening of harvesting process.

#### Losses at Threshing

These losses occur either due to incomplete removal of grain or damage to the grain. In addition to spillage, feeding by visiting birds or even domesticated animals may take place. Losses also occur due to poor separation of grain during winnowing and cleaning processes. There are a few methods for

assessment of losses at the threshing floor, described in the literature. However, in my own view, the most practical are the ones described by Dandy and Harris, (1978).

### Losses During Drying

Drying is an important part of post harvest treatment of almost all the crops. The correct moisture removal at the correct temperature for the right length of time determine both the storability of durable crops as well as the quality of the end product in processing. Drying is essential for the reduction of moisture to a level at which the growth of micro-organisms is inhibited and the grain is in equilibrium with the relative humidity of the surrounding air. It requires careful handling of the crop during the treatment so that the nutrients are neither destroyed nor denatured. If used as seed, the grain's viability remains preserved; and if used for cooking, the aroma and the palatability are not affected.

For drying it is essential that the process should commence immediately after harvest as otherwise the grain will start deteriorating due to fungi and bacteria, etc. In developing countries the methods available to the farmers for drying grains are usually traditional which include a combination of air and sun drying although additional source of energy may have to be provided using local material such as firewood, rice husks, and dried twigs.

Drying is further complicated in that skill and extreme care by the farmer is essential. High yielding varieties are frequently harvested during rainy seasons and therefore require artificial drying. Such a situation may affect the farmer's ability to handle drying effectively. Losses in grain drying are two fold. First, it may happen at the drying yard through various agents, as already mentioned under threshing. Second, it may take place due to ineffective drying that may cause fungal growth or loss of quality of the grain during drying itself.

Qualitative losses may also result through destruction of certain vitamins and nutrient materials. High temperatures for drying of rice, for example, cause loss of thiamine content in addition to a high percentage of broken grain. Over-drying, after excessive exposure to the sun or other sources of heat, cause breakage and may inflict injury to the seed coat, bleaching, scorching, and discolouration of the grain. Such grain may not be acceptable in trade as well as being unpalatable. Too rapid drying at a high moisture content causes bursting or "case hardening" which results in quick drying of the grain surface leaving moisture sealed inside the grain. Such conditions will cause deterioration of grain. On the other hand, too slow drying induces microbial growth.

Assessment of losses during drying is relatively reliable, though time consuming, requiring equipment, techniques, and skillful handling. A simple method for measuring yard and sun drying includes two steps: first, to measure moisture content of the grain before and after drying, and second, to weigh the crop before and after drying.

Comparison of the above two recordings will provide an estimate of direct loss during drying. Losses due to fungal growth and other factors could be determined by taking a sample of grain and drying it more scientifically in the laboratory and comparing the end product of this sample with the one dried in normal ways. Dandy and Harris (1978) describe some methods of loss assessment, mostly based on the one that was used by TPI, the team in Malaysia:

1. Yard under sun
2. Batch (lister)
3. Continuous.

### Milling Losses

Losses during milling may be substantial. Losses in rice milling call for special attention. Here the losses are mainly due to defective milling equipment or careless handling. A number of rice mills were visited by the author during a preliminary survey for loss assessment in Java, Indonesia with the following observations:

1. Substantial amounts of powdered or crushed rice were passed into the bran; this could have been avoided by making certain adjustments in the milling equipment;
2. The percentage of broken and rounded grains appeared to be on the high side, which could be avoided;
3. High percentages of points of grain passed into the husks during the hulling process which in itself loses grain. Careful selection and maintenance of milling equipment can save much grain during milling operations. A modern milling system may include equipment such as precleaning machinery, usually fitted with appropriate types of sieves, aspiration devices, and separator shellers, husk and bran aspirators, paddy separators, rice whiteners, bran sifters, and graders in addition to ancillary equipment like elevators, conveyor systems, and the like. It is therefore evident that assessment in a modern mill may have to cover a wide range of inspection points for loss assessments. This will not only be a time consuming exercise but may result in interruption in the normal routine of mill workers. Such an exercise may therefore not be convenient for the millers.

### Losses in Transit

For all practical purpose losses in transit include all loss of grain at each transit point from the place of lifting the crop to the consumer's house. Losses at transit points are usually due to spillage, accidental wetting, and contamination. Assessment of such loss is time consuming and could be done by comparison of weight at the time of reception and at the time of discharge at the next point after allowing for moisture content differential.

The losses during transit could either be due to spillage of grain out of the bags or due to accidental wetting or weather conditions. It is therefore important that leak and spill-proof systems be used, especially where bulk transport is desired. One solution is to use only good quality, preferably new jute or polypropylene bags, properly stitched at not more than an inch gap between stitches.

Different agencies (farmers, traders, and wholesaler's) use various types of transport systems which may include bullock carts, tractor driven trailers, trucks, donkeys, and camels. For long distance, wagons and steamers may also be used. Methodologies for loss assessment may have to be adapted slightly for local conditions, but basic principles are similar. In multiple transport systems or where transshipment is involved from road transport to railroad to freighter, the exercise for loss assessment will have to be carried out at each transshipment before loading and after off-loading.

#### Losses in Storage

Losses during storage are the major source of all other post harvest losses as it is the store where grain is retained for longer periods, sometimes extending up to 3 to 4 years. The storage system, therefore, requires much greater care. It is not the duration of storage with which we are concerned but rather the optimum conditions which discourage growth of insects, micro-organisms, mites, birds, and rodent.

Insects alone are said to cause up to 50 percent of grain losses in storage. Some insect species like Trogoderma, Sitophilus and Callosobruchus may cause even greater losses. The optimum temperature and relative humidity for most insect reproduction are 30° C and between 70 - 90 percent respectively.

Such conditions are prevalent in many parts of Somalia. Normally insect population growth decreases with deviation from the above optimum conditions. It is, however, established that safety of stored grain from insect damage depends on proper management of temperature, moisture, and oxygen.

Manipulation of designs and selection of sites for storage construction can go a long way toward reduction of losses during storage. Deterioration of grain due to multiple factors is greater in hot and humid areas than in cool and dry areas. Topographic condition of storage sites may also help in safe grain storage. Stores constructed in low lying areas may be dangerous for long-term grain storage, especially in monsoon areas. Normally losses in storage may account for anything from 5 to 10 percent of the total grain harvest during a season, but losses up to 50 percent during storage are not uncommon.

Loss assessment in storage may cover the following areas:

1. losses due to insect and mite infestation;
2. losses due to fungal and bacterial growth;
3. losses due to rodents and birds;
4. losses due to accidental wetting;
5. losses due to improper dunnage material which may allow moisture movement from the floor to the first layer of bags;
6. losses due to poor management of stores which may include spillage during reception and evacuation of grain and use of improper containers;
7. use of defective or improper handling equipment.

The accuracy of food storage losses must depend on the technology used in collecting samples for loss assessment. Unfortunately if a methodology is available it may not be applicable to certain types of storage systems, making it impossible to draw a reliable sample for assessment. Food loss assessment may be plagued by the inverse relationship between extrapolation and accuracy.

as Adams (1976) points out, it is clearly impossible to avoid approximation in estimating storage losses of subsistence farmers unless it can be used within each village to check and weigh each removal of stored grain. Until much more research on loss assessment is undertaken by trained personnel, aggregate estimates will not be possible. Until such time, assessment by experienced observers can only be taken as estimates.

The agencies responsible for losses during storage have already been mentioned in the foregoing pages. It is not possible to mention individual methods to assess losses. Loss assessment in storage is, in itself, a comprehensive subject and therefore out of the scope of this paper.

#### General Consideration and Conclusions

Agricultural inspection and quality control techniques are the most important factors influencing the efficiency of assessment. In most areas and under many situations, it becomes impossible to draw a reliable and representative sample of produce, especially in places where sophisticated methods have yet to appear.

Many developing nations lack qualified personnel for verification of data collected by extension staff. Such conditions, however, should not prevent making observations through whatever methodologies available.

In a country with climatic, geographic, and socioeconomic variation, such as Somalia, surveys for loss assessment should be done as far as possible to obtain a correct picture of the situation. In fact, assessment of post-harvest losses, if confined to one season only, may not provide useful and meaningful data. There are seasonal variations and periodic cycles in pest activities. A minimum of one full year observations will be necessary, or, if possible, to extend loss assessment studies over a two year period.

Careful selection of storage sites, the designing of doors, ventilators, and roofs, and attention to structural design can eliminate attack by rodents, birds, and many of the flying insects. Storage hygiene, regular sweeping and disposal of sweepings, periodic insecticide sprays inside and out, placing of rat traps or rat bait trays at suitable places, and provision of suitable mesh on ventilators may help to keeping the infestation and cross-infestation at lower levels. Surveys for loss assessment could easily be integrated for such other useful information as pest distribution, which could also be economical.

By undertaking surveys on post harvest loss assessment and putting forward guidelines for prevention of food losses, one could offer great help to many millions of improvised people of the developing nations, especially where agricultural production is still the mainstay of rural livelihood systems.

References

1. Adams, J.M. 1976. A guide to the objective and reliable estimation of food losses in small scale farmers storage. Tropical Stored Products Information 32:5-12.
2. Dandy, D.A.V. and Harris, K.L. 1978. Post Harvest Grain Loss Assessment Methods, Am. Assoc. Cereal Chem. Chapter V:67-75.
3. Johnson, S. 1968. Terminal Report. General engineering and economic research portion of contact number AID/CSD - 834. IRRI, Los Banos, Laguna, Philippines.
4. Krishnamurthy, K. 1975. Post harvest losses in food grains. Bull Grain Technology 13 (1): 33-49.
5. Padau, Dante E. de. 1977. Rice post harvest problems in South East Asia. Paper presented at the Institute of Food Technology Annual Meeting, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA.
6. Ruiz, E. 1965. Harvest Losses of Palay Grains of BPI - 121 lowland rice variety at different levels of moisture content. Central Luzon State Univ. Sci. J.1(2).
7. U.S. Economic Service: Washington, D.C. 1966. The World Food Budget 1962 and 1966. Foreign Agricultural Economic Report No. 4.

-100-

PART IV

CONFERENCE RECOMMENDATIONS

Workshop One

AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, LIVESTOCK AND  
RURAL INDUSTRIES

SUMMARY

To begin Workshop One (Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries, and Rural Industries), we identified problems, making reference to the Strategy Paper (1981-1990) which has objectives to improve food production, social services, rural participation, and to reduce rural poverty. Given these facts, we discussed issues we thought important, keeping in mind government policies regarding this report. We then provided suggestions/recommendations needed, taking into consideration their priority as follows:

a. Agriculture Sector

Three major instruments of agricultural production are money, manpower, and material. Money in the form of credit readily available to the rural people is considered an extremely high priority. Every effort should be made to develop an effective credit system.

Research must result in practical, applicable information in a form readily usable by the rural people.

The expansion and improvement of agricultural extension services should be given high priority in order to accelerate modernisation of traditional agricultural practices.

Agricultural cooperatives should continue to receive emphasis in order to bring about the desired transformation to a market-oriented economy.

b. Fisheries Sector

Nutritional benefit from eating fish should be emphasised for all Somali people and ways created for improvement of fishermen's income, particularly through cooperatives capable of providing training, credit, marketing, and supply systems.

c. Livestock Sector

Because the livestock sector contributes approximately 80 percent of foreign exchange earnings, its importance should be emphasised by an

increased portion of available development funds. Pertinent to the development of the livestock sector is encouragement and formation of pastoral cooperatives for nomads.

All means should be explored to develop traditional, export, and new livestock markets through research and aggressive marketing including political persuasion.

d. Rural Industries Sector

Of high priority are development programmes which involve rural people, community decision-making, and local participation.

Group One urges Government to provide infrastructure facilities to improve transportation and communication at regional, district, and village levels.

Rural industries, particularly traditional industries, should be encouraged toward the creation of local employment opportunities. They should be aware of domestic as well as international demands. Training facilities should be provided by cooperatives or ministries and incorporate appropriate technologies.

Loans should be available to assure the acquisition of raw materials from abroad.

MAIN REPORT

Agriculture

Agricultural surveys and data collection should be conducted to enable policy makers, planners, trainers, and field personnel to identify priority needs of rural development. Components include:

- research units to expand technical and economic research into small farm systems, crops, and appropriate technology;
- participation at local levels to involve local people in planning, decision-making, and implementing their own projects;
- intensified field training directed toward the needs of local institutions;
- agricultural extension recommendations verified and disseminated in the field through the use of demonstration plots;
- improvement of traditional agricultural methods;

- alternative agricultural crops (vegetables, potatoes, fruit trees, spices, etc.);
- government subsidies for fertilizers to needy farmers;
- fuel resources provided during appropriate seasons;
- central storage of surplus food on regional, district, and village levels;
- construction of wind mills, since Somalia has abundant wind;
- national planning for water reservoirs on rivers to take advantage of surplus water;
- government facilities so that transportation and communication through regional, district, and village levels are possible;
- rural credit banks to encourage loans to needy farmers;
- effective group organisations such as farmers' associations and cooperatives;
- special attention to women's issues. Realising that women constitute the majority of the labour force in the food production sector, planners should give attention to programmes which incorporate women in the extension programmes of agriculture, livestock, and fisheries.

### Livestock

The livestock sector accounts for the majority of Somalia's GNP (including hides and skins), yet the national expenditure for this sector is lower in proportion than other sectors. Since this sector is the major revenue generator in Somalia (approximately 55 percent of the population depend on livestock), the government budget should reconsider the proportion of the total budget spent on it.

Government planning should focus on long-term activities in livestock and consider the following:

- a. international preference as well as market demand for Somali livestock;
- b. political actions on issues jeopardizing the Somali livestock export market;

- animal production, including poultry, expanded to satisfy both domestic and international needs;
- pastoral cooperatives encouraged in the nomadic sector;
- cottage industries to make cheese, butter, etc. within suitable areas;
- veterinary medicine supply in free market owned by independent individuals;
- team workers to assist in creating rangeland;
- butane gas as a source of cooking fuel.

### Fisheries

The nutritional benefits of fish consumption should be incorporated into the Somali educational system.

Fisherman should receive equitable compensation for their labour.

- facilitating the acquisition of inputs and supply materials;
- creating international and domestic market demand for fish;
- improving infrastructural facilities;
- providing social services including education, health care, water, etc.;
- establishing fish processing modules.

### Rural Industries

Problems facing rural industries include acquiring raw material from abroad and shortage of well trained management and artisan personnel. Programs should:

- encourage more traditional rural industries;
- orient toward employment opportunities;
- link to international market demands;

- provide training facilities through cooperatives and ministries;
- incorporate appropriate technologies;
- provide loan facilities and financial investment opportunities.

## PRIORITIES

### For Agriculture

Of the three major elements of agricultural production -- money, manpower, and material -- money in the form of readily available rural credit is considered an extremely high priority. Every effort should be made to develop an appropriate rural credit system.

The expansion and improvement of agricultural extension services should be given high priority in order to accelerate modernisation of traditional agricultural practices.

Agricultural cooperatives should continue to receive emphasis in order to bring about the desired transformation to a market oriented economy.

### For Livestock

Because the livestock sector contributes approximately 80 percent to earning of foreign exchange necessary to finance all development projects of Somalia, its importance should be emphasised by an increased portion of development funds available.

Pertinent to the development of the livestock sector is encouragement of pastoral cooperatives for nomads.

All avenues should be explored to develop export, traditional, and new livestock markets through research and aggressive marketing, including political persuasion.

For Fisheries

Nutritional benefit from eating fish should be emphasised to all Somali people and ways be created for improvement of fisheries income, particularly through cooperatives capable of providing training, credit, marketing, and supply services.

For Rural Industry

Rural industries, particularly those traditional industries, should be encouraged and oriented towards the creation of local employment opportunities. They should be aware of domestic as well as international demands. Training facilities should be provided by cooperatives or ministries to incorporate technologies. They should also be assisted through loans that will assure the acquiring of raw materials from abroad.

All research must result in practical applicable information in a form readily usable by the rural people.

Group One Workshop Participants

1.	Mohamed Ali Hurre	Chairman	USCM
2.	Abdullahi Mohamed	Vice-Chairman	Ministry of Agriculture
3.	Guenther Hertzher	Facilitator	German Agro Action
4.	Mariam A. McQaawane	Recorder	Ministry of National Planning
5.	Mohamed Dahir Sh. Nur	Assistant	USCM Planning Section
6.	Salim Haji Alio		National University
7.	Hassan Mohamed Hussein		Ministry of Interior
8.	Hussein Khalif Abdullahi		Ministry of Livestock
9.	Abdullahi Alabe Warsame		I.D.E.
10.	Yusuf Haji Barre		Min. of Jubba Valley
11.	Mursal Sharif Abdullahi		Min. of Livestock
12.	Abdurahman Hussein Issak		Sheikh Banana Coop.
13.	Ali Adan Hussein		Sheikh Banana Coop.
14.	Ahmed Ibrahim Jama		A.D.C.
15.	William Sonenson	Resource person	F.A.O. Consultant
16.	Don R. Aronson	Resource person	IIHACA International
17.	Ahmed Hassan Mohamed		Ministry of Industry
18.	Sayid Ahmed Sheekh		Ministry of Industry

Workshop Two

HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND INFRASTRUCTURE

Summary

This workshop has dealt in considerable depth with the following areas:

- a. Health
- b. Education
- c. Communication
- d. Transportation

The workshop, in trying to develop proposals and recommendations, has followed the current rural development strategy paper and, indeed, has been using it as a base to develop the following recommendations:

- a. Health
  - i. upgrade the competency of the local traditional practitioners, both in preventive and curative medicine;
  - ii. establish rural pharmacies;
  - iii. provide health services for all regions;
  - iv. urge graduates of the faculty of medicine to serve one year in rural areas.
- b. Education
  - i. encourage vocational training skills through adult education institutions;
  - ii. diversify education at both primary and secondary levels;
  - iii. decentralise and strengthen existing educational rural development institutions.
- c. Communication
  - i. establish SCB radios in every village;
  - ii. improve communication network facilities;

iii. expand postal services in rural areas because of increased literacy capabilities.

d. Transportation

- i. build feeder roads with local participation as important element;
- ii. facilitate coastal ports which are presently blocked from transport.

MAIN REPORT

Health

The old rural development strategy acknowledged need for preventive and curative health measures in rural communities. However, that recommendation was not fully adopted by the Ministry because of various socioeconomic constraints, i.e., finance. As a substitute, the Ministry of Health has established two health services (Primary Health Care and Community Health) which both provide health services to rural communities. Unfortunately, their effectiveness is not assessed but this group feels that the primary health care programme, because of its financing from different donors or PVO's, has no coordinated implementation methodology. A good example is that in some regions, like Jowhar, community health workers have been recruited while lacking in other regions, in order to provide health service to rural communities. The components that are worth addressing:

- manpower or medical personnel. As we all know, there were traditional practitioners giving medical services and also the community has great trust with them. In our efforts in community health service, equitable ways are needed to encourage practitioners;
- rural pharmacies facilitating health practitioners as well as health related services;

- training and implementation of specific health programmes to have a unified approach in all regions, (among the existing health programmes such as "PHC," and "CH");
- better coordination of projects, such as the T.B. project funded by Finland and run by Somali Nationals and also the vaccination project to control diseases dangerous to children;
- staff deployment to allow graduates from Faculty of Medicine to take one year national service in rural communities;
- community health training in the faculty of medicine to be upgraded to diploma level or to strengthen its present community health programme diploma which could be carried out by the nurses training institute.

### Education

The old strategy documents the government policy of providing primary education to all Somalis above age six. But what it lacks a means to make education relevant to community needs. Therefore, education needs:

- encouragement of vocational training skills through adult education;
- diversification of education at primary and secondary levels;
- decentralisation and strengthening of existing educational rural development institutions;
- creation of boarding schools for pastoral children;
- establishment of a committee to study educational problems in the rural areas which consists of ministries of education, health, agriculture, livestock, finance.

### Communication

The most widely-used and efficient systems of the present communications network is the police force, Ministry of Interior. Therefore, in order to improve communication between the rural community and government ministries, we recommend:

- establishment of SSB radios in every village;
- access for all agencies to that system;

- expanded to the rural areas.

### Transportation

Considerable numbers of the rural people are not yet reached for we have only 21,460 km accessible roads and feeder throughout the country (Report 1981). Since therefore, productivity requires transport of all types, we recommend:

- building of feeder roads with the help of the people (people's participation), self-help schemes, public works ministry, etc.;
- implementing a road tax to play an important role in financing new roads;
- facilitation of coastal ports which are now blocked from land transport.

Group Two Workshop Participants

1.	Mr. Farah Abokor Khayre	Chairman	SOMAC
2.	Mr. Hassan M. Omar	Vice Chairman	SNU
3.	Mr. Dahir Hassan Gutale	Vice Chairman	SNU
4.	Mr. Abdillahi Mohamed Omar		SNU
5.	Mr. M.H.SH. Mumin	Recorder	SDB
6.	Mr. M.Shire Max'ed	Recorder	SURERD
7.	Dr. Mohamoud Yahya		SIDAM
8.	Dr. Hussein M. Adam	Facilitator	SURERD

Workshop Three

ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT, FORESTRY, WATER, ENERGY,  
AND DROUGHT CONTINGENCY

SUMMARY

The working group met on 27 and 28 June 1985 and had long discussions on the current status of Somalia's rural development strategy and wide recommendations on the rural development strategy paper. The members of the group, having relevant expertise, were given responsibility to prepare recommendations within their sectors of expertise. The recommendations made by the different sectors were discussed and finalised. As a group, we tried to assess the stages of implementation of the recommendation of the strategy paper 1981-1990 up to the present and tried to identify areas where the strategy can be improved or modifications can be made in the recommendation. The group reviewed other relevant policy documents which mainly covered particular topics concerning the sectors of the working group. Besides, that group examined the recommendation of the previous national and international seminars and workshops held in Somalia.

The different sectors for the workshop came up with recommendations and ideas improving the existing strategy policy on rural development which included the coordination of various ministries involved in rural development. Recommendations and discussions focused on the need to set up background documents on various regions, modify the role of the ministry's activities in the regions, and monitor and collect basic data on environmental management, forestry, water resources, energy, and drought contingency. It was further considered necessary to modify the current methodology of resource development projects and to prepare legislation for institutions locally based and capable of multisectoral management of rural development.

In environmental management, it was suggested to focus on community and regional management of natural resources; in range management, to establish experimental plots in less favourable areas, to develop drought resistant fodder types, and to establish fodder banks and reserve grazing areas; in forestry, to grow multipurpose trees and encourage planting of shelter belts and wind breaks; in water, to establish a national water policy and appropriate water legislation; and in energy, to reactivate the National Alternative Energy Committee.

Drought management requires greater emphasis and a central data base. A monitoring system needs to be established with suitable machinery to cope with drought.

#### MAIN REPORT

Having reviewed the recommendations in Somalia's Rural Development Strategy (1981-1990), the group agrees that some of the main points therein are of particular relevance to the question of resource management. These include:

- the need to strengthen the overall data base and monitoring and evaluation activities;
- the recognition of the importance of multisectoral and integrated rural development projects;
- the emphasis on decentralization through the strengthening of regional and local administration as well as by encouraging community based development programmes.

The group feels, however, that while these recommendations are laudable and present the most appropriate approach to Somalia's rural development strategy, particularly in the field of resource utilization and management, there have been problems in implementation. In other words, the recommendations made

five years ago have, so far, had relatively little impact on the planning and execution of rural development projects. This is, on one hand, due to the fact that the recommendations have not been specific enough in some of the sub-sectors in the field of resource protection, utilisation, and management, and as a consequence, the group agreed that a new set of recommendations be proposed to better represent and deal with the problems and needs of each subsector.

On the other hand, the group recognised that some of the more general problems of implementation lie in the overall institutional arrangement and in the present legislation, or lack of it, in areas concerning rural development. Thus, the group also felt the need to make certain general recommendations regarding the overall institutional set up relevant to rural development.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

### General Strategies

1. Data Base: Reorganising data collection and the information flow
  - a. Central level:
    - establish sectoral data banks (e.g., a National Water Data Centre; a Centre for Drought Monitoring);
    - disseminate from the centre to the regions and districts (e.g., through regular bulletins and the establishment of a distribution network);
  - b. Local level:
    - establish of multisectoral regional data banks with an overall local focus (horizontal perspective);
    - train existing personnel within locally based agencies and programmes to perform and coordinate regular monitoring tasks;
2. Implementation: Locally managed rural development projects
  - reactivate regional and district rural development committees;

-transfer of some of the basic decision making and implementing authority in rural development projects to regional and district authorities and the communities themselves;

3. Funding, resource developmental projects

-set up, managing, and accounting for multisectoral development funds on the regional level which can more directly affect from the region and the communities;

-prioritize the availability of operational funds to ensure the perpetuation and continuity of existing programmes;

-allow for direct funding of community based projects by donors through regional and district governmental structures after clearance from central government;

4. Legislation: Institutionalising locally based and multisectoral management in rural development

-propose new legislation to give authority and autonomy to regional development committees and community management committees;

-establish national policies relevant to resource management (e.g., national water policy, energy policy, etc.), including appropriate licensing procedures (e.g., for drilling, irrigation, charcoal production, etc.);

-provide the necessary legislative structure for the direct transfer of funds to locally based development projects.

Sectoral Strategy Recommendations (Priorities)

1. Environmental Management

-include environmental impact considerations in the planning and implementation of rural development projects;

-prepare resource and environmental management guidelines to be required usually in rural development programmes;

-focus on community and regional management of natural resources;

-set up regional and national structures for the monitoring of the environment, with particular focus on the dangers of desertification;

-identify measures against acute desertification such as stabilising rapidly advancing sand dunes.

2. Range Management

- introduce measures to control grazing according to the carrying capacity of the range and manage the composition and size of herds accordingly;
- educate nomads in the necessity of such measures through locally based livestock and range association;
- establish protected fodder in areas with good grass growing potential and adequate rainfall;
- establish fodder banks and reserved grazing areas for dry seasons;
- cooperate with other relevant agencies in community development;

3. Forestry

- ensure local participation in the project design and management of forestry projects in order to respond to the actual felt needs of communities;
- supply communities through loans or donations with the equipment needed for forestry development;
- expand and encourage small community and privately managed nurseries;
- give priority to the growing of multipurpose trees (for e.g., both fuelwood and fodder), and encourage planting of shelter belts and wind breaks;
- conduct research into the feasibility and characteristics of indigenous and exotic species;
- collect seeds and establish certified distribution systems for good variety seed;
- ensure the long-term legal rights for the utilisation of community and individually based forestry plots;

4. Water

- recognise the need for development of rural water sources most appropriate to the conditions of various areas of the country;
- improve and rehabilitate existing but inefficient or unsafe water source facilities;
- maintain and rehabilitate the considerable inventory of heavy water equipment in the country;

-establish a national water policy and appropriate water legislation;

-expand and improve national water information through the establishment of a central data centre, periodic national water conferences, and comprehensive ground and surface water studies;

-make specific efforts to encourage and support local community involvement in water source development and maintenance;

-give specific attention to the problems of the water supply to rural areas and towns, particularly the domestic water supply;

5. Drought management contingency planning

-prepare comprehensive background documents for each region of the country with data on all aspects of the environment, infrastructure, communities, and services which are relevant for drought monitoring and response;

-establish regionally based structures utilising and training community and district based personnel to monitor basic drought indicators such as rainfall, population movement, food prices, morbidity, etc.;

-establish a central data and monitoring centre within the Ministry of Interior to which regional coordinators are to report and which will also coordinate drought response on a national level;

-prepare basic regional drought contingency plans for each region, by regional drought committees headed by the respective governor;

-follow the policies and recommendations of IGADD (Inter-Governmental Authority on Drought Development);

6. Energy

-focus energy sources and energy harnessing techniques appropriate for Somalia, particularly through the development and improvement of existing techniques, including the use of animal power;

-minimise dependence of imported funds through the development of techniques to harness wind and solar energy;

-give priority to water lifting energy requirements as water is the most fundamental need in rural areas;

-consider and use cost-effectiveness as well as sociocultural impacts when introducing new techniques to the communities;

- involve the communities as much as possible in the planning, implementation, and management of local energy and train them in the tasks;
- establish a national rural energy and appropriate technology research centre;
- support long-term household level national programmes such as cook-stove programmes towards the development of more energy efficient technologies;
- reactivate and vitalise the national Alternative Energy Committee.

Group III Workshop Participants

- |     |                            |                |  |
|-----|----------------------------|----------------|--|
| 1.  | Dr. B.D. Pathak            | Chairman       | UNDP                                     |
| 2.  | Abdillahi Abdirahman Ahmed | 1st V.Chairman | WDA - Water Sector                       |
| 3.  | Ali Hagi Warsame           | 2nd V.Chairman | NRA - Forestry and Environmental sector  |
| 4.  | Jan Haakonsen              | Facilitator    | UNICEF - Drought and Contingency sector  |
| 5.  | Mohamed Hassan Nur         |                | VITA - Energy Sector                     |
| 6.  | Mohamoud Abdi Deria        | Recorder       | SURERD - Recorder                        |
| 7.  | Desmond Mahony             |                | BCCD - Forestry Sector                   |
| 8.  | Abdillahi Issa Good        |                | Ministry of Jub. V. - Environ/Management |
| 9.  | R.J. Lock                  |                | WDA - Water Sector                       |
| 10. | Musa Elmi Ali              |                | SNU                                      |

Workshop Four

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS, PRIVATE VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS,  
AND PRIVATE SECTOR INITIATIVES

AGENDA

- I. Transition: Relief to Development
  - A. Long-term goals
  - B. Somalisation
- II. Project Cycle/Sustainability
  - A. Information Systems
  - B. Evaluation and monitoring
  - C. Funding
  - D. Public Relations
- III. Stakeholders: Government, NGO/PVO, Private Sector
- IV. Policy/Administrative Framework
  - A. Accountability
  - B. Evaluation and monitoring

OPERATIONAL STRATEGY FOR NGO PARTICIPATION IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

PREAMBLE

Since the Rural Development Strategy 1981-1990 was written, international Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) have emerged as new providers of services for small-scale rural groups. Although much of their activity began with work for refugees, both government and the NGO's have come to agree that previously established Somali communities are as much in need as refugees - both are in a struggle for survival.

NGO's, both Somali and international, have an important role to play in Somalia's rural development because:

1. they have high motivation to work in rural areas and to work in a community-to-community and people-to-people style;
2. the diversity of their approaches to project implementation responds to the diversity of the needs in the countryside;
3. their flexibility allows them to change and adapt as needs change and grow;
4. they are effective in assessing local needs and building the community base-line information that is necessary for adequate programs;
5. they are committed to animating the community to participate effectively in the development process; and
6. they are willing to assume greater risks to innovate new technology and techniques through experimentation that can be incorporated later into national planning, without tying up scarce governmental resources.

The transition from relief to effective participation can be made if issues are resolved in a mutually constructive strategy affecting underserved rural communities. The recommendations which follow are meant to encourage fuller development of this strategy in the absence of which the NGO's are unlikely to achieve a meaningful impact.

### The Transition From Relief to Development

The role of NGO's in Somalia is currently changing from relief forms of assistance organised under specialised crisis agencies to long-term forms of rural development activities. New organisations, both Somali and international, are entirely oriented to rural development. The following principles should be recognised if these activities are to contribute coherently to Somalia's rural development:

1. NGO activity must fit into the national development strategy. The government itself must play a role to ensure that NGO projects avoid duplication and work toward achieving ministerial goals and objectives. These activities should complement the government's activities by preparing and organising communities through education and training (pre- and in-service to participate effectively in the national development process);
2. ministries, both individually and in concert, should determine priority activities in which NGO's could play a role;
3. inter-ministerial/inter-agency monitoring, both by ministries and the NGO's themselves, must ensure that resources are allocated to accomplish these priorities;
4. in general, NGO's should develop country strategies that will guide them. A country plan should identify long-term objectives and means by which activities will continue once a given agency departs;
5. the goal of every international NGO activity should include a process for indigenisation by involving national staff and/or by the identification of Somali community groups and NGO's which can carry on.

### The NGO Project Cycle

If the development activities of NGOs are to be effective, attention needs to be paid at every step of the project cycle to local governmental and institutional contexts in which the NGO plans to work. This will involve:

1. local, district, and regional governments should prepare handbooks for their areas that include fundamental data inventories of local resources, guidelines for adaptive planning, and, most importantly, priority areas for NGO activity;
2. extreme care must be taken not to arouse expectations in local communities that cannot be met within a reasonable length of time;

3. in the longer run, communities themselves should be encouraged to write their own proposals;
4. indigenous NGO's, both those rooted in time-tested community processes and those that are local affiliates of national organizations, should be encouraged and trained to develop the capacity to assume leadership of NGO activities;
5. during project implementation, work styles must be adapted to local conditions and values and community dialogue needs to continue to ensure on-going project relevance and mid-project corrections;
6. maximum accountability to the local community must be ensured.

In short, the project cycle needs to ensure acceptability, adaptability to local circumstances, accessibility to continuing community participation, and accountability to the clients as well as to the sponsors.

#### NGO Coordination and Cooperation

A major obstacle to rural development has been the lack of an effective participatory bridge between local communities and provider agencies in the government. NGO's have the potential for assisting in the establishment of such a two-way process. There is a need for an on-going process of participatory evaluation at the community level which would be facilitated by NGO's in cooperation with government.

1. It is recommended that an appropriate coordinating unit be established for the purpose of implementing a system of participatory evaluation.
2. An information system should be established by NGO's to provide timely and relevant information on NGO projects.
3. Both participatory evaluation and information systems should provide an effective base for policy analysis and formulation at local, district, regional, and national levels.
4. In addition to Association of Voluntary Agencies in Somalia (AVAS), which is the organisation that represents the collective needs of the NGO community to government, there should be founded an Association on Rural Development as a forum for all professionals in Somali rural development work to come together to discuss rural development issues.

The multiplicity of NGO's can be a hindrance to their own effectiveness. This can happen because NGO's divert energy to satisfying sponsor demands, for documentation, supervisory visits, and project publicity. A way to avoid these dangers is to hold an annual conference bringing together NGO donors, implementers, and government officials (parallel to donor conferences held by government with bilateral and multilateral donor agencies). Such conferences can preserve NGO's distinctiveness, yet also increase total NGO donor funding levels.

#### NGO Relationship to Other Rural Development Interests

NGO's recognise that there are many parties interested in Somali rural development activities. The Somali private sector can provide services to NGO's that include: representation on project design and review, integration of Somali resources, and research and consultancy expertise.

1. NGO's should normally not, for example, compete with the private sector to provide services to local communities.
2. In doing community work, NGO's can creatively cross ministerial lines, but they must respect ministerial authority and can often take advantage of existing ministry activities to further their work. For example, programs in adult education and in women's skills development could be the agents for publicising of or training people in NGO techniques and programs.
3. One way to see NGO activity is in small-scale experimentation in developing ideas and methods. NGO's should seek forums within their ministries to demonstrate their achievements and foster dialogue on sector strategies and methods.
4. Historically, there have been tensions between NGO's and larger donor organisations over style and method. In Somalia, each side should recognise the strengths of the other and complement the other's activities whenever possible. There is a need to give special consideration to unintended effects of NGO and official donor collaborative activities.

### Policy/Administrative Framework for NGO Activities

Until now, international NGO activity has been officially organised through registration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the National Refugee Commission, and any sectoral ministry relevant to NGO project in question. As NGO programs move toward development, the overall government policies toward the role of NGO's in the total development effort should be clarified.

Present procedures for the recognition and registration of NGO's are cumbersome and time-consuming. For Somali NGO's, the procedures involve approvals from the Ministry of Interior, the public notaries, the courts, and the Attorney General's office under the general authority of Article 59 of the Civil Law. International NGO's similarly face multiple levels of permissions required for their activities. The work of NGO's would be facilitated in a simpler, speedier, and more routine set of procedures for getting started and becoming established. As well, NGO country offices should have fuller decision-making authority vis-a-vis any of the home offices abroad.

### Conclusion

It should be emphasised that there is a need for increased cooperation among government, international NGO's, and the Somali private sector focused upon community-based rural development. In particular, there is a need to nurture the growth of Somali NGO's and to maximise opportunities for indigenisation in international NGO programs.

Group Four Workshop Participants

1. Chairman, Nur Abby Hussein DOLCO, Inc.
2. Facilitator, Jag Chaudhary Action Aid
3. Dan Aronson UNDP
4. Andrew Stanley Ex. International L.
5. Abdirahman Artan SOMAC
6. Bianca Denfeld GTZ
7. Mohamed Hassan Farah SURERD
8. Kate Galt New College of the Univ. of South Florida
9. Patricia Hogan American Friends Service Comm.
10. Ahmed Liban Ahmed Community Aid Abroad
11. Alhadji K. Sanneh ANREF
12. Ahmed H. Deria Min. of Interior
13. Norman Praither (part time) World Concern
14. Andy Sisson (part time) USAID

## Workshop Five

### RESETTLEMENT

Resettlement, often organised by religious communities, has a long and impressive history in Somalia. It is clear that settlement will continue to play an important role in Somalia's rural development.

Periodic drought and population increase require the development and settlement of new lands. In addition, the persisting pressure of large numbers of political refugees who wish to remain in Somalia adds urgency to the task.

The Rural Development Strategy (1981-1990) focused on the prospects of the agricultural settlements, under the authority and direction of the Settlement Development Agency (SDA), and fishing settlements coordinated by the Coastal Development Project (CDP). Future settlement policy should, therefore, be based on the valuable experience of the SDA and CDP, as well as the experiences of settlement in other countries. As a consequence of the 1973/1974 drought, 120,000 nomads were settled in three agricultural settlements and several fishing villages. Of the original settlers, many have returned to the rangelands.

The agricultural settlements were initially organised as state farms, employing the settlers as labourers, and were expected to assist in the building of the required infrastructure. Ultimately, the settlements were to share in any profits realised. Of the original three settlements, Sablaale and Kurtun Warey are presently operational.

It is clear from various studies conducted at the agricultural settlements that the SDA should be commended for providing adequate and necessary services under an emergency situation and in providing the agricultural settlements with excellent health and educational facilities.

However, basic constraints to the settlement's long-term stability remain.

These constraints include:

1. an inadequate irrigation system;
2. an underdeveloped technical infrastructure;
3. a continuing reliance on food provision which has created a disincentive to the settlement's economic and social growth;
4. continuing high operation and capital costs;

The SDA is presently in the process of correcting many of these constraints.

In light of these findings, it can be concluded that:

1. The SDA has played a vital role in responding to the unanticipated drought crisis;
2. The SDA has provided excellent social services to settlers;
3. The SDA has made a number of changes in its policies that are beginning to address several technical and economic problems.

In light of the past planned settlement experiences in Somalia and elsewhere in the world, the following principles are recommended to guide any future settlement strategies:

1. to the greatest extent possible, local groups should participate throughout the decision-making process as soon as potential sites have been identified, based on the maximum information available;
2. to the greatest extent possible, settlers should participate in decisions concerning the location in which they are to settle and the manner in which their community is to be organised;
3. settlement, including settlement of refugees, should be seen as a component of the overall rural development strategy;
4. local groups should benefit equitably from whatever new services that are made available by the settlement process;
5. to the extent feasible, planning and public sector administration should be decentralised and should be a function of and reinforce existing local government and civic bodies;
6. settlement, ideally, should be low cost and minimally assisted to promote self-reliance;

7. settlers must be assured of secure access to the resources that they help to develop;
8. settlement should be implemented through a variety of mechanisms including public and private sectors;
9. a wide range of income generating and entrepreneurial activities should be encouraged in settlement areas;
10. settlements should be encouraged to become economically self-reliant as quickly as possible.

Group Five Workshop Participants

- |     |                        |          |                             |
|-----|------------------------|----------|-----------------------------|
| 1.  | Abdi Ahmed Osman       |          | HAQABTIR                    |
| 2.  | Norman Prather         |          | World Concern               |
| 3.  | Norris Norduold        |          | USAID                       |
| 4.  | George T. McCloskey    |          | USAID                       |
| 5.  | Scott Coverdale        |          | Mennonite Central Committee |
| 6.  | Rita Hirsch            |          | American Embassy            |
| 7.  | Allan Hoben            |          | Boston University           |
| 8.  | Amina Sharif Hassan    |          | Settlement Dev. Agency      |
| 9.  | Hassan Mohamoud Sabrie |          | Mogadishu Local Government  |
| 10. | Bill Tunstall          |          | Somali Academy              |
| 11. | Anwar H. Awad          |          | Oxfam UK                    |
| 12. | Abdi Abdillahi Hussein |          | Save the Children (USA)     |
| 13. | Yusuf Hassan Dhunkal   |          | NRC                         |
| 14. | Tom Dart               | Recorder | Clark University            |
| 15. | Naima Ali Hasci        |          | SAIS Johns Hopkins Univ.    |

## Workshop Six

### COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND RURAL WOMEN

#### SUMMARY

The workshop fully endorses the objectives of the 1981-1990 rural development strategy for Somalia in regard to community participation and rural women. In the past five years, there has been progress in fostering cooperatives, self-help and women's groups, as well as collecting data on economic and social patterns in the rural areas. Nevertheless, tasks are large and progress in implementing programs and projects is slow. Therefore, the workshop makes the following recommendations.

#### Community Participation

##### Priorities

communities should make their own decisions, including identifying priorities and planning ways to address them;

those involved in organizing interventions in rural areas should serve as catalysts, facilitating community efforts to identify and address problems. A mandate is sought from the ministries in this regard;

work should be conducted through the existing structures with people of status in the communities, who can persuade others of the value of the project.

efforts should be made to build commitment to rural welfare on the part of the local community and facilitating officials.

#### Strategy

rural development officers: Regional and district rural development officers should be introduced, over time, to implement the strategy priorities;

national service: National service should be introduced into rural development. A portion of entrants to the National Service should be trained as community workers and given basic knowledge in a number of areas of importance to rural development. Key ministries would be involved in formulating the training program, which would last 2-3 months and would

precede a service of 18 months. Based on the model of the literacy campaign, the National Service community workers would be involved in rural community development areas such as reforestation, environmental health, communication skills, nutrition or water. These community workers would be responsible to the District Rural Development Officer, as recommended above, to be tested on a pilot basis and introduced slowly;

working party: A working party should be established to determine the feasibility of implementing the above recommendations and to clarify the details of these new structures.

### Rural Women

#### Priorities

women should be a focal point of any strategy for government programmes and research, not an afterthought;

fundamental to rural development is the increased participation of the rural population, particularly women, and their participation should be fostered;

community development within the national should be established and women selected to work with rural women in their areas of need.

support should be extended to the Women's Research Unit (SOMAC) to facilitate data collection and the establishment of a documentation centre on women in Somalia.

#### Strategy

whenever possible, existing organisations and institutions should be used to help women at the local level identify their needs. A precedent has been set by the Somali Women's Education Department;

to reach nomadic women, government and PVO's should work through existing structures where possible and identify or create mobile structures to reach them if necessary;

since it is easier and often more cost-effective to start programmes within settled communities, it is suggested that programmes be introduced in such communities which can then be used as disseminating points to reach nomadic communities;

emphasis should be placed on communications, particularly ways to communicate to nomadic women the services available to them;

in the long term, women's programme officers should be appointed to work with the rural development officer at the district level.

Central to Somalia's rural development strategy is the effort to involve rural people in the development process through participation in local level organisations and institutions. Such participation can foster community support, understanding, cooperation, and commitment, thereby increasing the effectiveness of development programs and projects.

Of particular importance are efforts to involve rural women in identifying specific programs and projects which would enable them to carry out their economic responsibilities more efficiently and which increase not only their personal well being but the welfare of all members of the household. Through their local groups and organisations, women can participate in decision-making processes, productive activities, and social welfare services. They can be more fully involved in processes which affect their social and economic well being, not only as beneficiaries but also as participants shaping these changes.

Following are recommendations of the workshop examining the Rural Development Strategy (1981-1990) and progress to date in regard to community participation and rural women.

#### COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION: BACKGROUND.

Community participation is a broad issue of prime relevance to all areas of development. It is a major resource within the developing economy and ample international evidence shows that where people participate in the design and planning as well as implementation of projects, success rates and benefits are often higher.

However, community participation is not only a means of mobilising resources, but also a vehicle for enhancing the dignity and skills of local people, as they take responsibility for their own development. This is an

essential but often forgotten aspect of development planning: willing participation is in itself a measure of project success.

In recent years, participation has been a much promoted and analysed aspect of international development literature and practice. The Somali Government's Crash Literacy programme of 1974 was a notable achievement in mobilising urban and educated sectors of the population to provide a service to the rural areas, and constitutes an early precedent in this field.

The Movement for Cooperatives and Trade Unions is institutional evidence of government concern to foster collective participation in its economic policy. These cooperatives, along with self-help projects, have, to varying degrees, maintained this tradition of self-reliance and local organisation in the principles of the nation's development plans.

### Record

Local participation is not a forgotten issue in many areas of sectoral planning, even where the mechanisms for achieving it have not been found. Awareness of the need for local participation has indeed grown over the past few years, if not always the practice. Here several currently proposed projects stand as evidence, in both the governmental and donor agency sectors.

Cooperatives are growing in number, and have been used to protect the interests and enhance the position of less privileged groups. Self-help projects have also proved an effective tool to address specific local needs such as the Merca sand dune fixation project shows.

### Problems, Issues and Constraints

The workshop fully endorsed what is stated in the 1979 Strategy Paper as a general approach of worthy objectives. However, the paper falls short in

failing to give any definitions of such terms as "self-help" and "participation." Such ambiguity reduces its value to policy-makers and the long-term effectiveness of any strategy. The need for some form of centralised planning has often, however, taken over responsibilities assumed traditionally by local people, decreasing self-reliance. Efforts to redress this imbalance can be facilitated by a clear understanding amongst policy-makers about what community participation actually means.

Although cooperatives have grown in number, they still involve a small percentage of the population. Furthermore, cooperatives do not necessarily address the needs of the poorest sectors. They can also create competition for resources and create situations in which poorer individuals find survival difficult.

Although self-help projects have effectively mobilised local communities, they are thin on the ground. In some cases, popularity might be enhanced by a more participatory approach in decision-making and planning, as well as in implementation of the project.

Much emphasis has been laid on the need for local participation in rural development, since these sectors have least access to resources and services. In fact, rural areas already participate fully in the productive economy, whereas urban areas more often consume the productivity of rural areas. Further ways of encouraging the tertiary sector to contribute to rural development could be explored.

Finally, commitment is a key requirement in development. An abundance of international literature suggests that commitment to development is greatest where the benefits are tangible to the participant. In this context, participation can best be fostered amongst rural populations and service providers

alike only to the extent that the benefits can be seen to be in their own best interests in both the short and long term.

### Recommendations

Four priorities have been identified in the process of encouraging rural development participation:

1. Communities should make their own decisions. This includes identifying their own priorities and needs and being involved in planning ways to address them;
2. Those involved in organising interventions in rural areas should serve as catalysts, facilitating communities to identify and address their priority needs;
3. Work should be conducted through the existing structures and with people of status in the communities. Similarly, local resources, both human and material, should be employed in preference to those from outside the community;
4. Efforts should be made to build commitment to rural welfare.

### Strategy:

#### Government Structures.

1. More responsibility should be given to government representatives at the regional and district level. A mandate should be issued to all ministries to allow greater responsibility and flexibility to representatives at those levels in planning and decision-making;
2. Regional and district level rural development officers should be introduced, over time, as a means to implement the strategy priorities;
3. National service should be introduced into rural development as a means to implement the strategy priorities. This could be developed on a one-year pilot project basis to be expanded over the long term.

The third strategy dealing with national service would involve a proportion of entrants being trained as community workers or facilitators to work at the village or nomadic group level. These would be limited in number, as the scale of the project should develop in proportion to the experience it gains. Training could be completed in a relatively brief period (6 weeks - 3 months)

and would give trainees a basic knowledge of areas of key importance to rural development at the local level.

Key ministries would be involved in formulating the training programme, particularly drawing on the knowledge of those departments now working in the area of participatory development (i.e., adult education and women's education). It would involve such areas as water, health, livestock and forestry, women's issues, communication skills, and methods of contacting local people, encouraging them to organise themselves effectively to address the problems they identify, administration skills for local people, etc.

Communities could be approached through the teachers of the Ministry of Education to inform them of the programme and encourage participation. Radio could be another effective way of communicating awareness of the programme.

Community workers would be closely supervised by regional and district rural development officers who would be further responsible to the Regional Committee for Community Development. As the development of the programme would be a slow process, clearly measurable indicators of achievement would be necessary to identify. Monitoring should be careful, but one should be wary of expecting too rapid results, as rapidity does not necessarily mean sustainability and impact.

### Feasibility

A working party/parties should be set up to investigate detailed means of implementing all the above recommendations. But in principal, financial support for these recommendations should be met in the following manner. Infrastructural support could be requested from international donor agencies. Any such materials should be chosen with particular concern for their local suitability and the level of recurrent costs they might incur. Recurrent costs (e.g., personnel) should be assumed by the government.

## RURAL WOMEN

### Background

Annex V of the Somalia's Rural Development Strategy 1981-1990 comments on the current situation and role of rural women in Somalia. It briefly details aspects relating to women before presenting recommendations pertinent to rural development and women's participation. Rather than repeat the information, we simply emphasise a few key points.

Rural women and their dependent children are the largest part of the population. Whether they be nomads, semi-nomads, or agriculturalists, women bear the brunt of the labour burden, at the same time having least access to resources. While recognising the rhetoric of this strategy as being worthwhile, its impact to date has been minimal. The following information and recommendations are additions to the present strategy, suggesting just a few key areas that can be emphasised, while recognising that time does not allow us to address fully all the problems.

### Record of Successes and Failures

The 1981 strategy paper focused on the following goals for rural women:

- gather baseline data;
- broaden training and extension to include women's roles in food production, processing, and marketing;
- promote women's groups;
- improve access to productive resources and public amenities.

There has been a growing awareness of the needs of rural women since 1981 and much research has been done in the area of women's issues. However, while the data are available, they are scattered throughout government departments and external agencies. There is also duplication of data.

There is need for wider access to and dissemination of this information. This would require a central document centre (the Women's Research Unit, or the National Library) to collate the existing data, to which copies of all research would be sent and from which information could be obtained. Furthermore, there should be built into project costs the translation of all documents into Somali.

While there has been considerable activity within women's organisations (but with some regional disparity) the same cannot be said for the other areas of concern. Because of the difficulties of access, rural women have had only limited entry to training opportunities or involvement with extension services. Also, while some women have seen their access to public amenities and productive resources improve, many have seen little change and some have seen their access deteriorate. It should also be noted that amenities are unevenly distributed.

There is, however, the potential for increasing assistance to rural women in acquiring skills and access to resources. The Women's Research Group on SOMAC has identified many governmental organisations and projects that are relevant to women. Some examples are (the list is not exhaustive):

MCH and other PHC activities	Ministry of Health, in conjunction with aid agencies
Family Life	WED
SWDO handicrafts	SWDO
Income generating projects	Haqabtir, Oxfam, Save the Children (US)
National wood stove project	VITA
Water supply in rural and district areas	WDA

Family Health Unit	USAID
Refugee enterprises development	NAC
Community forestry	Afgoi forestry school
Community literacy campaign	Adult Education Centre
Somali Health Care Association	IEC Unit/USAID/IPPF

Continuing Problems and Constraints

Priorities: We should not fall into the trap of identifying women's problems for them. Thus, any strategy should recognise the necessity to identify needs in a region and location in consultation with women. There are areas that relate to every woman's life but the priorities will differ from one region to the next:

Water

Food production

Energy and fuel

Health

Literacy

Skills training

Income generation

Organisations

Credit

Time-labour burden and appropriate technology

Problems that pertain to nomadic women were identified as follows:

Inaccessibility - This is related, on one level, to the mobile nature of their lifestyles (large distances covered and low levels of predictability in patterns of movement -- although nomadic groups do have points of maintenance for water, trade and supplies and possible health care, and the seasonal settlements of the "reer"). On the second level, it was related to the fact that males are the decision makers and access to a woman is through her male kin. A further implication of this is that working with women takes longer to be established.

Use of services by women cannot be guaranteed since they have an enormous labour burden and, thus, very little spare time. This requires programmes to be very flexible and mobile in some way.

Identification of target groups and distribution of resources. Nomads have confidence in those they trust and have built up relationships, which are usually with the nearby village. It is recognised that it is very difficult to work in the nomadic setting. Yet, at the same time, nomadic women are dying because of lack of access to certain resources. These resources should be placed as close to the nomads as possible. Therefore, resources should be invested in the settled areas and percolation of benefits to the nomads relied upon.

Income generation. Women have little or no income of their own although they are always involved, if not considered in, productive activities. This is a barrier to their making use of existing opportunities or fostering new ones. It is recommended that more NGO's be encouraged to undertake income generating projects where the initial costs may be high.

### Recommendations

#### Priorities:

- women should be a focal part of any strategy for government programmes and research;
- fundamental to the rural development process is increased participation in the decision making process;
- the goals of the existing strategy are sound but there is not much evidence of their being implemented. There is a need to examine ways in which this can be done;
- encourage the establishment of community development within the National Service Structure, and the selection of women to work with rural women in their areas of need;
- support to Women's Research Unit (SOMAC) to facilitate data collection.

#### Structure:

- wherever possible existing organisations and institutions be used to help women at the local level identify their needs. A precedent has been set by the Somali Women's Education Department;

- to reach nomadic women work through existing structures and where possible identify mobile structures to reach them.
- strengthen local coordination or organisations to maximise facilities and resources available.
- in the long-term: women's programme officers should be attached and work with the community development officer. This could be done through the existing structures working with women.

Method:

Comments pertaining to rural participation are equally valid here, with an emphasis on women:

- women make the decisions with a community worker acting as a catalyst to those details;
- use the existing women's organisations as far as possible. These should be flexible enough to make use of all opportunities for reaching nomadic women;
- it is easier and more effective to start programmes within settled communities and use these as disseminating points to the nomads;
- an emphasis should be given to ways of communicating to women the services and facilities available to them.

Group Six Workshop Participants

- |                         |                                     |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Sue Seldon           | Community Air Abroad<br>(Australia) |
| 2. Hassan Farah Warfa   |                                     |
| 3. Sue Reading Mahoney  | UNICEF                              |
| 4. Sahra Adan Dirie     | SWDO                                |
| 5. Amina Farah          | BOCD                                |
| 6. Frances Reiman       |                                     |
| 7. Amina Hersi Adan     | Family Health Care<br>Association   |
| 8. Saidia Muse          | SOMAC                               |
| 9. Barbara Thomas       | Clark University                    |
| 10. Kamar Osman Ibrahim | Haqabtir                            |

Workshop Seven  
TRAINING AND INSTITUTIONS

Recommendations

Workshop Seven, consisting of 22 individuals, discussed each of the issues noted below and came up with several recommendations related to the National Rural Development Strategy. The group concurred that both training and institutional development were among the greatest needs for the nation to advance rural development. For the most part, the workshop affirmed the main points contained in the 1979 strategy paper. The group's recommendations have tried to take into account what has changed since 1979 and why some of the original recommendations have not been implemented as rapidly or as fully as originally proposed.

1. National Committee on Rural Development

As rural development involves several sectors and many levels of action, coordination between and among several units and ministries is essential. We recommend, therefore, that the National Committee, as noted in Annex VI, page 2 of the Strategy Paper, be strengthened.

The workshop recommends that the Ministerial Committee on the technical coordinating committee meet at a minimum of three times a year. We further recommend that the Committee Secretariat be strengthened with a full-time staff member and appropriate administrative support in order to provide the executive and administrative services which this important committee requires.

We further recommend that the Technical Committee which currently supports the Ministerial Committee be strengthened. However, we need

additional technical information before making specific recommendations in this area. A follow-up committee will further look into it.

We recommend that three groups be added to the committee. This includes the Ministry of Mineral Water Development, the Ministry of Juba Valley Development, and the Union of the Somali Cooperative Movement.

2. Department of Planning and Rural Development and Rural Development Regional and District Offices

Rural Development Department and also Regional/District capabilities within the Ministry of Interior (noted as Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development in original Strategy Paper).

- a. Implementation and management of rural development requires greater strength in the regions and districts. We recommend that the Ministry of Interior's Department of Planning and Rural Development be given the means, as recommended on page 15 of the Strategy Paper, to carry out rural development. This can best be achieved by placing a rural development officer in each region and in as many districts as possible with a target of all districts having such an officer by three years from now.
- b. The workshop recommends establishing Rural Development Offices in those regions/districts not yet covered. The rural development officer should be responsible for initiating, reviewing, and recommending self-help programmes as well as for bringing together the different interests in the regions and districts. The rural development officers would also be a key element in furthering decentralised development planning and action, as noted below, and facilitating rural data collection on a routine basis.

The rural development officers would also work furthering the training and coordination of development animators, to be identified in as many villages and among as many nomadic groups as possible.

3. Decentralisation

The workshop endorsed the Strategy Paper's priority for decentralised development planning and action and further recommended the strengthening of legislation that would enable such decentralisation to take place, taking into account financial and human resources implications.

4. Popular Participation

The workshop re-endorsed participation in development planning and implementation and recommended that district and regional officials implement plans to identify animators whose task would be to assist rural people to identify their problems, define solutions, and recruit workers.

5. Rural Development Training Institute

We urge that every possible step be taken to implement the training institute recommended in the Strategy Paper. Such an institute should assume responsibility for training development workers and develop curricula and syllabi for several levels of workers. These levels would include high level officials and administrators for short seminars in development management and initiation, technical courses in skills of rural development and development management for district, regional, and middle level officers, and skills of development design and implementation at the village and pastoral level for local development animators. Several syllabi should be prepared by the Institute and choices made available to all trainees as to which skills and which training they see as their greatest needs.

In developing the Institute, every effort should be made to avoid duplication with existing training institutes. It is assumed that support would be solicited from a donor organisation to launch the institute but that eventually it would become self-financing, based on revenues which it would generate from its own activities. In addition to training, the Institute should develop capabilities for rural development research, design and assessment consultancies, monitoring, programme and project evaluation, and documentation. The Institute is also recommended as the

appropriate unit to begin collecting data and monitoring the progress of rural development in Somalia.

6. Regional Planning

The workshop endorsed the concept of regional and district development planning, as recommended in the Strategy Paper and as included in the 1982-1986 Five Year Plan, as a means to achieve greater decentralisation. We recommend that district/regional development planning become the goal of regional/district officers with a first step for the Ministry of Interior to assist in improving development information and data for each region and eventually (perhaps in three to four years) for each district as well.

7. On Self-Sufficiency and Poverty Alleviation

While the workshop endorses the goals of self-sufficiency for rural areas, we recommend that special efforts be made for certain rural areas where the rural development infrastructure may be less well developed and where the need for development appears greater.

8. Self-Help

The workshop endorses the concept of self-help in rural development as the key for most of rural community development efforts in Somalia.

9. Technical Committee for Rural Development Training and Education

Coordination of training and education is an important task and is somewhat complicated by the growing number of training and educational institutions. In order to avoid duplication and as a means to coordinate all aspects of rural development training and education, we recommend that a technical committee be created to include membership from:

SIDAM

NAEC (Secretariat) - Institute of Adult Education

SURERD (on behalf of the Rural Development and Planning Department,  
Ministry of Interior)

Women's Education Department (Ministry of Education)

Extension Service (Ministry of Agriculture)

Ministry of Planning (Institute of Applied Economy and Statistics)

Ministry of Health

Other interested and appropriate units (such as training unit of  
livestock, etc.)

10. Basic Education

Critical to the success of rural development is the effectiveness of primary school programmes. The workshop recommends expansion of the present curriculum in primary schools to include information on the student's own environment, be that environment a pastoral, agricultural, coastal, or even urban one. Units of study specific to the livelihood system within which the students reside should be prepared as a means to orient students to the physical, biological, and social systems within which he/she will reside. Special attention should go to the teaching of skills which will be productive and which will generate income in the student's adult years. Given the addition of practical skills to the present literacy and numeracy programmes in the primary schools, students should be well prepared to carry out the necessary tasks of rural development.

11. Cooperatives

We reflected on strategy notes on the topic of cooperatives in rural development. We endorse the findings as well as the statement in the National Plan. For the final recommendations on cooperatives we will study the findings of the recent USCM document which was handed to the drafting committee this morning.

12. Human Resources including Civil Services Reform

The group emphasised the need for civil service reforms to enhance quality, experience, public oriented civil service spirit, technical expertise, and efficient management to conserve public resources. The editorial group was advised to stay in touch with those directly involved with the current civil service reform suggestions presented to the government.

13. Need to Increase Data Base for Rural Development

The workshop recognises the need for more and better data about rural development. We, therefore, recommend that the national as well as regional/district data base for rural development be strengthened. Further research data project ideas are to be synthesised from the work of other workshop groups for the final report.

14. Project Ideas in the 1979 Strategy

The group reviewed the list noting some that had been implemented and laid great emphasis on the need urgently to implement the project document already prepared on the Rural Development Training Institute. (The Ministry of National Planning should look into bringing this up at the forthcoming Paris Donors Conference scheduled for November 1985). The group went on to welcome new project concepts to be listed in the final draft.

<151-

PART V

RELATED MATERIALS

THE SOMALIA UNIT FOR RESEARCH  
ON EMERGENCIES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT  
(SURERD)

June, 1985

I. SOMALIA BACKGROUND

Since gaining independence in 1960, Somalia has enjoyed many achievements including a successful literacy campaign, extension of development planning to the regions and districts, and a major sand dune fixation program. The country, however, has also suffered from a series of disasters and emergencies, both man-made and natural, including persistent political tensions as well as drought and flooding.

The political conflict has led to armed clashes which intensified in the late 1970's, bringing thousands of refugees into Somalia. At the height of the crisis, thousands of people were arriving in Somalia's refugee centers every day. Although the emergency has subsided and refugees are being maintained in government camps, the continued presence of refugees strains the country's already limited resources for development. Somalia continues to have a larger refugee population ratio than any other country in the world.

As if the man-made problems were not enough, Somalia continues to face actual and potential natural catastrophies, especially of prolonged droughts that impose responsibility for caring for drought victims on the government and people. From a broader perspective, these burdens are not merely a problem of refugees and drought but also a matter of whether Somalia's social and economic progress of the last decade will be able to continue in the face of such severe competition for resources.

The problems of refugees and natural disasters only compound Somalia's more basic difficulties of development. One of the poorest countries in the

world, Somalia possesses few natural resources and supports an essentially subsistence economy. Most of the people engage in small-scale animal husbandry with a small percentage (10 - 20 percent) exporting livestock, bananas, and sugar.

The country's primary development goal is to feed its people. Beyond that, it must encourage industries and commercial productivity so as to generate employment, increase the availability of goods and services, improve the balance of trade, and mobilize the people in order to ensure the overall development of the country.

The rural sector in Somalia is obviously primary in importance. It contains the majority of the population, and therefore of the rural poor; it provides the exports and foreign exchange earnings upon which Somalia will ultimately have to rely for national development; and it contains the human, animal, and natural resources that will provide the opportunities for more rapid development in the future.

## II. INSTITUTIONAL CAPABILITIES

Given Somalia's combination of natural and man-made vulnerabilities in a rural, pastoral setting, special need exists to devise institutions which build on local capabilities and priorities. The unique challenge calls for an equally unique response. One such institution is the Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies and Rural Development (SURERD). Founded in early 1981 after a series of discussions within the Somali Studies International Association on the refugee crisis and its impact on rural development, SURERD has seven objectives. They are to:

1. identify and help formulate rural development projects with a significant component of self-initiated participation and local control;
2. assess the technical, financial, social, and ecological soundness of each project including estimating the expected benefits that would accrue from project investment;
3. seek financial assistance for such projects from governmental and non-governmental donors and assist those concerned in implementation, monitoring, and evaluation;
4. establish and maintain relevant documentation and library facilities, especially with regard to technologies and methodologies appropriate for Somalia;
5. organize working groups courses, seminars, and symposia, and participate in training programs related to its aims;
6. initiate research and publications aimed at providing baseline data and new development policy guidelines; and
7. cooperate with other agencies and organizations to ensure that methodologies employed in conducting studies and in project implementation will be disseminated elsewhere.

SURERD had identified several community-oriented projects in areas including water development, food production, cooperatives, appropriate technology (experiments with solar pumps), and income generation activities involving the rural poor. SURERD has continued to monitor solar pumps provided by Oxfam America for the benefit of refugee-oriented water projects. It has co-sponsored a national as well as regional seminar on energy and environmental management in Somalia. It has provided research and technical assistance for various studies, including the recently completed USAID/Somalia Government

Education and Human Resources Study. SURERD has recently completed "A Preliminary Survey of the Nugal Region" and will soon publish similar baseline data surveys for the Togdheer, Snaag, and Bari regions of Somalia.

SURERD has signed a four-way Working Agreement with the Ministry of Interior (formerly the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development), the Ministry of Planning, and Oxfam America, for work in small-scale community oriented rural development projects. It has signed a projects Agreement with German Agro-Action. SURERD/Oxfam America have signed a tripartite agreement with the United Nations High Commission on Refugees and the NRC, giving SURERD facilities and services normally given to non-governmental and private voluntary organizations involved in Somali refugee affairs.

In addition, SURERD has signed working agreement with governmental organizations such as the Northern Rangelands Development Project (NRDP) of the National Range Agency and the Central Statistical Bureau of the Ministry of National Planning. SURERD works collaboratively with the Somali National University; the Somali Academy of Science and Arts, and the Somali Film Agency.

SURERD has had the opportunity to develop a spirit of understanding and cooperation with the General Federation of Somali Trade Unions (GFSTU), the Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO), the Somali Revolutionary Youth Union (SRYU), and the Movement for Somali Cooperatives Organization (MSCO).

SURERD collaborates with private voluntary organizations in refugee projects and rural development. Its status as a semi-autonomous unit attached to the Ministry of Interior gives it the freedom of action and objectivity necessary to undertake projects intended to improve both the poor data base of Somalia and small-scale development projects in rural areas.

Similarly, SURERD, drawing upon the high calibre and experience of Somali personnel at its disposal, is able to act a central contact point for a wide range of private sector endeavors. SURERD understands the needs of the country and the government's policies for addressing those needs, as well as specific fundable projects that fall within that policy. This information base will be used to help make the necessary analyses of proposed project and sub-project ventures.

### III. HIGHLIGHTS OF RECENT SURERD ASSIGNMENTS

#### A. Water and Food Security

Sheikh Banane Solidarity Cooperative. Provision of solar pumps and irrigation pipes to improve agriculture (food) production. (Bay Region).

Geed Ashir Irrigation Canal Extension. Extending the General Daud Canal to provide food security for a group a newly settled and old poverty stricken farming families in the Middle Shabelle Region near the town of Balad.

Community Water Supply Improvements and Training. A project proposal (partially funded) to involve water technical experts and to improve well sanitation in areas and sites already involved in the regional pilot surveys project.

#### B. Forestry and Environment.

Merca Road Section of Sand Dune Stabilization. Sand dune stabilization to protect important sections of the road connecting Merca to Shalambot through levelling of sand dune gulleys, terracing the slopes, and sowing drought resistant trees, shrubs, and grasses. (Lower Shabelle Region).

National Seminar on Energy and Environmental Management in Somalia.

(February, 1982). USAID funded seminar hosted in collaboration with Clark University and the Somali National University. (See Section H below).

Regional Seminar on Energy and Environmental Management in Somalia.

(Buraq, Togdheer Region, June 1983). A follow-up to the above National Seminar involving district level community groups, PVO's (Action Aid, VITA, Oxfam America, Africare, CARE, American Friends Service Committee, ERDGS, etc.), national and international governmental organizations. This was the first time such a seminar was held outside the capital city. Hosted in collaboration with the Northern Rangelands Projects (NRDP) of the National Range Agency, Ministry of Livestock, Forestry and Range.

C. Tecnology Transfer

Solar Pumps for Rural Development Projects. Utilizing solar pumps for various non-refugee communities to determine their appropriateness: for example at traditional highly frequented wells such as those at Ainabo (presently in Sol Region), Eil Afweyne (Sanag Region); at the water supply farm as well as the Maygaagta Yar Cooperative outside Hargeisa (North West Region); Hodan Cooperative in Odweyne District (Togdheer Region); the NRDP Forestry Nursery Project in North West Region; for the Adale fishing community in Middle Shebelle Region. Development concepts on the uses of alternative forms of energy such as windmills, biogas, animal traction, and hand-pumps from other Third World countries.

D. Evaluation.

Refugee Solar Pumps Project. Designed in collaboration with Oxfam America, this project was carried out in February - March 1985. A preliminary report is now available.

Project pipelines include the monitoring of various EEC (European Economic Community) funded projects; projects funded by the UN and its branches, for example the North West Intergrated Social Development Project (UNICEF funded); those carried out by other PVO's, for example the Bari, Sanag Region project involving Action Aid, AFSC, Oxfam, Community Aid Abroad.

E. Pilot Surveys.

The Nugal Survey. Conducted in 1982, a mini-project oriented pilot survey of one of Somalia's most deprived regions.

The Togdheer Survey. Conducted in 1983, this pilot survey exercise involved questionnaires distributed to village leaders to determine priority needs and at household levels to develop regional poverty profiles.

Project pipeline involving Clark University to train and strengthen SURERD capabilities in the following technical areas.

- resource mapping and assessment;
- analysis of resource trends, rangeland and farming systems, rural-urban networks, and marketing systems;
- microcomputer capabilities for information processing, data analysis and storage, especially as these data relate to resource pressures and problems;
- project design, implementation and evaluation.

F. Cottage Industries.

Gelib Merca Weavers Group.

Stage I. Assistance to build revolving fund of foreign exchange to assist in importing yarn;

Stage II. Help with marketing of goods produced;

Stage III. Strengthen uses of appropriate technology and help in utilizing local materials.

The entire project is to help small-scale home-based producers.

G. Documentation and Library Resources.

SURERD has taken the initial steps toward establishing a documentation/library unit within the space provided by the Ministry of Interior. The Somali Studies International Association made an initial contribution of its books and documents, mostly those related to development. VITA contributed over 100 books and pamphlets mostly in the field of energy and appropriate technology for village development.

H. Conference Management/Secretariat Services.

The Energy/Environment Management Seminars mentioned above. Both seminars brought together upwards of 100 professionals and government officers in the field of forestry, environmental management, food production, water, soils, and health. In each case, the seminars presented findings of project activity in other parts of Africa as well as the possibilities for action in Somalia.

Somali Studies Secretariat. SURERD serves as the International Secretariat for the Somali Studies International Association. SURERD contributed the preparations for the Second International Congress of Somali Studies (SSIA) held at the University of Hamburg, August 6,

1983. SURERD staff have participated in or/and assisted in the preparation of several other national and international conference seminars during the period 1982-85.

Prior to November 1981 (the establishment of SURERD), key personnel who came to constitute the "SURERD core" were involved in managing the following conferences, all held in Mogadishu:

- The Third International Frantz Fanon Conference (June 1979);
- The National Conference on Integrated Rural Development (September 1979);
- The First Halgan Symposium; "Somalia and the World" (October 1979);
- The National Workshop on Emergency Preparedness (November 1979);
- The First International Congress on Somali Studies (July 1980);
- The First Mogadishu Pan-African Film Symposium MOGPAFIS (October 1981);
- SURERD provided Secretariat and Conference Management services for MOPAFIS TWO, (October 1983).

Currently SURERD is preparing for a Regional Conference on Integrated Rural Development, on behalf of the Ministry of Interior. The Conference, to be held in June 1985, will help revise Somalia's official Strategy Paper on Rural Development.

I. Coordination and Clearing House.

SURERD has been active in coordinating the activities of PVO's interested in contributing to Somalia's rural development. In this and other ways it has played an important catalytic role in orienting the

Ministry's policies toward small-scale, community oriented rural development schemes within a regional planning framework.

J. Research and Technical Support.

SURERD staff have participated in or/and assisted in various research activities, for example:

- The FAO studies on rural poverty;
- The energy Development International (EDI), World Bank funded studies on Somalia's energy resources and needs;
- The USAID funded research project on "Educational and Human Resources of Somali."
- The UNHCR funded study entitled "Socio-Economic Profiles of Refugees in Somalia."
- The USAID funded, Boston University team study entitled "Somalia: A Social and Institutional Profile."

K. Training.

SURERD emphasizes being an indigenous Somali organization. Its goal is to develop its own staff to be fully capable of carrying out all parts of its responsibilities. SURERD's training program assumes three different forms:

- in-country courses, conducted by SURERD and other Somali institutions. Recent examples include (1) a SURERD course on project preparation and design; (2) a SURERD course on operation and maintenance of solar-assisted pumps; and (3) a course on development planning offered by the Institute of Development Planning, Ministry of National Planning;
- exchanges with similar African institutions and in other Third World nations. For example, one SURERD staff member has

recently completed a one year course in rural development at the Pan African Institute for Development (Zambia);

- training overseas. SURERD has training agreements with a number of European and North American organizations including German Agro Action, Harvard University, Clark University, Boston University and the University of California at Los Angeles.

L. Disasters.

SURERD has worked actively in several disaster situations, serving as coordinator with the Ministry of Interior which is the officially designated Somali coordinating arm for disaster assistance. Activities have included:

- active participation in two national Conferences on Emergencies Preparedness (1979 and 1984);
- review and monitoring of disaster assistance during the Berbera floods of 1982. SURERD staff wrote a report which became the basic document for the World Food Programme's disaster assistance program to the coastal areas of the North West Region;
- continual collaboration with the Ministry of Interior for drought monitoring and disaster preparedness.

In addition to these specialized activities, SURERD collects data and provides applied research services to the Ministry of Interior. These functions include project survey and selection to identify and design small project activities for rural development, the writing of ministerial reports, project monitoring, communications with international organizations, and assistance in coordinating work among private voluntary organizations.

For further information about SURERD and for data on its publications,  
write:

Principal Consultant  
SURERD  
P. Bo. Box 2962  
Mogadishu, Somalia

SURERD STAFF

- |     |                              |   |
|-----|------------------------------|---|
| 1.  | Dr. Hussein M. Adam          | Director                                  |
| 2.  | Mr. Mohamed H. Farah         | Associate Director                        |
| 3.  | Mr. Mohamed Abdi Deria       | Project Leader and Water Projects Manager |
| 4.  | Ms. Halima Sheikh Abdillaahi | Deputy                                    |
| 5.  | Mr. Mohamed Shire Mohamed    | Non-Formal Education & Media Officer      |
| 6.  | Ms. Faisa Axmed Jama         | Deputy                                    |
| 7.  | Ms. Ruqia H. Abdirahman      | Executive Secretary                       |
| 8.  | Miss Weris Hussein Daud      | Documentation & Library Assistant         |
| 9.  | Mr. Mohamed Ali Gudal        | Research Assistant                        |
| 10. | Ms. Faduma Khalif Malin      | Receptionist                              |
| 11. | Mr. Ahmed Nur Yusuf          | Solar Pumps Technician                    |
| 12. | Ahmed "Giche"                | Senior Driver                             |
| 13. | Ali Yanbo                    | Protocol & Logistics Associate            |
| 14. | Ahmed Haji Delie             | Associate                                 |

INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE

AN APPROACH TO SOMALIA'S PROBLEM OF ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION  
(DESERTIZATION)

Dr. Abdullahi A. Karani

General Manager - National Range Agency

I would like to provide a brief description of how the National Range Agency intends to combat desertification in Somalia.

First, let me elaborate on how we view desertization, mostly in terms of its causes. As has been pointed out, environmental degradation in Somalia is considered to be much the same as desertization - the increase of desert-like conditions due to both natural and human actions. Since there has been no convincing evidence put forth describing a specific natural event (such as a long term significant change in climate), we are relatively certain that desertization in Somalia is primarily man-made. And in this situation we have reliable information as proof. We know that major sand dunes have formed within unrestricted, shifting cultivation. We have data on increasing populations (both human and animal) resulting in overgrazing on a very large scale and details recording the rapid increase of forest (woody species) destruction.

Consider the increase in numbers of people. In 1963 Somalia had an estimated population of 2.4 million people; between 1970 and 1980 it increased from 2.8 to 4.6 million - a growth rate of 2.3%. At that rate it was estimated to reach 6 million by the year 2000. (FAO 1981 Yearbook). However, Somali

government estimates in 1985 indicate that this level has already been reached. Little wonder that more livestock are needed to graze more intensively, that larger and more marginal areas must be farmed, and that greater amounts of woody species must be consumed for fuel.

Let's look for more tangible evidence on the numbers of livestock and subsequent grazing pressures. During the period 1961-1965 there were estimated to be 2.4 million cattle and 8.2 million sheep and goats in Somalia; even by that time many observers had recorded their versions of massive overgrazing. By 1985 a dramatic increase in numbers amounting to 5 million cattle, 31 million sheep and 6 million camels were recorded. As early as 1980 this amounted to an estimated 2 Animal Units (AU 1 adult cow = 1 AU and one sheep or goat = 0.2 AU) per person along with a sheep and goat meat consumption of 14.1 kilo per capita. I should note that the per capita meat consumption is the highest of any country in subSaharan Africa. Also remember that during the 20 year period of 1965-1985 there have been several severe droughts which literally decimated the livestock herds. If the rangelands were overgrazed in the 60's, what description could possibly characterize their condition now? For the country as a whole, fuelwood consumption is estimated to be around 5,370,000 M<sup>3</sup> annually and is expected to increase to over 6,000,000 M<sup>3</sup> by the year 2000. Likewise, total estimated charcoal consumption equals about 112,000 tonnes and is expected to increase to 150,000 tonnes in 15 years.

Fuelwood and charcoal supplies to Mogadishu were recently studied and the following estimates were computed for the city's total annual consumption: fuelwood - 57,000 M<sup>3</sup> and charcoal - 200,000 M<sup>3</sup>. These estimates lead to a fairly high consumption of total fuelwood, almost 2/3 M<sup>3</sup> per capita expressed

in solid volume. It is believed that by the year 2000 Mogadishu will require 390,000 M<sup>3</sup> of fuelwood, given the present consumption patterns. It would require 13,500 ha. of irrigated fuelwood forests to meet this target, or alternatively, 66,500 ha. of rainfed, planted forests or 160,000 ha. of improved natural forests. As noted, these later estimates are for Mogadishu only - the largest concentration of high volume energy users in the country.

The "shifting-cultivation" system (a very low level farming technology practiced by agro-pastoralists on usually marginal arable lands) involves clearing an area usually 2 to 5 ha. of all bush, and then hand cultivating and cropping the area for 5-10 years until the soil is exhausted. It is then abandoned (or occasionally fallowed) for 25 to 35 years until it has recovered adequately for re-cultivation. The system usually also includes grazing by the agro-pastoralists as the herding by small children is done on or close to the farm area. All trees, shrubs, crops and residues are consumed by people or animals so the sandy soil has little protection during the process and none after the land is abandoned.

It is common to see sand dunes forming on the edge of these farms. In fact, the sand dunes exhibit one of the most visible forms of desertization. They occupy 2.2% (325,000 ha.) of the Central Rangelands Development Project area. The total for Somalia is estimated at over 500,000 ha. and this poses one of the most difficult control and rehabilitation problems in all of Somalia.

CURRENT NRA EFFORTS TO COPE WITH DESERTIFICATION

WFP/NRA

Rangeland Development and Reforestation

Food for work inputs originated in January, 1974. Total reported achievements through December, 1983 are production of 4.1 million seedlings, 2000 ha. of forest plantations, 2,500 M<sup>2</sup> of forest reserve protected.

UNDP/UNIDO

Improvement of the Charcoal Production Industry

Started in May, 1984 as a 2-month consultancy, with another month expected in the year. This is a follow-up to project SI/SOM/78/803 for 2 months in 1979/80 and 3 months in 1982.

UNDP/FAO

Started on 30 August, 1983. The report contains a number of recommendations concerning forestry organization and administration, forestry activities, donor inputs, and investment possibilities.

UNSO/OPEC

Strengthening and controlling of coastal Sand dunes.

Fixation Activities (Merca/Shalambot Area)

The project started in February 1982, from the Italian Government through UNSO. The total area to be protected is 1200 ha. As there are funds remaining in the project, activity will probably be prolonged until the end of 1985.

Coastal Sand Dunes Fixation - Brava Area

Approved in 1984 and just started, through UNSO. The total area to be protected is 1500 ha.

Coastal Sand Dunes Fixation - Adale

Approved in 1984 and to begin in 1985. Duration is 3 years.

Species Trials for Rainfed Fuelwood Plantations

Started in 1984.

UNSO/Australia

Desertification Control Fellowships

Started in August, 1983 with duration up to 29 months; 5 fellowships in Resource Management in Australia.

UNICEF/CARE

Northwest Community Forestry Project

Started in July, 1984; duration 42 months.

KUWAIT FUND/FAO

The forestry component is one officer, who started in August 1983 for 1 year.

REC/NRA

Equipment for 10 regional nurseries.

USAID

Forestry Phase I: Refugee Areas Project

Started in 1982, duration 3 years, divided into components and sub-projects.

COMPONENT 1:

Institution Building - Assistance for NRA provides advisors, equipment for training, training courses, and study tours.

COMPONENT 2:

Reforestation and fuelwood production

Save the Children Fund/USAID

Qorloley Forestry Project

This project was earlier funded by UNHCR and now has a duration of 3 years. In 1983 the project planted 160,000 seedlings on approximately 90 ha and distributed 10,000 trees to the communities, camps, and villages for planting around homes and public places. Also included in the total production are some 40,000 trees started as direct seedlings. Irrigated forestry plantations of 40 ha with 100,000 and a strip of land 3.6 km long (12 ha) with 80 seedlings.

Africare/USAID

Jalalagsi Reforestation Project

Agreement signed April 1983, duration 2 years. Targets are 44 ha of fuelwood plantations, 160 ha of shelterbelts and 20,000 seedlings for the community, camps, and villages. The Jalalagsi project will develop one central nursery for the production of seedlings for the dune project and for smaller nurseries at the refugees camps.

CARE/USAID

Hiran Refugee Reforestation.

Started in May 1983, duration 3 years. Targets: 770 ha fuelwood plantations, 32 ha shelterbelts and 54,000 trees to be distributed for shade and amenity plantings.

National Range Agency (NRA)/USAID

Gedo Community Forestry

Started in April, 1984, duration 3 years. Expected production: 1195 ha fuelwood plantation, 30 km of shelterbelts and 50,000 seedlings for distribution in the community, camps, and farms. Headquarter in Luuq.  
ODA (Overseas Education Fund/USAID)

Northwest Refugee Reforestation

Agreement signed December, 1984, duration 2 years. Target: 2200 ha plantation, 40 ha community woodlot, 80 km shelterbelts.

COMPONENT 3:

Fuelwood Conservation/Testing

Volunteers in Technical Assistance/USAID

Started in March, 1983, duration 2 years. The project will develop and distribute 8,000 improved wood stoves in five regions in the country.

COMPONENT 4:

National Resources/Land Use Survey

RMR (Resources Management and Research/USAID)

Southern Somalia Land Use Survey

Started in March, 1983; duration 19 months. Carried out by a consultant.

COMPONENT 5:

Fuelwood Supply/Demand Market Assessment

COMPONENT 6:

Project Monitoring and Management

UK/ODA (Overseas Development Administration)

Strengthening of Afgoi Forestry Training Centre

Started in July, 1983; duration 3 years. A UK lecture team arrived in mid-July, 1983 and took over from the Pakistani team which had been at the school the past two years. The school has a two year training program which brings the students to certificate level. 14 students graduated in April, 1983 and 47 new students were enrolled.

FR Germany/GTZ (German Agency for Co-operation)

Afforestation Around Regional Centres of the Centre Rangelands

Started in November, 1983; duration 4 years. GTZ has developed a forestry component as part of its Central Rangelands Development Project activities. Three nurseries located in BeletWeyn, Dusa Mareb and Galkayo will be strengthened under this programme. The project will include town shelterbelts and fuelwood plantation as well as trees made available for personal use around homes, farms, and communities.

Voluntary Agencies

ICR (Interchurch Response for the Horn of Africa)

Refugee Afforestation, Luuq

Started January 1983 with input from UNHCR.

### Northern Rangelands Development Project - TF SOM 22

This project was conceived as part of the Drought Rehabilitation Programme and planned by the World Bank. It is financed largely by the Kuwait Fund and executed by FAO for 5 years starting in 1976, and intended as a model for similar development efforts in other parts of Somalia. The project covers the northern regions worst hit by the drought and provides equipment, transport, operating funds, and technical personnel to carry out:

- subdivision of the regions into seasonal and drought grazing reserves;
- establishment of 2 fodder farms in each district, based on water spreading;
- stock water development in accordance with a range use plan
- introduction of non-formal education of pastoralists in support of the range management programme;
- expansion of the training capacity of the Range School at Burao and support for the range course at the University of Agriculture;
- expansion of the veterinary services in the project area.

The project was reviewed early 1979 and somewhat modified.

### Central Rangelands Development Project

This project was also planned by the World Bank and complements the Northern Rangelands project. It started later in 1979 and is financed and executed jointly by IDA, USAID, ODM, WFP and the Somali Government. It covers the 3 regions immediately to the south of the northern project and provides equipment, transport, operating funds, and technical assistance personnel for the following:

- range development including grazing reserves, boreholes, tracks, housing, offices, workshops, and NRA field services;
- range studies and trials including grazing systems and range improvement, a forage laboratory, aerial and ground survey and mapping, registration of range vegetation;
- veterinary services including 20 mobile clinics and 6 vaccination teams;

- veterinary NRA headquarters including a range monitoring unit, a borehole drilling and maintenance unit, a central workshop, and administrative accommodation;
- forestry including 3 nurseries and 3 shelter belts;
- training including non formal education of pastoralists and support to national formal training, formation and guidance to grazing association and overseas fellowships.

These work programs and projects represent only one form of attack on the problem; there are other ways in which one can take positive action including informal education (extension) and control of abusive uses. Both are things which we Somali's can do on our own as urged by the Minister. In fact, control of abuses is provided for in Somalia National laws and we intend to become very aggressive in enforcing this legislation.

We also know that strict adherence to laws and regulations will be much more acceptable if Somali citizens fully understand their meaning and rationale. This understanding can best be affected through education at all age groups but especially with our youth. We will work closely with the educational organizations and institutions to help bring this about.

UNITED STATES ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE  
TO SOMALIA

U.S. Agency For International Development  
Via Afgoi  
Mogadishu, Somalia

November 1984

## UNITED STATES ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE TO SOMALIA

### I. Development Overview:

Somalia is one of the poorest countries in the world with a per capita income of less than \$300 per year. Its efforts toward economic development are constrained by limited natural resources and a harsh and variable climate. Average annual rainfall ranges from less than four inches a year in the driest areas to only 25 inches in the wettest. Only about 14 percent of the land is arable and drought occurs frequently. Nevertheless, 80 percent of the population earns its livelihood in the agricultural sector, mainly from nomadic pastoralism. Somali pastoralists, through livestock exports chiefly to the Gulf States, produce over 80 percent of the country's foreign exchange.

For over 10 years Somalia practiced "scientific socialism." The experience left the country with government-owned factories and service industries characterized by poor management and low productivity. Prices on agricultural products were kept low resulting in insufficient incentives for farmers. Skilled managers and technicians left the country for higher wages offered in the Gulf States. In addition, during the 1970's a series of events -- including a severe drought in 1974-75, the outbreak of regional hostilities in 1977-78, the ensuing inflow of refugees, and the severance in 1978 of relations with the Soviet Union, which up to then had been the major source of financial and technical assistance -- contributed to economic stagnation and added to domestic and external financial deficits.

Economic problems have contributed to Somalia's totally inadequate provision of social services for the Somali population. For example, there are 20,000 persons per doctor and 880 persons per hospital bed. Only a third of the population has access to safe drinking water.

Through the efforts of the IMF and donor countries, the GSDR undertook a stabilization program in 1981 that had some success in restraining demand and promoting production. Agricultural prices were largely decontrolled, some government-operated enterprises were shut down, and policies were instituted to encourage private participation in the economy. Currency devaluations and monetary controls led to improvements in the internal and external financial accounts.

Recently, however, further efforts towards economic reform have stalled as negotiations with the IMF for an Extended Fund Facility broke down in early 1984. The economy still suffers from inefficient public enterprises, excessive controls on the private sector, and weak management of government institutions in general. Balance of payments difficulties have been compounded by an over-valued exchange rate and a ban imposed by Saudi Arabia in 1983 on cattle imports from Somalia. To promote economic development, Somalia must push forward with its efforts to liberalize the economy and increase the role of the private sector. In the agriculture sector, recent decontrolling of producer prices has led to increased production. Further policy reform is needed along with more research to improve yields and reduce the risk from drought. In addition, expanding arable land through irrigation holds promise. For livestock, the Saudi ban on cattle is only one strong indication that Somalia must improve its veterinary services and international marketing capabilities.

While not endowed with great natural resources, Somalia possesses an outward-looking and enterprising population. This, combined with Somalia's proximity to the fast-growing Gulf States, means that it does have good potential for economic development if the government reduces its hold on the private sector.

## II. U.S. Assistance

### A. Background

During the period 1953 to 1971 U.S. economic assistance to Somalia amounted to \$90 million - \$70 million was used to finance development projects; \$14.5 million was used for food purchases; and \$5.4 million to support a Peace Corps Program. The principal development projects funded by USAID during the 1953-1971 period include the construction of the Kismayo port (\$2.2 million), improvement of Modadishu's water supply (\$8.1 million), and establishment of the National Teacher's Education Center at Afgoi (\$500,000).

Since 1978, the U.S. has provided \$456 million in economic assistance to Somalia. Of this total, \$248 million has been used to finance food imports. The commodities have been used to fill the food shortage gap in urban centers and bring relief to the Ogaden refugees. In addition, over \$37 million has been non-food support for refugees. The balance -- \$171 million -- was allocated to finance development projects (\$137 million) and the Commodity Import Program (\$34.5 million). Approximately 55 percent of the funds allocated for development projects has been for the agricultural sector (including forestry and water). The health, population, transport, and private sectors have received the balance of development projects funds.

### B. Current USAID Program

#### USAID Development Strategy

The USAID strategy for the short-term stabilization program focuses on improving the balance of payments position and decreasing the budget deficit. The commodity import and the PL-480 Title I programs are the primary mechanisms for supporting the stabilization program.

The Commodity Import Program provides essential imports to compensate for the constricted foreign exchange situation. Eighty-five percent of the current Commodity Import Program is targeted for the private sector. The PL-480 Title I program provides critically needed food imports and helps bridge the food gap during the period of foreign exchange restrictions.

The local currency generated from both the Commodity Import Program and the sale of PL-480 Title I commodities also is an important element of USAID's strategy as they provide support for development projects during the period of fiscal restraint. USAID's development assistance concentrates in agriculture and livestock, health, and human resources development.

The principal constraints to development in the agricultural sector include erratic climatic conditions, labor scarcity, inadequate institutions, inappropriate technology, lack of a reliable data base, inappropriate government policies, and vulnerable markets.

The current USAID portfolio of agricultural projects assists the GSDR in delineating the problems of the sector and in establishing the institutional base for bringing about increases in production.

Recent evaluations of USAID's portfolio revealed that, while incremental production increases are achievable in dryland agriculture (and that further interventions in dryland production are needed), the drylands do not offer the potential for the dramatic production increases needed to accommodate Somalia's three percent population growth rate. USAID's first step in the irrigated sub-sector is to assist in undertaking studies for rehabilitating existing and planning new irrigation schemes along the Shabelle and Juba rivers and the development of the Juba River Valley. Next, USAID will help analyze and initiate investment in small to medium size irrigation schemes along the Juba and Shabelle rivers. The agricultural research program builds on the research

strategy developed under the Agricultural Delivery Systems project and focuses on adaptive research for both dryland and irrigated crops.

The forestry-fuelwood program forms an important link in the strategy during the structural adjustment period. Renewable energy resources are closely related to agricultural and livestock outputs inasmuch as trees are used as browse for Somalia's livestock and for soil stabilization in dryland farming areas. In addition, the data generated under the current forestry-fuelwood program will provide the base for any future forestry program intended to help Somalia utilize this scarce resource more efficiently.

USAID's food production and livestock strategy is complemented by a series of projects aimed at maintaining current agricultural exports, which are the mainstay of Somalia's trade and must be increased if the economy is to become healthy. Activities in this area include the rehabilitation of the port at Kismayo, the Livestock Marketing and Health Project, and continuous support to the Somali private sector.

In the human resources development sector, USAID will carefully target selected interventions to demonstrate the feasibility of innovative approaches. Based on the 1983 education and human resources assessment, USAID is developing programs to increase the quality and quantity of managerial and technical manpower in selected Somali institutions.

In the health sector, USAID's overall objectives are to raise life expectancy and to decrease child mortality. The focus of the health sector strategy is to change the curative orientation of health services to a preventive approach. The primary intervention in this sector is the Rural Health Delivery project which is training health staff and establishing a system for delivering preventive health services to the population.

In the population sector, USAID will continue the family health services program to strengthen the institutions responsible for the nascent family planning program, provide the technical staff and resources required to keep the program moving, assist in conducting a national census, and furnish commodity support for the program.

USAID's refugee assistance efforts are aimed at three policy objectives:

- a. to assure that food and health needs for the refugees in the camps continue to be adequately managed;
- b. to provide greater opportunities in and around the camps for productive employment;
- c. to assist the GSDR in planning and implementing a refugee settlement program.

The USAID strategy is fully compatible with the GSDR's development objectives of increasing agricultural production by expanding the area under irrigations; promoting the active participation of the private sector in industrial and agricultural development; improving range management and increasing inputs to the livestock sector; pursuing an active reforestation and sand dune stabilization program; and liberalization of government policies. USAID will continue the on-going policy dialogue to encourage additional reforms on policies affecting economic development, especially through private sector participation.

USAID's current portfolio of projects is described below by sector.

1. Agriculture/Livestock Sector

a. Comprehensive Groundwater Development -- 649-0104

U.S. Contribution: \$18,800,000      Period: Sept. 1979 - Sept. 1986

The purpose of this project is to assist the Ministry of Mineral and Water Resources (M.M. ?) - Water Development Agency (WDA) to establish an on-going water development program which provides potable water and livestock water in

rural areas. To achieve this purpose, the project is funding: 1) a major institutional strengthening program within WDA; 2) the establishment of a planning, data collection, and utilization capability within the WDA in collaboration with UNDP/FAO; and 3) a production drilling program in the Bay Region and Central Rangelands in support of AID and other donor activities. Through the provision of equipment and a technical assistance contract team, the project will fund the drilling of approximately 80 production wells -- 33 have already been drilled.

b. Central Rangelands Development -- 649-0108

U.S. Contribution: \$14,944,000      Period: August 1979 - Sept. 1988

USAID, in cooperation with the IBRD, IFAD, GTZ, WFP, and GSDR, is implementing this \$45 million project in the Central Rangelands area of the country. The purpose of the project is to help the GSDR strengthen: (a) the rangeland management scientific capacity of the National Range Agency (NRA); (b) the teaching and research capacity of the Faculty of Agriculture (FOA), University of Somalia; and (c) the effectiveness of the NRA in developing, testing, and transferring relevant range management technologies to livestock producers in the Central Rangeland Region. To this end, USAID is providing a team of twelve technical advisors. Five are assigned to the Department of Range Management, FOA in order to develop the formal training and research components of the project; and seven are assigned to the Central Rangeland Field Unit of the NRA to develop, test, and transfer relevant range management technologies to livestock producers. USAID also provides equipment, materials and training.

c. Agricultural Delivery Systems -- 649-0112

U.S. Contribution: \$8,635,000 Period: August 1979 - Sept. 1986

The purpose of this project is to establish and implement a system for the development, adaption and demonstration of improved crop production and management practices for the Somali farmer. A USAID-funded technical team provides advisory services in applied research and extension. The team also provides in-country training and selects candidates for further training in the U.S.

d. Bay Region Integrated Development -- 649-0113

U.S. Contribution: \$11,171,000 Period: August 1980 - July 1987

USAID in cooperation with IDA, ADF, and IFAD is implementing this \$50,2 million program. The project seeks to increase agricultural production in the Bay Region through the development of necessary institutions, personnel, and infrastructure. The project provides research and extension services and assistance in rural water, road construction, and livestock.

e. Juba Development Analytical Studies -- 649-0134

U.S. Contribution: \$5,250,000 Period: Sept. 1983 - Dec. 1986

The purpose of this project is to provide baseline data on soils, irrigation applicability and environmental and social parameters of the Juba River Valley. These data are being obtained through long-term field studies in the valley. The data will be incorporated into the Juba Valley Master Plan which will act as a guide for optimum resource use.

f. Livestock Marketing and Health -- 649-0109

U.S. Contribution: \$11,000,000 Period: July 1984 - June 1988

The purpose of this project is to restore the contribution of cattle exports to the Somali balance of payments and to lay the conceptual basis for a broader approach to strengthening the Somali livestock industry.

2. Health Sector

Rural Health Delivery -- 649-0102

U.S. Contribution: \$15,200,000 Period: June 1979 - Sept. 1985

The purpose of this project is to develop a system capable of delivering preventive and curative health care to an estimated 800,000 rural inhabitants. Two National Training Centers have been established in Baidoa and Burao and over 200 mid-level health personnel have been trained including nurses, midwives, sanitarians, and laboratory technicians. The project also provides funding for the construction of primary health care units which serve as the supervisory and referral points for community health workers and traditional birth attendants. In addition, the project provides technical assistance for the development of the logistics and health information systems. The project also provides overseas training, equipment, and supplies.

3. Population Sector

Family Health Services -- 649-0131

U.S. Contribution: \$10,100,000 Period: August 1984 - June 1989

The purpose of this project is to improve demographic data and analysis and improve the reproductive health of women and the health of children. The project will do this by providing the institutional capability for demographic data collection and processing and for family planning information and services. The project services will: 1) assess different approaches to the delivery of family health education and clinical services; 2) enable couples to achieve the desired number and spacing of their children; and 3) increase public awareness of the impact of rapid population growth on sustained economic development.

4. Other Activities

a. Kismayo Port Rehabilitation -- 649-0114

U.S. Contribution: \$39,000,000 Period: August 1982 - August 1987

The purpose of this project is to rehabilitate the port at Kismayo. Funding is provided for both design and construction. The port is critical to the development of the southern part of Somalia, providing access to capital goods and agricultural inputs and facilitating the export of livestock and agricultural products.

b. Commodity Import Program -- 649-0118

U.S. Contribution: \$18,500,000 Period: Sept. 1982 - May 1985

Commodity Import Program II -- 649-0120

U.S. Contribution: \$16,000,000 Period: August 1983 - August 1985

The purpose of these activities is to provide short-term balance of payments support to the Somali economy. The CIP reinforces the economic policy reforms adopted by the GSDR in consultation with the IMF. The funds are used to finance the importation of commodities for the agricultural sector and other private sector industries. The program focuses on financing the importation of raw materials, spare parts, capital equipment and other inputs for elements of the economy vital to the support of the agricultural sector as well as financing of ocean freight for PL 480 Title I food imports.

c. CDA Forestry Project Phase I - Refugee Areas -- 649-0122

U.S. Contribution: \$6,000,000 Period: Nov. 1982 - March 1987

The purpose of this project is to assist the GSDR to undertake a larger volume of forestry and fuelwood planting programs as part of its overall social and economic development efforts. Project components include: technical assistance to the Forestry Department of the National Range Agency, reforestation and fuelwood production (consisting of sub-projects implemented by U.S.

Private Voluntary Organizations), fuelwood conservation, a natural resources/land-use survey and an assessment of fuelwood production and marketing systems.

d. Refugee Self-Reliance Project -- 649-0123

U.S. Contribution: \$6,000,000 Period: Dec. 1982 - Sept. 1986

The purpose of this project is to assist the refugee population to become more productive and self-reliant. Through Private Voluntary Organizations, USAID finances agricultural production, training, and infrastructure activities in refugee camps and neighboring areas. The project also funds selected studies intended to facilitate the understanding of refugee needs, incentives, resources and other socioeconomic issues; and provides support for the Planning Unit of the National Refugee Commission. Both the refugee and the Somali population will benefit from this project.

e. Policy Initiatives and Privatization Studies -- 649-0132

U.S. Contribution: \$2,500,000 Period: Sept. 1983 - March 1987

The purpose of this project is to provide technical and financial support for conducting analytical studies of the economy and for increasing private sector involvement in the economy.

f. Accelerated Impact Projects (AIP)

In addition to its regular Development Assistance projects, USAID has funded four AIP projects. These are smaller projects implemented within a two-year period. One AIP is still on-going: Family Health Initiatives (U.S. Contribution: \$500,000).

C. Completed Projects

1. Kurtunwaare Settlement Project -- 649 -- 0103

U.S. Contribution: \$2,100,000.

The project helped finance the construction of 400 low-cost housing units mainly for nomadic families displaced by the drought of 1974-1975.

2. Agriculture Extension Research and Training -- 649-0101

U.S. Contribution: \$5,050,000.

A team of U.S. Department of Agriculture experts assisted the Ministry of Agriculture in providing extension services to farmers in the Baidoa Region. The farmers used animal traction and adopted improved agricultural methods to increase their production.

3. Accelerated Impact Projects: Artificial Insemination

U.S. Contribution : \$440,000.

Poultry Development

U.S. Contribution: \$500,000.

Expanded Program of Immunization

U.S. Contribution: \$200,000).

III. Proposed Projects

a. Commodity Import Program III -- 649-0125

U.S. Contribution: \$35,000,000 (planned).

The purpose of this activity is to provide continuing balance of payments support for the importation of commodities critical to the agricultural and private sectors.

b. Somali National Agriculture Research Program -- 649-0125

U.S. Contribution: \$40,000,000 (planned)

The purpose of this project is to establish and operate a permanent research system geared to the optimal development of the agricultural sector in Somalia. The system is intended to be comprehensive and thus will address physical, biological, and socioeconomic problems affecting agriculture. The research program will: (1) produce and disseminate technological packages that can be used profitably by Somali farmers and herders to increase food production on a sustained basis; and (2) plan, monitor, and quantify the performance of the agriculture/livestock sector and prepare realistic alternative policies to guide and support the evaluations of the sector.

c. Irrigation Development and Rehabilitation -- 649-0129

U.S. Contribution: \$35,000,000 (planned)

The purpose of this project is to increase the land area that is under controlled irrigation, increase water use efficiency, and develop a Somali capability both public and private, to establish, operate, and maintain irrigation systems.

d. Assistance to Refugee Settlement in Somalia -- 649-0137

U.S. Contribution: \$16 million (planned)

The purpose of this project is to assist the GSDR in designing and carrying out activities which will create viable alternatives to refugee camps so that refugees living in Somalia have the option of becoming self-supporting, productive residents who are integrated into the local economy. In this first, pilot stage, up to 40,000 refugees will be project beneficiaries. The project will be implemented by PVOs, line ministries, and contractors.

e. Management Training and Development -- 649-0119

U.S. Contribution: \$18,500,000 (planned).

The purpose of this project is to increase the ability of both the GSDR and the private sectors to plan effectively and to carry out development activities by institutionalizing their capacity to meet public and private sector training needs.

IV. Food-for-Peace

A. Title I - Concessionary Sales

Title I food assistance from FY 1978 totals \$96.9 million. The imported food commodities are used to partially offset food shortages affecting both rural and urban populations. The Title I commodities imported are wheat and wheat flour, rice, and vegetable oil. Feedgrains also were imported in FYs 1980 and 1981 to offset the effects of a severe drought. With the exception of wheat, Title I commodities are handled by the National Trading Agency, which distributes them nationwide. Wheat goes directly to the pasta factory in Mogadishu. In 1984, the U.S. plans to provide 47,300 MT of Title I Commodities, with a value of \$16.0 million. Also this year, USAID is introducing an auction scheme for selling these commodities to the private sector.

B. Title II - Grants

Under this section, the PL 480 program grants food aid for emergency relief and in some cases development-oriented projects. The freight charges for Title II shipments are paid by the United States. In Somalia, Title II food has been provided under three separate programs: (1) refugee relief; (2) special drought relief; and (3) for various World Food Program (WFP) projects.

1. Title II - Grants for Refugee Feeding. The United States has been providing food for the emergency feeding of refugees since 1978. The amounts and

types of commodities are based on the need and deficit reports prepared by WFP. The food is distributed in accordance with National Refugee Commission and WFP policies. The program is implemented by the NRC's logistic unit. For FY 1982, the U.S. approved a total of 17,800 MT of food for refugee support, with a value of \$6.7 million plus \$3.4 million for freight costs. During 1983, 25,500 MT of food was approved, with a value of \$4.8 million plus \$1.9 million for freight costs. For 1984, the U.S. plans to donate 40,610 MT of food for refugee feeding with a value of \$14.5 million including shipping costs.

2. Title II - Grants for Special Drought Relief. In March of 1981, the Government of Somalia requested international assistance to supplement the low level of food stock in the country. The reduction of the food reserves was caused by several successive years of drought. The U.S. Government provided 40,000 MT of corn valued at \$5.8 million plus \$6 million for shipping costs. In response to the Government's request for emergency assistance to cope with the 1983-84 drought, the U.S. approved 10,000 MT of wheat and 1,500 MT of vegetable oil in 1984, with a total value of \$4.0 million including shipping costs.

3. Title II for World Food Program Project. The United States supports the World Food Program (WFP) with direct food contributions from the Title II resources. In Somalia, these programs range from food-for-work for reforestation and sand dune stabilization projects to institutional and refugee feeding, including supplementary feeding in refugee camps. In FY 1981, 24,000 MT of food were provided through the WFP, with a value of \$8.2 million plus \$4.5 million in freight costs. For FY 1982, the U.S. provided 19,000 MT of food through the WFP with a value of \$5.2 million and an estimated \$2.8 million for freight costs.

#### V. Non-Food Refugee Assistance

In addition to food assistance provided to refugees, the U.S. also has provided non-food assistance in the past. The majority of such aid is channeled through the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). In FY 1982, the United States provided the UNHCR with approximately \$17.1 million for non-food support of the Somali refugee program.

#### VI. Use of Generated Proceeds

The PL 480 Title I and CIP-generated local currency are used to finance the local costs of activities designed to increase agricultural, health, manpower, and private sector developmental objectives within the program parameters spelled out in the Government's Public Investment Program.

Two special entities have been established to ensure that the generated proceeds are programmed in conformity with the established policy. The first is the Generated Shilling Proceeds (GSP) Committee, which provides general oversight, direction and guidance in the enactment of the policy guidelines. The GSP Committee serves as the reviewing authority for the use of proceeds generated under the PL 480 Title I and CIP programs. The Committee consists of two officials of the GSDR's Ministry of Finance and two officials from the USAID Mission. The Committee prepares its recommendations for joint approval from the Minister of Finance and the USAID Director. The second, the CIPL Unit - which is a special unit within the Ministry of Finance - serves as the day-to-day guarantor that the policy objectives are being met.

VII. Program Levels (\$000)

	FY 1981	FY 1982	FY 1983	FY 1984
A. Project Assistance	12,200	15,900	31,954	50,000
1. Agriculture & Rural Development	(8,100)	(13,201)	(10,716)	(13,000)
2. Health	(4,100)	(1,199)	(4,238)	-
3. Population	-	-	-	(2,000)
4. Forestry/Refugee Self-Reliance	-	-	(12,000)	-
5. Kismayo	-	(1,500)	(2,500)	(35,000)
6. Other	-	-	(2,500)	-
B. PL 480 Title I	15,000	14,500	15,000	16,000
C. PL 480 Title II [1]	44,300	18,100	17,000	18,521
D. Refugee Non-food Aid	-	17,100	-	-
E. Commodity Import Program	-	18,500	16,000	-
TOTALS	71,500	84,100	79,954	84,521

[1] Includes U.S. Contribution to WFP and transportation costs.

BRIEF: 11/30/83

## INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

### GTZ

Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit - GTZ - is the implementing agency of the Federal Republic of Germany in the field of technical cooperation. In addition GTZ works under direct contract for governments of Third World countries, normally financed by international financing institutions.

In Somalia GTZ is implementing projects on behalf of the Federal Republic of Germany. About 40 expatriates are working in the country. The programme is concentrating on the following areas:

- agriculture, including livestock
- water supply
- vocational training
- private sector promotion.

GTZ projects include:

#### 1. Agriculture including Livestock

- Assistance to the Ministry of Agriculture
- Assistance to the Planning Unit of the Ministry of Livestock (i)
- Assistance to the Ministry of Juba Valley Development (i)
- Central Rangelands Development Project (Veterinary and Forestry Component) (i)
- Assistance to Smallholder Irrigation and Rainfed Agriculture (p)
- Irrigation Potential in the North (Irrigated Gardening in the Togdheer Region) (p)

---

i = under implementation

p = in preparation

d = in discussion

- Bird Pest Control in Somalia (p)
- Middle Shabelle Regional Development Project (d)
- Deshek Cultivation in the Juba Valley (d)
- Tsetse Fly Control in Southern Somalia (d)

2. Water

- Assistance to the Water Development Agency (i)
- Surface and Stormwater Drainage in Mogadishu (i)
- Renewable Energies for Water Production (i)
- Water Management for the Shabelle River (d)

3. Vocational Training

- Industrial Vocational Training Centre in Mogadishu (i)

4. Private Sector Promotion

- Private Sector Promotion Unit in the Ministry of National Planning (i)
- Assistance to the Somali Development Bank (i)

5. Others

- Assistance to the Ministry of National Planning (i)
- Assistance to the Ministry of Transport (i)
- Assistance to the State Printing Agency (i)
- Assistance to the Somali Shipping Agency and Line (i)
- Study and Expert Funds (i)

GTZ has also carried out a number of studies in the area of Agriculture and Rural Development:

1. Afgoi Agro-Zootechnical Project (AAZP), Feasibility Study; Ministry of Livestock, Forestry and Range/GTZ  
April 1985.
2. Agricultural and Livestock Services in the Juba Valley Development/GTZ  
April 1984.
3. Deshek and Small- and Medium-scale Irrigated Agriculture in the Juba Valley - Annex 1 - 4;  
Ministry of Juba Valley Development/GTZ  
September 1984.
4. Evaluation of the Agricultural Settlement Projects Kurtun-Warey and Sablale and Proposals for Future Development;  
Ministry of National Planning/GTZ  
October 1982.
5. Irrigation Potential in Northern Somalia - Promotion of Irrigated Gardening in the Togdheer Region - Project Appraisal;  
GTZ/Somali Democratic Republic  
August 1984.
6. Support to Smallholder Irrigation and Rained Agriculture in the Lower Shabelle Region Awdheegle-Mubaarak Road and Gorgal-Afgooye Yare Road - Report of the Project Appraisal Mission;  
Ministry of Agriculture/Ministry of National Planning/GTZ  
August 1984.
7. Possibilities and Chances of Bird Pest Control in Somalia (Report Written in German), GTZ  
July 1984.
8. Computerized Hydromet Data Processing  
Ministry of Juba Valley Development (MJVD)/GTZ  
October 1984.
9. Hydrology of the Juba River,  
Main report and Annexes 1-4;  
MJVD/GTZ
10. Settlements and Infrastructure in the Juba Valley (present situation) - interim report -  
MJVD/GTZ  
March 1984.
11. Agricultural Development Potential in the Juba Valley - working paper -  
MJVD/GTZ  
March 1984.
12. Deshek and Small- and Medium-scale Irrigated Agriculture in the Juba Valley - Main Report  
September 1984.
13. Deshek and Small- and Medium-scale Irrigated Agriculture in the Juba Valley - Main Report  
September 1984.
14. Development of the Juba Valley, Present Situation, Potential Planning  
MJVD/GTZ  
January 1985.

15. Reconnaissance Survey of Potential Settlement Areas for Refugee Settlement in the Lower Shabelle Region of Somalia - Main Report  
January 1984  
(UNHCR/NRC/GTZ)
16. Development of Water Resources in Gedo Region by Appropriate Technology  
Water Development Agency/GTZ  
March 1984.

GTZ has also sponsored studies with KfW, including:

1. Mogambo Irrigation Project - Supplementary Feasibility Study - Main Report/August 1979  
Somali Democratic Republic/KfW
2. Jowhar Sugar Estate - Feasibility Study for Rehabilitation - Final Report/April 1984  
Ministry of National Planning/KfW
3. Water Supply Schemes for Ceerigaabo, Gardho, Garowe, Galkayo, Dhuusa Mareeb - Feasibility Study report and drawings  
Ministry of National Planning/Water Development Agency/KfW  
August 1982.
4. Water Supply for Towns in Southern Somalia - Water Supply III, Feasibility Study, Volumes 1 - 10  
Water Development Agency/KfW  
October 1984.

INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

A brief report on the UN/FAO World Food Programme activities in Somalia presented at the "National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy" on 25 June 1985

General:

1. WFP is the food aid arm of the United Nation's system. It is a multi-lateral and intergovernmental food aid agency. It was created in 1962 to provide food aid as both a capital investment and/or relief to developing countries especially those deficient in food.
2. Food can be used in many activities as follows:
  - (a) Food-for-work is an option whereby food makes up part of the workers' wages in rural development activities such as reforestation, rural road construction, land clearing, etc.
  - (b) Food can be used as an incentive for school and hospital attendance and to improve the health of the recipients thus enhancing future manpower requirements.
  - (c) Food can be used to attract resettled nomads in more productive areas.
  - (d) Food could provide an incentive for voluntary participation in community development activities such as some range management activities.
3. WFP is, therefore, a source of development inputs. Once the Somali Rural Development Strategy is formulated and eventually when programmes for rural development are designed, WFP is available for discussion to provide assistance in various projects.

WFP-assisted activities in Somalia:

4. WFP assistance to Somalia started in 1965 with an emergency project to help drought victims. Development projects started in 1967 with a community development project. Since then fifteen development

projects and a number of emergency projects have been implemented and completed at a total cost to WFP of approximately US \$87.4 million.

At the moment there are four on-going development projects as follows:

- (a) Project SOM.719 (Expansion): "Rangeland Development and Reforestation."
  - (i) Total cost to WFP is US \$20.1 million for a duration of 6 years.
  - (ii) Objective: To revive and increase the production of range and increase the production of range and forestry resources and to provide work opportunity for voluntary labour in rural areas.
  - (iii) The food basket included wheatflour, edible oil, dried skim milk (DSM); sugar, tea, and maize.
  - (iv) Coverage: nationwide
- (b) Project SOM.2326 (Expansion): "Institutional Feeding."
  - (i) Total cost to WFP is US \$12.3 million for a duration of 4 years.
  - (ii) Objective: To generate funds for investments in developing and expanding educational, training, and health facilities as well as to provide adequate diet to the beneficiaries (boarding students, trainees, and hospital patients).
  - (iii) The food basket includes: wheatflour, edible oil, DSM, sugar, tea, and dried whole milk (DWM).
  - (iv) Coverage: nationwide
- (c) Project SOM.2349 (Expansion): "Supplementary Feeding of Vulnerable Groups."
  - (i) Total cost to WFP is US \$30.8 million for a duration of 5 years.
  - (ii) Objective: to combat malnutrition among vulnerable groups (pre-school children, TB out-patients, lactating and pregnant mothers) by providing them with food supplements.

- (iii) Food basket includes: DWM, DSM, CSM, canned chicken, sugar, edible oil, and dried fruit.
  - (iv) Coverage: nationwide
- (d) Project SOM.2294: "Resettlement of Nomads as Farmers and Fishermen."
- (i) Total cost to WFP is US \$16.8 million for a duration of 5 years.
  - (ii) Objective: To resettle 75,000 nomads stricken by drought in 1975 as farmers and fishermen. Two agricultural villages and three fishing villages were to be established.
  - (iii) The food basket includes: maize, edible oil, DSM and pulses.
  - (iv) Coverage: nationwide.
- (e) The following projects (mentioned above) have been approved for continuation (Expansion) for 3 years each at a total cost to WFP of US \$6.7 million and US \$10.7 million respectively:
- Project SOM.719 Expansion II: "Rangeland Development and Reforestation."
  - Project SOM.2326 Expansion II: "Institutional Feeding."
5. Food aid, especially as capital investment for development, needs to be carefully assessed if it is to be effective. Physical planning of all practical stages is a sine qua non of success.
- (a) The people and Government need be fully involved in the planning and need be committed to the execution of the project. Some WFP-assisted activities in Somalia have attracted only women and children workers. Often these do not work the required number of hours in a day since they have other activities to attend to e.g., taking care of houses.
  - (b) Corollary to the above, there must be a need for food aid otherwise it creates a dependency "syndrome" and a disincentive to internally-generated efforts.
  - (c) Projects for food aid must be carefully selected with clear objectives and with a cut-off date to encourage seriousness of purpose among recipients and also among government officials concerned.

- (d) All too often food aid is assumed as totally free. This is a serious generalization. There are definite costs to the recipient government once food commodities arrive and project activities start. These include transportation, storage, technical backstopping of the projects, supervision, monitoring, reporting, accounting, wages which if not provided for could certainly lead to a collapse of the projects.

Prepared and presented: Nicholas Siwingwa  
WFP Project Officer  
Mogadishu

29 June 1985

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR'S  
NATIONAL CONFERENCE  
SOMALIA'S RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

24-29 June 1985  
Mogadishu

Hotel Juba

Conference Schedule

Monday, 24 June

9:00 am - 11:00 am	Registration/Information Session
11:00 am - 1:00 pm	Formal Conference Opening by H.E., The Minister of Interior
4:00 pm - 7:00 pm	Rural Development in Somalia A review of current strategy goals, the experience of other nations, and assessment of major rural sectors in Somalia (Plenary Session)

Tuesday, 25 June

8:00 am - 12:00 noon	Assessment of Recent Trends and Themes. (Plenary Session)
4:00 pm - 7:00 pm	Orientation to Small Group Workshops. Small group workshops will be organized to make policy and strategy recommendations on both the current strategy and new themes.

Wednesday, 26 June

8:00 am - 7:00 pm	<u>Field Trips</u> Visits to project areas involving settlements, land stabilization, cooperatives, women's groups, agriculture, forestry, livestock, fisheries, and rural industries.
-------------------	---

Thursday, 27 June

8:00 am - 10:00 am	Plenary to Review Field Visits
10:00 am - 2:00 pm	Individual Workshop Groups
4:00 pm - 7:00 pm	Individual Workshop Groups

Friday, 28 June

10:00 am - 11:00 am	Plenary to Review small group work
4:00 pm - 7:00 pm	Individual Workshops and Editing Group

Saturday, 29 June

10:00 am - 1:00 pm	Plenary to Hear Workshop Reports
4:00 pm - 6:00 pm	Formal Closing

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR'S  
NATIONAL CONFERENCE  
SOMALIA'S RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY  
24-29 June 1985  
Mogadishu

Hotel Juba

PROPOSED WORKSHOPS FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

The following Workshops will be set up by Tuesday afternoon June 25 but will be holding most of their Sessions on Thursday June 27 and Friday June 28th before reporting back to the Plenary on Saturday June 29, 1985.

- Group I.      A.    On Productive Sectors: Agriculture/Livestock/Fisheries/  
Rural Industries
- Group II.     B.    On Social, Physical (Transport) and Financial  
Infrastructures.
- Group III.    C.    On Environmental Management (Forestry) Drought Contingency  
Planning, Energy and Water Resources.
- Group IV.     D.    On the Role of NGO's/PVO's and other private Sector  
Initiatives.
- Group V.      E.    On Land Use Practices, Refugees and Resettlement Programmes.
- Group VI.     F.    On Local Participation and the Role of Women in Rural  
Development.
- Group VII.    G.    On Human Resources, Training and Institutional Arrangements.

PROPOSED FIELD TRIPS FOR WEDNESDAY 26 JUNE 1985

The field trips will take place on Wednesday June 26.

- A.    Focus on Qorioley Area Projects
- B.    Focus on Jowhar Rice Project and Jalalaqsi Refugee Camp.
- C.    Focus on Sand Dune Projects/Weavers Gelib (Merca-Shalambot Area).
- D.    Focus on Sablale and Barawe Area Projects.
- E.    Focus on Baidoa Areas Projects.

CONFERENCE EVALUATION

The following summary is based upon a total sample of 25 conference participants and their responses to an 8 question conference evaluation form. For the purposes of this summary the responses to each question will be assessed according to the total number of responses, range of opinions expressed, and/or the degree of consensus.

Characteristics of Respondents:

Male	20
Female	5
Somali	15
Expat	8
Government Employee	13
Self Employed	2
Employed by International Organization	11
NGO	7
UN Agency	3
Bilateral	1

Question 1: I understand the objectives of the conference were?

Twenty-three people responded to the question. The majority of people wrote that discussion and updating Somalia's rural development strategy were the objectives of the conference. Other responses included: to improve communication within the development community; to compile information and resources in a useful form for various agencies.

Most participants in the sample thought that the objectives of the conference were achieved, however, several respondents felt that the real test will be whether the government takes action or not.

Question 2: In your opinion did or will the conference have any indirect effects (i.e., increased dissemination of information or improved contact between individuals)?

There were 20 responses to this question. The majority thought that the conference would have indirect effects by increasing dissemination of information and improving contact between different development institutions.

Question 3: Rating conference activities. Responses to the question were as follows:

	very helpful	somewhat helpful	not helpful	should expand	keep same	should reduce
Presentations	19	4	-	-	2	3
Field Trips	12	7	3	3	2	2
Workshops	20	1	1	5	1	-

Question 4: Did you make use of conference documentation?

Fourteen people responded to the question. The majority used the rural development strategy. Five people used the strategy summary. Two people thought that there was need for more conference material. One individual thought that expanding the conference secretariat would be helpful. One person commented that most documentation didn't reach him.

Question 5: What outcomes would you like to see as a result of this conference?

Twenty-one people responded to the question. Responses showed a high degree of variation and included:

- implementation of conference recommendations;
- decreasing friction among PVO's, bilateral donors, UN and GSDR;
- effective decentralization of rural development;
- increased support of the Ministry of Interior in rural development;
- short, concise, and practical conference report;
- broad distribution of the conference report to Somali agencies unable to attend;
- to move from planning to action.

Question 6: Overall how would you rate this approach as a means to facilitate revision of national policy?

There were 19 responses to the question. Sixteen participants were positive. Two participants were negative. One participant felt that the value of the conference approach was questionable since all ministries did not participate. One person felt that the approach was good but participants could have been more effective had conference documents been made available before the conference.

Question 7: Do you have any overall comments or recommendations?

There were 15 responses to the question. Responses showed a high degree of range. Three respondents commented that conference documentation should have been distributed earlier. Other suggestions included:

- the need for improving the organization and sequencing of presentations;
- the need for longer lead time for conference planning;
- more government representation especially from regional bodies;
- improvement of the overall conference structure and organization;
- focus on fewer areas with more depth;
- the need for more working sessions;
- the need for more audio visual display during presentations;
- the need for more efficient use of time;
- the need for speedier distribution of session minutes.

National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Strategy

Mogadishu 24-29 June, 1985

Summary of 1979 Rural Development Strategy Paper

Prepared by

Somali Unit for Research on Emergencies and Rural Development

INTRODUCTION

The basic document for this National Conference is the official Somalia's Rural Development Research Paper (1981-1990) which has been reprinted and distributed to the participants of this Conference (Document No. 1).

This document contains Summaries of Materials taken from the Strategy Paper and is organised under themes suggested for the Workshops of this Conference. This work was done by Mr. Mel Melnicoe and Mr. Tom Dart (Clark University graduate Students working as SURERD Research Associates), under the guidance of the Principal Consultant, Director of SURERD, Dr. Hussein M. Adam. Mrs. Ruqiya Haji Abdirahman, SURERD Secretary, typed these notes.

We believe they provide Workshop participants with easily accessible reference materials. However, they should not be taken as a substitute for reading the current Strategy Paper as a whole.

OVERVIEW

Somalia's Rural Development Strategy 1981-1990

Somalia's Rural Development Strategy 1981-1990 represent the first attempt in Somalia to draw up a strategy for rural development to reduce rural poverty. As such the strategy encompasses the combination of policies, intervention programmes and projects to be implemented in the present decade.

Objectives

- 1) Increase food production (especially cereals), and improve nutrition levels;
- 2) Increase social services such as health, education and the availability of water;
- 3) Increase rural participation;
- 4) reduce rural poverty.

### Needed Institutional Changes

- 1) set up more appropriate machinery in Government for Planning for poverty reduction and rural development, including data gathering, monitoring and evaluation;
- 2) develop a set of regional and local development oriented rural institutions to encourage grass-roots participation to receive and distribute rural development inputs, and to draw up self-help projects;
- 3) train for rural development at grass-roots and higher levels, and research into rural development problems;
- 4) carry out a food strategy study to assure adequate food production and food stocks during the coming decade;
- 5) develop integrated approaches and more effective coordination of multi-sectoral activities.

### Statement of the Problem

The major constraint to growth in the Somali economy is the poor performance of the agriculture sector and the apparent stagnation, since the mid 1970s, in the livestock sector, aggravated by the ineffective participation of agriculturists and livestock-raisers in the society and economy. Unless both of these sub-sectors can be induced to perform more satisfactorily, Somalia stands no chance of becoming self-sufficient in food (cereals) production or of increasing its net agricultural and livestock export position. (Somalia needs to accumulate the capital necessary to repay current obligations and to carry out the investment programmes called for in the future development plans).

### Agricultural Sector Development Strategy

Objectives include the meeting of basic food needs for the country, and providing adequate quantities of items such as banana, oilseeds, cereals, and sugar for export to earn foreign exchange and to diversify export earnings.

The agriculture sector must be expanded in order to increase settled agriculture particularly supported by irrigated agriculture. This approach will increase production of crops such as maize, sorghum, rice and sugar. Settled agriculture also offers an approach to resettle the expanding rural nomadic population which is putting increased pressures on the resource base.

The Government of Somalia will undertake the following during the coming decade to increase food and export crop production:

- 1) adopt pricing policies, especially minimum support policies;
- 2) develop a technical package to bring about increased levels of agricultural production;
- 3) development of agriculture with livestock production in order to attract a greater number of nomads and semi-nomads to a more sedentary way of living;
- 4) increase the data base necessary for planning for agricultural and livestock production development.

Specific measures include:

- research programmes with clear objectives designed primarily to benefit the small rural producers;
- emphasis to be placed on producing and increasing access to high yield seed varieties;
- supply of a production package of seeds, fertilizer and agro-chemicals to farmers;
- extension services of the Ministry of Agriculture will be strengthened and expanded at the village level to provide coverage to all farmers in rural areas;
- introduction of crop varieties with low moisture requirements;
- rain fed agriculture will receive more importance from the Ministry of Agriculture in its plans and production programmes;
- optimization of water use will be stressed in farmer training programmes;
- development of an appropriate post harvest technology and a national food strategy;
- stress on the diversification of crops and expansion of the use of locally useful crops;
- stress on integrating crops and agroforestry for maximization of productive potential;
- the entire credit structure will be reviewed and institutional arrangements will be made for issuing loans on a much wider basis to increase production;
- the use of appropriate technology fitted to the needs of the small rural farmer will receive emphasis. This will include improvement of traditional technologies.

### Family Labor and Training

- the role of agricultural instruction;
- the need to develop projects and encourage rural youth to remain in rural areas rather than migrate to towns;
- the role of rural women in promoting family welfare.

### Agricultural Marketing

- the role of the Agricultural Development Corporation (ADC);
- and the need for reappraisal of the policy;
- the role of private markets.

### Food Security

- problems and prospects of the current system.

### National Food Strategy Study

- the role of the World Food Programme.

### Livestock Sector Development Strategy

Livestock production based on the grazing of camels, cattle, sheep and goats has been the traditional mainstay of Somalia's economy. The livestock sector supports directly the nomadic and semi-nomadic rural families comprising 65 percent of the population and contributes substantially to the 20 percent of the settled farmers' incomes. While the sector contributes about 80 percent to the country's export earnings, its corresponding share in development expenditure reflects a marked disparity being only 4.2 percent in the FYDP 1974-1978 and 8.9 percent in the TYDP 1979-1981.

### Rangeland Management

The role of the National Range Agency (NRA). Measures include:

- rangeland surveys, training and education, and rangeland planning;
- rational management practices based on understanding carrying capacities of the range;
- controlled grazing (grazing reserves, famine reserves, absolute reserves);

- the role of grazing associations and pastoralist cooperatives;
- water supply and conservation;
- demonstration ranches;
- research on plants which would optimize range use.

#### Livestock Production and Marketing

- Maximizing water supply and improving management technique;
- animal health;
- improve extension, training, surveys and research;
- improve control of animal disease;
- infrastructure development;
- improving roads, communications and transport;
- improvement of animal stock and their use potential;
- increasing off-take;
- livestock marketing;
- the role of government, specifically the Ministry of Livestock, Forestry and Range;
- the role of other government agencies.

#### Dairy Development

#### Poultry Development

#### Fisheries Sector Development Strategy

Approximately 10,000 tons of fish are harvested annually of a total potentially sustainable yield of 150,000 tons of all species of fish. Fishing is not subject to the impacts of seasonal climatic variation. The fisheries sector has almost unbounded capacity to absorb any new influx of families if matched by corresponding public investments and market demand for their catches. The following important initiatives require attention:

- consolidation of fishing communities to promote economies of scale;
- fishing harbour construction where appropriate;
- maintenance of boats and motors;
- issues relating to fish processing and cold storage;
- coordination of fishing with other livelihood strategies;
- the role of fish marketing organization (public sector, private sector).

### Rural Industry Development Strategy

Rural industries are essentially small-scale industries and several surveys in Somalia have included self-employed craftsmen as well as establishments with less than five workers. The 1974 census of industries revealed that out of 6,449 industrial establishments surveyed, 6,059 or 94 percent of the total employed less than five workers. Major rural industries include: food processing, pottery, leather and foot-wear, textiles and wearing apparel, handloom weaving, furniture, jewelry, clay products, ornaments and metal goods manufacture. It is estimated that some 30,000 workers or 2-3 percent of the country's labour force is employed in small industries.

The goal of the Rural Industries Development Strategy is to double the number of persons employed in small industry by 1990. Specific measures include:

- analysis of the results of the region by the region industrial resource survey which was carried out in 1981-1982;
- training of craftsmen and artisans;
- establishment and enforcement of quality control standards, especially on products of export;
- the role of industrial cooperatives;
- the role of private markets and the private sector;
- the role of government through improvement of infrastructure, bank loans, training schemes, and transfer of appropriate technology.

## Health

The top priority of Government programmes in the health field is to assure adequate preventive and curative care to the entire population in rural and urban areas.

The extension of health care to nomadic people presents unusual problems on the preventive side. Recent attempts through mobile medical teams have not been fully successful because of difficulties of synchronizing with nomadic movements to reach all families and their members in the area of distances to be travelled and difficulties of transport to hospitals and dispensaries. The result is high mortality, particularly among expectant mothers and infants. The Government of Somalia will pay special attention to the expansion of both preventive and curative services to nomadic people .

Specific measures include the following:

- reorient the health services to meeting the needs of rural populations;
- decentralize the functions of the health administrative structure to assure improved access for rural populations;
- extension of primary, and maternal and child health care to rural populations;
- increase medical personnel and physical facilities in rural areas;
- control of priority diseases
  - ... immunization of children against common diseases
  - ... prevention and cure of malaria, schistosomiasis and tuberculosis
  - ... reduction of diarrheal diseases and malnutrition among children

Health Indicators for Somalia<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Analytical Volume, Census of Population; 1975, Ministry of National Planning, Mogadishu 1984.

<u>Health Indicators</u>	<u>Somalia Statistics</u>	<u>Low-income Country Average</u>
Infant mortality age 0-1 per 1,000 births	146-180	130
Child health rate age 1-4 per 1,000 children	28-30	22
Life expectancy at birth both sexes	45-49	48
Crude birth rate	44-45	45
Crude death rate	13-15	18
Fertility rate	7.1	

Estimated Death Rates for Specific Age Groups in Somalia<sup>2</sup>

<u>Age Group</u>	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Nomadic</u>	<u>Total</u>
0-14	15.8	14.1	14.2	14.6
15-49	4.8	5.8	9.4	9.3
50	37.4	36.7	28.8	25.7
All ages	12.5	12.3	13.6	13.2

Education

In pursuance of the policy of providing basic education to all school age children, proclaimed in 1975, the Government objectives of literacy and primary education programmes will continue within the framework of rural development programmes.

Due to financial limitations, access to secondary education will be limited. Technical and vocational education will receive priority in order to assure training of rural populations for rural jobs.

---

<sup>2</sup>Analytical Volume, Census of population: 1975, Ministry of National Planning, Mogadishu 1984.

In the coming decade the Government of Somalia will adopt measures conducive to a wider-based nomadic formal education system through more schools, nomadic education centres, training and assignment of school teachers and enhancing the capacity of Koranic teachers to impart instruction in school subjects.

Education Enrollment by Level, 1981-1982<sup>3</sup>

	<u>Schools</u>	<u>Classes</u>	<u>Male-Female</u>	<u>Female</u>
Pre-Elementary Education	24	52	1,752	823
Elementary Education	729	4,179	152,429	51,985
Intermediate Education	628	2,711	87,487	33,871
Secondary Education				
General Secondary	67	859	43,823	13,741
Technical/Vocational	30	228	9,494	1,917
Teacher Training College	2	63	3,376	1,263
Correspondence School	1	-	1,037	541
Women Education	77	256	5,933	5,933
Adult Education	-	446	13,064	5,643
Total	1,558	8,794	318,395	115,717

Physical Infrastructure

All economic sectors are dependent on a transport and communications system which provides the essential infrastructure for the development of the country. Key objectives in the area of improving physical infrastructure have been to open up isolated rural areas to establish linkages between rural and urban areas; to facilitate the movement of goods and services by land, sea and air through the development of a better network of roads, port facilities, and civil aviation improvement; to establish efficient and reliable communications within Somalia and with the rest of the world.

The transport and communications sector is administered by four sectoral ministries: Ministry of Public Works and Housing, Ministry of Marine Transport and Ports, Ministry of Land and Air Transport, and Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications.

---

<sup>3</sup>Education Sector Project Preparation Mission. UNESCO/ADB, (1983), Annex P.

A key issue in the realization of the objectives in the Rural Development Strategy is the improvement of the physical infrastructure in each one of the productive sectors (i.e., Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries, and Rural Industries).

### Financial Infrastructure

A critical issue in the implementation of rural development projects is financial support and the financial infrastructure through which the support is delivered. Key actors in this process are the Central Government, multilateral donors, bilateral donors, PVOs, private banks, and local sources. IN order to avoid obstacles it is important to coordinate the financial infrastructure with the needs of the local rural community.

Other problems relating to the financial infrastructure for rural development which need to be resolved include: insufficient public sector support with regard to credit availability to rural populations and lack of market infrastructure and promotional activities.

### Drought Contingency

The drought of 1974-1975 put severe stress on rural population and services. Displacement of several thousand nomadic people resulted throughout the North and West of the country. Concentration of these populations in relief camps was followed by later attempts at resettlement. Between 1978 and 1981, there was a major influx of displaced people seeking refugee status, resulting in a continuing international relief effort to provide basic life support.

The Rural Development Strategy 1981-1990 makes limited reference to drought. A general plan of action relating to drought needs to be made and included in the revised strategy. Some areas for consideration in an action plan might include:

- identification and assessment of displaced persons affected by drought;
- provision of evaluation;
- provision and distribution of basic care items (food, clothing, shelter);
- formation of an emergency response team within the Ministry of Health;

- training of individuals to manage and implement drought contingency plans;
- formulation of a national emergency planning council.

### Energy

There is need to focus on energy issues and the needs of rural populations in Somalia. Issues include:

- fuelwood and charcoal production;
- community forestry;
- survey of rural energy needs;
- marketing of fuelwood, charcoal and other forms of energy in rural Somalia;
- the role of governmental agencies, multilateral agencies, bilateral agencies, PVOs and local community groups in the energy field.

### Water

The Government is fully aware of the crucial importance of providing easily available potable water to the rural population. The present policy of improving access to potable water through digging shallow wells, boreholes, storage of rainwater and piping from safe sources will be continued. The recommendations of the W.H.O. workshop on the International Water Supply and Sanitation Decade held in Somalia, November 1980, will be implemented, giving special attention to rural water supply and collection of relevant data for future planning.

Specific measures to be undertaken include the following:

- 1) improve and increase rural water supplies through construction of 300 shallow wells and 500 waros and underground cement tanks, with a drilling target of a maximum of 400 deep boreholes. Throughout the country, especially in areas with higher rainfall, more attention should be paid to collection and storage of surface water during the rains;
- 2) improve water supply for Mogadishu and suburbs and other important towns (Burao, Garowe, Dusa Mareb, Gardo, Galcaliyo, Erigavo, Merca, Afgoi and other towns) through groundwater extraction from deep boreholes;

- 3) implement several foreign assisted projects for water legislation, a water information centre, purification of river water, research and investigations, supply of drilling equipment, and solar stills for desalination of sea water;
- 4) implement an educational programme for the collection of rainwater and domestic purification of drinking water through boiling, chemical treatment, and safe storage.

The widely prevalent practice of using the same surface water sources both for watering of animals and for human purposes (especially during times of water scarcity), has led to a high incidence of water borne diseases among the nomadic people. Providing separate safe drinking water supplies as in recent borehole development will be achieved through construction of shallow wells, storage tanks, pipe borne water schemes and mobile water distribution. People will be encouraged to boil and chemically purify water.

Insufficient rainfall, limited supplies of river water, and inadequate arrangements for storage of surface water constitute the limiting factors in agriculture as well as for increased livestock production. It is only in the south, southeast and northwest of Somalia that rainfall averages 500 mm. per annum and is sufficiently predictable for farming. Irrigation depends almost entirely on the waters of the two dominant rivers, the Shabelle and the Juba; the interriverine and adjacent areas hold the best promise for rapidly increasing crop production under irrigation, both under existing schemes and under the proposed multi-purpose projects like the Bardera Scheme. Expansion of irrigable land is severely limited by the flow potentials of the rivers; these are estimated at 160,000 ha. under the Juba and 80,000 ha. under the Shabelle. Any further increase in crop production would therefore depend entirely on the seasonal rainfall which progressively diminishes in the various parts of the country to a low of 50 mm in the northeast.

#### The Role PVO's, NGO's and other private Initiative:

Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990, does not address specifically the question of external and private sector involvement in Somalia's rural development. However, since 1979 private voluntary organisations or non-governmental organisations (PVOs, NGO's) and other private institutions have begun to take an active role in the development of the country's rural sector. Most of them came to Somalia originally to be involved in the relief emergency aspect of the refugee programme under tripartite agreements signed between the NGO involved, the UNHCR and the NRC (the Somali Government's National Refugee Commission). Since 1982 and especially in 1983 they began to sign agreements to stay and be involved in Somali rural development outside refugee areas. In actual project implementation, such agreements usually involve the Ministry of Interior and/or Sectoral ministries such as the ministries of education, of health, of agriculture, etc. But they are transmitted through the Division of Technical Cooperation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and involve the Ministries of Planning and Finance as well. Rural Development oriented NGO's have since established the Association of Voluntary, Associations in Somalia (AVAS). This workshop is to review such

developments and recommend future involvement in Somalia's rural development strategy.

### Land Use Practices, Refugees and Resettlement

#### Land Use Practices:

With a total land area of 63.8 million hectares, Somalia's land use systems revolve primarily around the raising of livestock and agricultural production. Approximately 81 percent of Somalia's population are engaged in either pastoralism (65%), agriculture (15%), and fisheries (1%).

Livestock and agricultural production account for 50 percent of Somalia's GDP and for 90-95 percent of all the country's exports.

#### Pastoralism

The traditional structure of economic activities in Somalia remains based on nomadic livestock production, accounting for 35 percent of the country's total GDP. Animal production activities are carried out by virtually all Somali families and the majority of them derive their main income from livestock raising. Foreign trade on livestock and animal products provides 80 percent of Somalia's national hard currency earnings. In the vast semi arid areas of the country, pastoralism appears to be the only alternative form of land use.

The main objectives of Somalia's livestock and range activities include:

1. Increasing livestock production and productivity;
2. Improving and modernizing technical and managerial assistance for production schemes;
3. Strengthening disease control;
4. Increasing pastoralist participation in range management;

#### Livestock Programme Interventions.

During the coming decade and particularly in the 5 year Plan (1982-86), the major emphasis in livestock production will continue to be on disease control, primarily with a view to reduce the high mortality rate among animals. Other measures include better herd management, more assured feed and access to water, (especially during drought conditions), and conservation and management of range land resources (see Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990; "Livestock Sector Development Strategy," pp. 28-33).

### Agriculture:

Some 8.2 million hectares or 12 percent of the land is potentially suitable for agriculture production in Somalia. However, only an estimated 700,000 hectares is currently under cultivation. Of this 700,000, 110,000 hectares are under flood irrigation and 50,000 hectares are under controlled irrigation. The balance of the 540,000 hectares is rainfed agriculture. An estimated 350,000 hectares of land along the Juba and Shabelle rivers have been identified for potential irrigation. It is imperative that agriculture and other related activities absorb larger amounts of Somalia's population and labour force in the near future.

In the past, Somalia has been almost self-sufficient in the production of maize and sorghum during periods of satisfactory rainfall. Except for groundnuts, crop production of maize, rice beans, sesame, vegetables and fruit reached record levels in 1983 in terms of gross value of production.

Despite some positive results with regard to national self-sufficiency in grain production, the country is still dependent on large quantities of grain imports. This import dependency has been exacerbated by a population growth rate of 2.4 percent per annum, increases in rural to urban migration and emergency food supports for war refugees as well as victims of drought.

The main objectives in Somalia's agricultural sector are four-fold:

1. To increase overall production in both irrigated and dry farming areas, thereby increasing the income from this sector;
2. To accelerate development programmes in order to gradually achieve self-sufficiency in food grains;
3. To diversify agricultural production through the encouragement of crops for agro-industries and export;
4. To provide more employment opportunities in the agricultural sector.

### Programme Interventions:

Agricultural research will be linked with extension advice and farmers' training and organization to increase agricultural production. Water available for irrigated and grain-fed crop production will be used more rationally. In addition, good quality yielding seed materials, production credit, better cultural practices, harvest technology, an incentive price structure and safe storage of products will be the major interventions implemented in the course of the Five Year Development Plan 1982-1986 (see Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990, "Agricultural Sector Development Strategy," pp. 21-28).

### Rural Settlement:

Somalia settlement policies and planning are influenced largely by the experiences, successes, and failures of four agricultural and four fishery settlements opened in the wake of the 1974-1975 drought. The expansion and consolidation of nomadic settlement schemes in agriculture and in fisheries is an important policy of the Somali Government.

The resettlement of nomadic drought victims further serves the twin objective of settling nomadic populations and diversifying as well as increasing agricultural production. Selection of suitable patterns of settlement, factors of income and employment generation, target dates for withdrawal of government assistance and attention to settler's cultural and social backgrounds are crucial to the success of the settlement programmes.

Refugee Problem:

Pending a permanent solution, the Somali government may wish to adopt interim measures to employ some of the refugees in rural development and production activities.

On Local Participation and the Role of Women in

Rural Development

Since 1969 the government of Somalia has evolved socio-economic and political guidelines for the development of the country. Self-reliance and socialism are the foundations on which this development policy rests. Major objectives of this policy include:

1. Greater self-reliance in development efforts;
2. Collective ownership of resources and their attendant modes of production and distribution;
3. Establishment of a spirit of self-help amongst the masses.
4. Preparation of the public for fuller participation in nation building activities and the achievement of growth with equity.

Fundamental to the rural development efforts envisioned by the Somali government for the decade 1981-1990 is the increased participation of the rural population, particularly women, through rural organizations and institutions at various levels. Given that the rural sector in Somalia contains the large majority of the population in the country and therefore of the rural poor, producers in every sector of the rural economy will need to be supported by suitable types of institutions such as cooperatives or recognized ad hoc traditional village or livestock/farmers organizations, and non-formal groups of herdsmen and small farmers. These rural institutions will provide an essential link in establishing institutional credit, input supply and marketing network for the rural sector.

In the realm of rural participation, apart from socio-political organization, the Somali government has encouraged a policy of cooperative development on a sectoral basis with separate agricultural, livestock/grazing, fishing, construction, industrial and other cooperative societies. The most successful of these organizations in involving people in decision-making have

been the 3-tier agricultural cooperatives. Numbering 270 throughout Somalia, these cooperatives incorporate powers of control over their assets and production and marketing activities. In the livestock sector 14 range cooperatives have shown some success in pooling animal stock, while 11 fishing cooperatives have assisted the membership in securing inputs and marketing systems for sector improvement.

However, local participation schemes have had a limited impact on the Somali pastoral population. Government development strategy is moving toward a multi-functional service cooperative for the pastoral sector to increase participation.

In accordance with government policy of operating through local government institutions, some considerable progress has been achieved in the development of rural areas through self-help micro projects. In the coming years, government will continue to encourage these people's self-help schemes by extending facility improvements. (See Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990; "Rural Institutions and People's Organizations," pp. 16-17).

Women in Somalia make important contributions to rural development in agriculture, livestock, fishing and rural industry. They are also involved in the distribution of goods at the rural market centres. Nevertheless, little research has been carried out concerning Somali women's contribution to development and their roles and status in the family and community.

Recently, the involvement of women in Somalia's development has been guided by their socio-political organizations which continue to expand their membership. Several projects aiming at increasing rural women's participation in development will be implemented during the coming decade. Research currently in progress will test several inexpensive simple innovations which it is hoped will alleviate some of the drudgery and hard work attached to traditional tasks performed by Somali women. With the introduction of such labour-saving devices as maize shelters, sorghum threshers and improved storage, Somali women can decrease their work loads and minimize food loss.

The Family Life Education Programme which reaches out to rural Somali women will assist women to acquire knowledge and skills in areas related to nutrition, health, home/farm management, income earning activities and in group organisation and leadership. Family Education Centres (FLEC) will continue to expand their day-care services so as to enable mothers to participate fully in Somalia's development activities. In addition, Somali women are increasing their roles in local participation through a training programme in various aspects of cooperative management of traditional handicrafts. Implemented by the Somali Women's Democratic Organization (SWDO), the training programme goals are to increase employment and generate income earning opportunities for Somali women. (See Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990; Annex V: Notes on the Current Situation and Role of Rural Women in Somalia).

### Conclusions and Recommendations:

It is clear that there are significant information gaps regarding both the extent of local participation and the role of women in Somalia. Consequently, the process of addressing the needs of rural Somalia is a difficult procedure. Accordingly, two types of information are crucial as background for increasing local participation:

1. Knowledge of general trends in rural areas and their effect on local participation and traditional Somali women's roles.
2. Assessment of change will require the establishment of baseline data to monitor and evaluate local participation in rural Somalia.

This data collection will focus on:

1. access to land, water and natural resources;
2. access to agricultural inputs, markets and services;
3. access to capital and cash income;
4. access to public utilities and services;
5. access to education, training and extension;
6. improvements in nutrition and health;
7. the degree of local participation in the decision-making process.

There is also an urgent need to:

1. Broaden the range of training and extension provided to include support of women's role in food production, processing, and marketing.
2. Strengthen people's organizations, giving particular attention to women's groups to promote self help and self reliance. (See Somalia's Rural Development Strategy: 1981-1990; "Conclusions and Recommendations," pp. VI0-VII).

### On Training and Institutional Arrangements

Successful planning and implementation of the Rural Development Strategy will require institutional modification.

### Required Institutional Modification and Strengthening

In Somalia the institutional infrastructure supporting planning and implementation comprises two distinct but complementary groups of institutions: 1) the Government administrative structure and local government bodies, and 2) rural institutions or people's organizations.

The strategy identifies two major deficiencies in the present institutional system which inhibit the effective implementation of rural development programmes at different levels. They are:

1. the vertical structuring of development ministries with little or no institutional arrangements for horizontal coordination at different levels;
2. the failure to respond to the multi-disciplinary character of rural development as distinct from the mono-functional focus inherent in a sectoral categorization ministries.

### Need for Reorganization and Possible Courses of Action

The strategy recommended the following actions in order to strengthen administrative arrangements in rural development.

- 1) Reorganize and strengthen the present National Committee on Rural Development, extending its scope and powers for policy making with the creation of coordinating committees at regional and district levels.
- 2) Establish a strong and adequately-staffed agency or department of rural development under the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. (present Ministry of Interior)
- 3) Strengthen Laws No. 6 and 21 to require closer public participation and links with administration.
- 4) Define methods to promote consultation with groups in the planning and implementation of development projects for their areas.
- 5) Provide training for regional and district administrative cadres in formulation of rural development programmes and coordination of development activities.
- 6) Provide training for officials of development (technical) ministries and agencies in project formulation and implementation with emphasis on integrated rural development.
- 7) Open well-equipped regional offices to facilitate regional and local level planning as a basis of national planning.
- 8) Establish a centre for rural development training, research and socio-economic comprehensive programmes for self-help projects.

- 9) Make Government policies and structures adjustable so as to facilitate rapid integrated rural development with a declared bias towards the rural poor.
- 10) Prepare comprehensive programmes for self-help projects.
- 11) To facilitate the efficient planning, execution and monitoring of rural development programmes changes are necessary in budgeting and accounting procedures, including:
  1. preparing a national budget, as far as possible, with a development orientation, in which rural development components are to be indicated showing separately local and foreign aid expenditure;
  2. incorporating in a separate section in the national budget an aggregation of regional, district and village council budget expenditures on rural development;
  3. providing, if feasible, a value assessment for each self-help micro-project to be completed in the accounts of the local body;
  4. seeking to improve generally the systems of recording expenditure and maintenance of accounts.

These changes were to have been made during 1981. Progress toward their achievement needs to be reported in the revised version of the Rural Development Strategy.

#### Rural Institutions and People's Organizations

In Somalia, the Party Organization, which is responsible for rural mobilization, as well as the Village Council which is a local government body with people's responsibility, have functioned as rural institutions and each has its own legitimate socio-political or local government functions.

The government clearly favours the expansion of the cooperative movement, and presently the only rural institutions actively supported are the cooperatives. Therefore a restructured and broad based cooperative movement better suited to the demands of varying socio-economic conditions and consonant with national goals and development objectives would appear to have the best opportunities for mobilizing active rural participation in development programmes.

The dearth of trained administrative, managerial and technical staff to man more cooperatives has been a serious impediment to their expansion in the past and with a large increase of new district cooperatives and branches, the appointment of competent staff can become a critical issue.

### Required Training of Public Sector Officials

Public sector institutions and training programmes of public sector employees will be strengthened gradually to increase their capacity to plan and implement rural development programmes and projects. Training courses will be tailored to the following needs,

1. High level administrators, planners and regional governors;
2. district and middle-level officials;
3. village council officials and village workers.

### Need to Increase the Data Base for Rural Development Planning

The Government of Somalia will strengthen the facilities available at the Central Statistical Department (CSD) of the Ministry of National Planning (MNP) and set up a unit to increase data available on rural socio-economic conditions and carry out analyses of such data in order to assist in planning for more effective rural development. The priority areas for data gathering and analysis are:

1. small scale farming systems devoted to cereals production and livestock-raising;
2. rural poverty, its incidence and causes in the country as a whole, but especially in agricultural areas of concentrated populations in the south;
3. problems of livestock-raising by nomads and how to decrease risks to those families most susceptible to drought.

### Monitoring and Evaluation of Rural Development Progress

Monitoring of the rural development impact of the various policies, programmes and projects is necessary to ascertain whether work components are being coordinated with timely delivery of inputs and services; mid-term objectives are being attained and benefits are accruing to the intended rural areas or target poverty groups. Periodic evaluation of results during the ten year period is necessary to chart the cumulative progress made towards the overall ten year rural development objectives, to reappraise and revise those objectives if necessary, to adjust policy and programme contents to conform to any revised objectives, and to ascertain progress towards the ultimate national of poverty eradication.

In Somalia, where the main responsibility for sectoral development components in macro-planning will continue to be with the relevant ministries and agencies, monitoring and evaluation will be attended to by the concerned ministries and agencies, but such activities will be coordinated by the Ministry of National Planning. For this purpose the Government of Somalia will set up a unit to monitor and evaluate progress - (in the Ministry of National, The MNP has already created a Monitoring and Evaluation Unit) - in planning implementation and development, with special focus on rural development, in the Ministry of National Planning (the MNP has already created a Monitoring and Evaluation Unit).

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following bibliography relevant to issues of rural development, settlements and refugees relies upon and builds on the excellent work done by B.C. Spooner in his study: Refugee Settlement in the Lower Shabelle Region, Somalia. A Report to the National Refugee Commission and Save the Children Federation-USA; June 1984.

It is organized as follows:

- A. Surerd Publications.
- B. General Somali Developments
- C. References on Settlements and Rural Developments
- D. On Refugees
- E. Refugee Health

A. SURED PUBLICATIONS

Hussein M. Adam and Richard Ford (eds.), New Approaches to Somalia's Rural Development Strategy (Worcester: Surerd/Clark Publications, 1986).

\_\_\_\_\_, Proceedings of the National Seminar on Energy and Environmental Management Needs (Juba Hotel, February 15-17, 1982) (Worcester, Surerd/Clark Publications, 1984).

\_\_\_\_\_, Proceedings: Photovoltaic Powered Technologies and their Uses in Developing Nations (28 February, 1986) (Worcester: Sured/Clark Publications, March 1986).

Hussein M. Adam et. al., (eds.) Burao Seminar on Environmental Management and Energy Needs (June 8-11, 1983) (Worcester: Surerd/clark Publication, 1984).

Surerd, A Preliminary Survey of the Nugal Region (Mogadishu: Surerd Publication, 1982).

\_\_\_\_\_, A Pilot Survey of Togdheer Region (Worcester: Surerd Publications, 1986).

\_\_\_\_\_, A Preliminary Report on Water Lifting/Storage Costs, (A paper prepared and presented at the National Conference on Somalia's Rural Development Stratehy, Juba Hotel, Mogadishu, June 24-29, 1985.

B. BIBLIOGRAPHY--SOMALIA: GENERAL DEVELOPMENTS

- Adam, Hussein, Revolutionary Transformations of the Somali Language (Los Angeles: UCLA African Studies Center Occasional Publication, No. 20, 1980.)
- Aronson, Dan, "Kinsmen and Comrades: Towards a Class Analysis of the Somali Pastoral Sector," Nomadic Peoples, No. 7, Nov. 1980, pp. 14-23.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Must Nomads Settle? Some Notes Toward Policy on the Future of Pastoralism," in When Nomads Settle, P.C. Salzman, ed., Praeger, N.Y., 1980, pp. 173-84.
- AFSC (1983) "Reports on Community Projects in Bayi and Sanaag Regions"
- Berry, L. and Johnston I, Eastern African Country Profiles: Country Profile Number Four--The Republic of Somalia, International Development Program, Clark University, Worcester, Ma., June 1983.
- Boateng, M.Y., et al., "Farming systems in the Lower Shebelle Region," Utah State University Team and Somali Counterparts, Ag. Extension and Farm Mgt. Project, USAID/Som, Working Paper, 3/85.
- Buchholzer, John, The Horn of Africa, Angus and Robertson, London, 1959.
- Cassanelli, Lee V., The Shaping of Somali Society: Reconstructing the History of a Pastoral People, 1600-1900, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1982.
- Castagno. A.A., "The Political Party System in the Somali Republic: A Balancing-Coalitional Approach," in Political Parties and National Integration in Tropical Africa, James S. Coleman and Carl G. Rosberg, eds., University of California Press, Berkely, 1964, pp. 512-59.
- Harvard Institute for International Development, "Quantitative Analysis of Incentives and Disincentives for the Expansion of Industrial Output and Employment in Somalia," HIID, Cambridge, Ma., 7/85.
- Hoben, Allan, et al., "Somalia: A Social and Institutional Profile," Boston University African Studies Center, Boston, Ma., 3/83.
- IBRD, "Somalia: Population, Health, and Nutrition Sector Report," 9/5/85.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Somalia: Toward Economic Recovery and Growth," 8/20/85.
- Kurian, George Thomas, "Somalia," Encyclopedia of the Third World, vol.2, Facts on File, N.Y., 1978, pp.1300-1313.
- Lewis, I.M., "Conformity and Contrast in Somali Islam, : in Islam in Tropical Africa, I.M. Lewis, ed., International African Institute, London, 1980, pp.240-252.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Dualism in Somalia Notions of Power," Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute, vol. 93, part 1, Jan-Jne 1963, pp. 109-16.

- \_\_\_\_\_, "Loneage Continuity and Modern Commerce in Northern Somaliland," in Markets in Africa, Paul Bohannon and George Dalton, eds., Northwestern University Press, 1962, pp.365-85.
- \_\_\_\_\_, A Modern History of Somalia: Nations and State in the Horn of Africa, Longman, London, 1980.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Nationalism and Particularism in Somalia," in Tradition and Transition in East Africa, P.H. Gulliver, ed., Routledge and Kegan Paul London, 1969, pp.339-61.
- \_\_\_\_\_, A Pastoral Democracy, Oxford University Press, 1961.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "The Politics of the 1969 Somali Coup," Journal of Modern African Studies, 10:3 (1972), pp. 383-408.
- Mahoney, Frank, "Problems of Community Development in Somalia: The Pastoral Nomads," USAID/Wash., n.d. (ca.1969?), 28pp.
- Mehmet, Ozay, "Effectiveness of Foreign Aid--The Case of Somalia," Journal of Modern African Studies, 9:1(1971), p.31-47.
- Miller, Norman N., "The Other Somalia, : Parts 1 and 2, American Universities Field Staff, Hanover, N.H., 1981.
- Nelson, Harold, ed., Somalia: A Country Study, U.S. Government, Washington, 1982.
- Pankhurst, E.Sy.via, Ex-Italian Somaliland, Greenwood Press, Publishers, N.Y., 1951.
- Pierino, Ianelli, The Principles of Pasture Improvement and Range Management and their Application in Somalia, FAO, Rome, 1984.
- Putnam, Diana, B. "Preliminary Socio-Economic Survey of Bay Region, Somalia," USAID/SOM, 9/82 116M.
- Sheik-Abdi, "Ideology and Leadership in Somalia," Journal of Modern African Studies, 19:1 (1981), pp.163-72.
- "Somalia," in the Quarterly Economic Review of Uganda, Ethiopia Somalia, and Djibouti, published by The Economist, 1984 no.3, 1985 nos.1-3.
- Somali Democratic Republic, Ministry of Information and National Guidance, "The Development Programmes in the Juba Valley are necessary for the Country's Economic Transformation," Mogadishu, 1982.
- \_\_\_\_\_, Ministry of National Planning, :National Development Strategy and Programme, :Mogadishu, 9/85.
- Somali Institute of Public Administration, "Report of the SIPA Special Seminar on What Went Wrong with the Somali first Five-Year Economic Plan (1963-67)" Mogadishu, 1967.
- Stephenson, James, Zalla, Tom, and Gunn, Susan, "Juba River Valley Development, Bardhere Dam and Downstream Facilities: Engineering Review, Summary of

- Economic Aspects, and Sociological Issues," USAID/Som, 10/82.
- Swift, Jeremy, "Pastoral Development in Somalia: Herding Cooperatives as a Strategy against Desertification and Famine, : in Desertification: Environmental Degradation in and around Arid Lands, Michael H. Glantz ed., Westview Press, Boulder, Co., 1977, pp.275-305.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "The Development of Livestock Trading in a Nomadic Pastoral Economy: The Somali Case" in Pastoral Production and Society, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1979, pp.447-465.
- Tucker, Jonathan B., "The Politics of Refuges in Somalia, : Horn of Africa, 5:3 (1983), pp.20-31.
- UN Committee on the Rural Economic Development of the Trust Territories, "Land Alienation, and Land and Population Distribution in Somaliland Under Italian Administration," UN Trusteeship Council, 7/9/51.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Land Legislation and Land Tenure in Somaliland Under Italian Administration," UN Trusteeship Council, 5/24/51.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Land Utilization in Somaliland Under Italian Administration," UN Trusteeship Council, 5/12/52.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Population, Land Categories and Tenure in Somaliland Under Italian Administration," UN Trusteeship Council, 3/6/52.
- UNDP, "Third Country Programme for Somalia (1982-86)," UNDP/Country and Inter-country Programmes and Projects, 3/82.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Somalia: Annual Development Report, 1984," UNDP/Mog., 6/85.
- \_\_\_\_\_, Fact Sheets on numerous projects.
- \_\_\_\_\_, and IBRD, "Somalia: Report of a Joint Technical Cooperation Assessment Mission," 10/85.
- UN Food and Agricultural Organization, "Rehabilitation of Agriculture in Africa--Project Proposals: Anex 16--Somalia," Rome, 3/29/85.
- UN General Assembly, "Report of the Multi-agency Drought Mission to Somalia (1-8 Oct. 1981)," Report of the Secretary General, N.Y., 11/10/81.
- UNHCR, fact sheets (7/85) and report on Somalia situation (late 1983?).
- UN Office for Emergency Operations in Africa, "Africa Emergency Facts: Somalia," 3/29/85.
- Un Visiting Mission to Trust Territories of East Africa, 1957, "Report on the Trust Territory of Somalia Under Italian Administration," UN Trusteeship Council, 1957.
- USAID, "Annual Budget Submission, FY 1987: Somalia, : USAID/Som, 6/85.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Congressional Presentation, FY 1986 Annex I: Africa."

- \_\_\_\_\_, "Somalia: Country Development Strategy Statement: FY 1987," USAID/Som, 1/85.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Project Paper for the Juba Development Analytical Studies Project" (9/83) and Amendment (6/2/85).
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Project Paper for the Somalia Agricultural Delivery Systems Project" (6/27/79).
- \_\_\_\_\_, Partners in Development: An Operational Manual for the Somalia Development Partner Projects USAID/Somalia, 1986.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Project Paper for the Somalia Management Training and Development Management Training and Development Project (SOMTAD)," USAID/Somalia, 1986.
- USAID, "The Policy/Regulatory Environment for Private Investment in Somalia," Prepared by Phillip E. Karp (SRI International) and Consultant Jan-Hendrik Van Leeuwen, SRI Project IMU (550) -1622 for USAID/Somalia, February, 1986.
- USAID, "An Evaluation of the Somali Kismayo Meat Factory," Prepared by ISTI for USAID/Somalia March 1986.
- \_\_\_\_\_, "Somalia, the Foundry and Mechanical Workshop: Options for Survival" final prepared by IST, for USAID/Somalia for USAID/Somalia February, 1986.
- USAID, "Results of Consultancy for the Coastal Development Project, Somalia," Prepared by ISTI for USAID/Somalia, June 1985.
- U.S. Commerce Department, "Foreign Economic Trends and their Implications for the United States: Somalia," Dept. of Commerce, 12/83.
- Waldron, Sidney R. and Jennifer, "Is There a Future for the Ogaden Refugees?" Cultural Survival Quarterly, 8:1 (Spring 1984), pp.54-58.

C. REFERENCES ON SETTLEMENTS  
AND RURAL DEVELOPMENTS

- ALI, Abdulli Sheik (1984)**  
A Case Study of the Somali Resettlement Programme for Nomads. Draft Thesis Under Preparation. University of N. Carolina. January 1984.
- AFRICARE (1983)**  
Jalalaqsi Irrigated Land Settlement for Refugees Socioeconomic Survey. Research Proposal to National Refugee Commission, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- ALPERS, Edward A. (1983)**  
Mogadishu in the Nineteenth Century: A Regional Perspective. Journal of African History 24 (4) pp 441-459.
- ANGLIA CONSULTANCY CONSORTIUM (n.d.)**  
A Proposal for Evaluating the Development of Small-Scale Agricultural Settlements in the Riverine Areas of the Northwest Region of Somalia.
- ANTONIOTTO, R. (1980)**  
The Fishing Settlement at Baraawe: Notes on Cultural Adaptation. In Somalia and the World, Hussein M. Adam, ed. Vol 2. pp237-250. Mogadishu: State Printing Agency.
- AWAL, Abdul (1980)**  
A Study on Rural Migration to Magadiscio. Mogadishu, Somalia: Somali Institute of Development Administration and Management (SIDAM).
- BAKHET, Omer (1983)**  
UNHCR Experiences in Implementing Rural Settlements for Refugees. Paper Prepared for the 11th Meeting of the ACC Task Force on Rural Development, 11-13th April, 1983. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations.
- BARTLET, D.F. (1975)**  
Activities Related to Resettlement of Refugees in Somalia. Report to the Committee on Armed Services. U.S. Senate 94th Congress. Washington D.C. U.S. Government Printer.
- BOX, Thadis W. (1971)**  
Nomadism and Land Use in Somalia. Economic Development and Cultural Change 19 (2): 227-228.
- CARR, Claudia J. (1983)**  
The Transition Between Relief and Development: Methods for Conceptualization. Paper Presented at the 26th Annual Meeting of African Studies Association, Boston, Massachusetts.

- CENTRAL STATISTICAL DEPARTMENT (1978)**  
Mogadishu Family Budget Survey 1977. Mogadishu, Somalia: Central Statistical Department, Ministry of National Planning.
- CENTRAL STATISTICAL DEPARTMENT (1981)**  
Report on the Demographic Survey of Benadir, Bay, and Lower Shabelle Regions of Somalia 1980-81. Mogadishu: Ministry of National Planning.
- CINGOLANI, Giorgio (1983)**  
Technical and Economic Considerations of the Feasibility of a Refugee Resettlement Pilot Project in Hiran Region, Somalia (Evaluation of Proposed Sites at Dolo Yabeen and Caqcaboi). Unpublished Report on File at the National Refugee Commission, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- CLAXTON, A.E. (1983)**  
An Institutional Analysis of Local Government in the Somali Democratic Republic. USAID, December 1983.
- EATON, P. (1983)**  
Jalalaqsi Irrigation Scheme. Non-Agricultural Income - Generating Activities. Report to UNHCR Specialist Support Unit. Geneva. June 1983.
- FAO/WORLD FOOD PROGRAMME**  
Report on Interim Evaluation of WFP Assisted Project: Resettlement of Nomads as Farmers and Fishermen. Rome.
- FREYMAN, MOYE W. and THOMAS M. MCDEVITT (1984)**  
RAPID II Draft Country Strategy Paper: Somalia. Report to USAID/Somalia by the Futures Group and the Carolina Population Center, University of Carolina at Chapel Hill.
- FORNI, E. (1980)**  
Women's New Role and Status in the Baraawe Settlement. In Somalia and the World, Hussein M. Adam, ed. Vol.2, pp 251-265. Mogadishu, Somalia: State Printing Agency.
- GERMAN AGENCY FOR TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION (GTZ) (1982)**  
Evaluation of the Agricultural Settlement Project Kurten-Warey and Sablaale. Ministry of National Planning/SDA, Somalia, October 1982.
- HAAKONSEN, Jan M. (1979)**  
Survey of the Fishing Co-operatives for Resettled Nomads in Somalia. Montreal: Labour Studies Group, Centre for Developing-Area Studies, McGill University.
- HAAKONSEN, Jan M. (1980)**  
The Fishing Co-operatives for Resettled Nomads Revisited. Montreal: Labour Studies Group, Centre for Developing-Area Studies, McGill University.
- HANCOCK, G. (1977)**  
Nomads Settle for the Seaside. Geographical Magazine 49 (11): 679-684.

**HANNOVER, WOLFGANG AND DIETER WAFFENSCHMIDT (1982)**

Evaluation of the Agricultural Settlement Projects Kurten-Warey and Sablaale and Proposals for Future Development. Report to the Government of the Somali Democratic Republic Commissioned by the German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ). Mogadishu: Ministry of National Planning.

**HANNOVER, WOLFGANG AND DIETER WAFFENSCHMIDT (1983)**

Summary of a Preliminary Report on a Reconnaissance Survey of the Lower Shabelli Region in Somalia for the Identification of Potential Settlement Areas. Report to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the National Refugee Commission, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**HANNOVER, WOLFGANG AND DIETER WAFFENSCHMIDT (1984)**

Reconnaissance Survey of Potential Settlement Areas for Refugee Settlement in the Lower Shabelli Region of Somalia. Report Commissioned by NRC, UNHCR and GTZ, January 1984.

**HITCHCOCK, Robert K. (1984)**

Agricultural and Non-Agricultural Settlements in Somalia. National Refugee Commission Working Paper No. 2. Mogadishu: Planning Unit, National Refugee Commission.

**HYDRAULIC ENGINEERING CORPORATION OF CHINA (HECC) (1982)**

Jalalaqsi Agricultural Settlement, Somali Democratic Republic: Description of Hydraulic Engineering. Report to the National Refugee Commission and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**HYDRAULIC ENGINEERING CORPORATION OF CHINA (HECC) (1984)**

Topographic Survey Report: Jalalaqsi Agricultural Settlement, Somali Democratic Republic, 83/AP/SOM/MA/7/AG(N) JAS. Report to the National Refugee Commission and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH COUNCIL (1982)**

Soci-Economic Research on Nomad Settlements in Somalia. Settlement Development Agency, August 1982.

**INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (1972)**

Report to the Government of the Somali Democratic Republic on the Integrated Development of the Nomadic Zones. Geneva: ILO Regular Program of Technical Assistance, International Labour Office.

**MINISTRY OF NATIONAL PLANNING (1983)**

Integrations of Refugees in Development Programmes. Proposals for ICARA II. Mogadishu.

**NATIONAL REFUGEE COMMISSION (1983a)**

A Paper on Policy and Programme Activities Submitted by His Excellency, the Extraordinary Commissioner, National Refugee Commission, Mogadishu, Somalia for the UNHCR Senior Level Mission Visiting Somalia from 13 to 30 March 1983. Mogadishu: National Refugee Commission.

- LEWIS, HERBERT S. (1982)  
The Africare Social Analysis, Jalalaqsi Agriculture and Relocation Project. Report to Africare, Mogadishu, Somalia and Washington, D.C.
- LEWIS, HERBERT S., CAROL KERVEN, AND NANCY SOUTHERLAND (1983)  
Urbanization and Outmigration in Somalia. Draft Preliminary Report to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- LEWIS, HERBERT AND BENJAMIN WISNER (1981)  
Refugee Rehabilitation in Somalia - Report of a Mission, March 1981. Report Prepared for the US Agency for International Development, Washington, DC.
- LEWIS, I.M. (1968)  
From Nomadism to Cultivation: The Expansion of Political Solidarity in Southern Somalia. In Man in Africa, Mary Douglas and Phyllis M. Kaberry, eds. pp 59-77. London: Tavistock Publications.
- LEWIS, I.M. (1975)  
The Dynamics of Nomadism: Prospects for Sedentarization and Social Change. In Pastoralism in Tropical Africa, Theodore Monod, ed. pp 426-442. London: Oxford University Press.
- LEWIS, I.M. (1979)  
Kurtenwaare Settlement Programme: Social Soundness. In USAID Project Paper: Kurtenwart Settlement Project. Mogadishu, Somalia: USAID/Somalia.
- LIGHT, F. DENIS AND A. ASHUR (1983)  
Final Evaluation of Kurtenwaare Settlement Project (649-0103). Evaluation Report to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- MERRYMAN, NANCY HAWK (1980)  
Changing Patterns of Labour Utilization Among Nomadic and Sedentarizing Somali Populations in Northern Kenya. Unpublished Manuscript.
- MEYERS, RICHARD L. (1983)  
Toward a Rural Development Strategy for USAID/Somalia. Report to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- NATIONAL REFUGEE COMMISSION (1983b)  
Speech Made by His Excellency Abdi Mohamed Tarah, Extraordinary Commissioner of the National Refugee Commission, at the 34th Meeting of the Executive Committee of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 10 October, 1983, in Geneva. Mogadishu: National Refugee Commission.
- NATIONAL REFUGEE COMMISSION (1983c)  
Government's Policy Towards Refugees. Paper Prepared for a Visiting United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Mission to Somalia, October 1983. Mogadishu: National Refugee Commission.

**NEW TRANSCENTURY FOUNDATION (1983)**

Water Resource and Road Development for Refugee Settlement in Northwest Somalia. A Proposal to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**OMAR, MOHAMMED J. (1978)**

Settling Nomads in Somalia. In Basic Education for Nomads. Report of a Seminar Held in Mogadishu, Somalia, 1-9 April 1978. UNICEF Eastern Africa Regional Office, Nairobi, Kenya.

**PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT COLLABORATIVE INTERNATIONAL (PADCO) (1983)**

Urban Development Assessment of Mogadishu, Somalia. Report Prepared for the Office of Housing and Urban Programs, Washington, DC.

**PUZO, WILLIAM DANIEL (1972)**

Mogadishu, Somalia: Geographical Aspects of Its Evolution, Population, Functions and Morphology. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

**RABILEH ASSOCIATES (1979)**

Agricultural Settlements in the Somali Democratic Republic: A Socio-Economic Evaluation. Report on File at the Settlement Development Agency, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**RISDALE, TOD (1984)**

A Case Study of the Somalia Resettlement Program for Nomads. Report on File at the Settlement Development Agency, Mogadishu, Somalia.

**RAJAGOPALAN, V.K. (1981)**

In-Depth Labour Availability Survey in the Two Nomad Settlements of Somalia (Kurtenwaarey and Sablaale): Assignment Report, September 1980. Mogadishu, Somalia: International Labour Organisation.

**REFUGEE AGRICULTURAL UNIT (1984)**

Policy Guidelines for Refugee Agricultural Activities 1984. Mogadishu: Refugee Agricultural Unit and National Refugee Commission.

**SAVE THE CHILDREN FEDERATION (USA) (1983)**

\* Study on Refugee Settlement - Lower Shabelle Region. Mogadishu, Somalia: Save the Children Federation (USA).

**SCUDDER, Thayer (1981)**

From Relief to Development: Some Comments on Refugee and other Settlement in Somalia. Report to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu.

**SETTLEMENT DEVELOPMENT AGENCY AND INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH CENTRE (1982)**

Report on the Socio-Economic Research on Nomad Resettlement in Somalia. Mogadishu, Somalia: SDA and IDRC.

**SOMALI RESEARCH GROUP (1981)**

Food Production Systems and Environmental Rehabilitation in Somalia: Contributions to a Discussion Seminar, June 3-4 1981. Arlington, Virginia: Somali Research Group

**SPOONER, B. (1983)**

The Jalalaqsi Irrigation Project Agricultural Economic Report.  
Report to UNHCR. Specialist Support Unit Geneva. June 1983.

**STATE PLANNING COMMISSION (1979)**

An Evaluation of Kurtenwarey and Sablaale Settlements. Mogadishu,  
Somalia: State Planning Commission, Ministry of National Planning.

**TRANSCENTRY INC (1983)**

Refugee Settlement in Somalia: A National Economic Opportunity.  
Report to USAID/Somalia, Mogadishu.

**TRIERWEILER, J.F. (1978)**

Field Survey of Potential Sites for the Resettlement of Refugees in  
the Hiran Region of Somalia.

**UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY (1980)**

Assistance to the Drought-Stricken Areas in Somalia, Report of the  
Secretary-General. Special Economic and Disaster Relief Assistance.  
No.A/35/560, 30 October 1980. New York: United Nations.

**UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSION FOR REFUGEES (1983)**

Jalalaqsi Irrigated Land Settlement for Refugees: Technical  
Appraisal Report. Specialist Support Unit, Geneva. August 1983.

**UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSION FOR REFUGEES (1983)**

\* Potential for Land Settlement for Refugees in Qoriolet, Somalia.  
Specialist Support Unit, Geneva. September 1983.

**UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSION FOR REFUGEES**

Possibilities and Options for the Settlement of Refugees in Somalia.  
Mission Report Specialist Support Unit, Geneva. Oct-Nov 1983.

**WOOD, John (1983)**

Uncharted Territory Between Relief and Development. University of  
Hamburg, Germany, August 1-6 1983.

**WORLD BANK (1976)**

Appraisal of the Somalia Drought Rehabilitation Programme - Shabelli  
Area Settlement Project. Rainfed Crop Production. Washington.

D. ON REFUGEES

- BEVILLE, CLAUDIA (1982)  
Report of a Three Week Socio-Cultural Reconnaissance of the Refugee Population in the Gedo Region. Report Submitted to USAID, Mogadishu, Somalia, June 1982.
- CAFFREY, PATRICIA B., FAIRFAX ABOKOR KHAYRE, ABDULLAHI MIREH, AND RUQIYA HASHI WARSAME (1983)  
\* Save the Children Federation - USA: Social Survey Report. Mogadishu, Somalia.
- CAHILL, K.M. (1979)  
Somalia: A Tragedy Beyond Cambodia's. Horn of Africa Vol 11. No. 4.
- CASTRO, A. PETER (1983)  
Luuq Jellow Social Survey. Report to CARE/Somalia. Mogadishu, November 1983.
- CASTRO, A. PETER (1983)  
The Crash-Qoqane Social Survey. Report to CARE/Somalia. Mogadishu, December 1983.
- CHRISTENSEN, HANNE (1982)  
Survival Strategies for and by Camp Refugees: Report on a Six-Week Exploratory Sociological Field Study into the Food Situation of Refugees in Camps in Somalia. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. Report No. 823.
- DEAN, VIRGINIA LEE BARNES (1983)  
A Needs Assessment Survey in Suriye Refugee Camp, June 1981. University of Hamburg, Germany, August 1-6, 1983.
- EVENSEN, A.L. (1981)  
Assisting Refugee Women Improve their Skills in Food Production, Food Handling, Nutrition and Adult Teaching Methods. Workshop Report Nov. 27 - Dec. 8. Genele Agricultural Training Centre.
- GULAI, M.A. (1982)  
Socio-Economic Background of Refugees in Somalia. In Refugee Agriculture and Self-Reliance in Somalia. Mogadishu: United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
- HALL, EVE (1982)  
Evaluation Report: Income-Generating Projects for Women Refugees in Somalia. (ILO/Neth/80/SOM/1). Report Prepared for the Rural Employment Policies Branch, Employment and Development Department, ILO, Geneva, Switzerland.

- HITCHCOCK, ROBERT K. (1983)**  
Socio-Economic Research Among Refugees in Somalia. National Refugee Commission Working Paper No. 1. Mogadishu: Planning Unit, National Refugee Commission.
- HITCHCOCK, ROBERT K., (ed) (1984)**  
Proceedings of the Seminar on Socio-Ecological Research Among Refugees in Somalia. Mogadishu: National Refugee Commission and Experiment in International Living.
- HORTON, TED (1982)**  
\* The Socio-Economic Background of the Qorioley Refugees. Mogadishu: Save the Children Federation (USA).
- INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (1982)**  
Income-Generating Project for Refugee Women in Somalia. Progress Report. Geneva. April to December 1982.
- INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (1983)**  
Multi-Bilateral Programme of Technical Co-operation Integrated Refugee Camp Development Project. Geneva.
- JOINT AFRICAN/AMERICAN RESEARCH COMMITTEE FOR REFUGEES IN NE AFRICA (1982)**  
Cover Statement Submitted to the Ford Foundation. Copy on File in the National Refugee Commission, Mogadishu, Somalia.
- JOINT AFRICAN/AMERICAN RESEARCH COMMITTEE FOR REFUGEES IN NE AFRICA (1983)**  
Report on the State of the Joint African/American Research Committee in Mogadishu, Somalia. Mogadishu: JAARC (Somalia) and the Ministry of Higher Education, July 1983.
- MCROBIE, G. (1983)**  
\* Visit to Save the Children Project at Qorioley. Report of Visit May 5-11. International Technology Development Group.
- MELANDER, G. (1980)**  
Refugees in Somalia. Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Research Report No. 56.
- MELBAA, GADAA (1980)**  
Oromia. Finfine.
- MESSI, E.B. (1983)**  
\* Reflections and Proposed Programming Strategies for the Application of the CBIRD Model to the SCF Programme in Somalia. Save the Children Federation - USA. April 1983.
- MINISTRY OF NATIONAL PLANNING (1981)**  
Short and Long Term Programme for Refugee in the Somali Democratic Republic. Mogadishu: Somali Democratic Republic.
- MUTTEEJA, POONAM (1982)**  
Potentially Viable Income - Generating Activities in Somalia. International Labour Organisation, November 1982.

- RAHMAN, MD. AZIZUR (1982)  
Soci-Economic Study of the Refugee Farmers (Camp 1, Jalalaqsi, Hiran, Somalia). Mogadishu, Somalia: United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
- ROSS, S. AND B. SHIPKA (1984)  
Proceedings for Management Seminars February 6-7, February 11, 1984. Experiment in International Living, Mogadishu, March 1984.
- RUDKIN-JONES, JULIA (1983)  
International Aid to Refugees in Somalia. University of Hamburg, Germany, August 1-6, 1983.
- SAVE THE CHILDREN FEDERATION (USA) (1982)  
\* Qorioley Refugee Self-Reliance Project. Sub-Project Proposal, Refugee Self-Reliance Project (AID No. 649-0123). Mogadishu, Somalia.
- SAVOIE, MICHELLE AND MELINDA SMALE (1983)  
\* VITA Stove User Survey: Survey Results and Recommendations for Survey Procedure. Mogadishu, Somalia: Volunteers in Technical Assistance.
- SOMALI ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND ARTS (1982)  
Proposal for a Study on Somalia's Invisible Refugees Presented to the National Refugee Commission (NRC). Mogadishu: SOMAC, December 1982.
- TODD, D. (1981)  
Income - Generating Opportunities for Refugee in Somalia. Report Prepared for the Programming and Co-ordination Section, United Nations High Commission for Refugees, Geneva.
- UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSION FOR REFUGEES (1979)  
\* Report of the Mission to Somalia. Dec. 10-16, 1979.
- UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSION FOR REFUGEES (1982)  
\* Refugee Situation in Somalia. Mogadishu, Somalia: UNHCR.
- UNITED STATES AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (1982)  
Refugee Self-Reliance (649-0123) Project Paper. Mogadishu, Somalia: USAID.
- VERTONGEN, R AND M. CARAEL (1981)  
Refugee Camps in Somalia: A Micro Survey (March 1980). Disasters 1981, 3: 18-23.

E. REFUGEE HEALTH

**CENTRE FOR DISEASE CONTROL - USA (1980)**

Report of the Epidemiology Team to the Refugee Health Unit.  
Ministry of Health, Mogadishu.

**THOMAS, ABBY (1982)**

Bringing Somali Nomads into the Primary Health Care Program and Training Nomad Community Health Workers, II: Anthropological Considerations. Arlington, Virginia: Medical Services Consultants Inc.

**HEIDE, LUTZ (1983)**

The Refugee Health Unit of the Somali Ministry of Health: A History of an Extra-Ordinary Successful Somali Programme. University of Hamburg, Germany, August 1-6, 1983.

**HENSENSON, P.L. AND R.J. BIELLEK (1981)**

Health and Nutrition Service Delivery to Refugees in the Somali Democratic Republic, 1980.

**KASTNER, ROSEMARY (1983)**

Development of Primary Health Care Services in Somali Refugee Camps. University of Hamburg, Germany, August 1-6, 1983.

**MURRAY, M.J., A.B. MURRAY, M.B. MURRAY, AND C.J. MURRAY (1976)**

Somali Food Shelters in the Ogaden Famine and their Impact on Health. The Lancet, June 12, 1976. p. 1283-1285.

**SIMMONDS, S.P. (1979)**

Appropriate Health Services with Refugees - with Particular Reference to Somalia. UK: African Studies Association Symposium on Refugees, September 1979.