



Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development
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Sustainable Agricultural Livelihood Restoration, Rehabilitation and Resilience in Kenya

Training Manual

SECTION ONE

LIVELIHOODS ANALYSIS

Introduction

Livelihoods analysis aims at understanding how people source, develop and use assets within a complex set of trends, shocks, and formal and informal policies and institutional arrangements. Such analysis is commonly based on a livelihood framework which categorises assets in terms of five main types of capital:

Human capital: This represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that together, enable people to pursue different ways of making a living. In pastoralist areas, formal education and health services are often poorly supported and geographically distributed. However, pastoralists possess rich indigenous knowledge on livestock health and production.

Social capital: This is the social resources which people use to pursue different ways of making a living. Social capital includes networks, group membership, relationships of trust, and access to the wider institutions of society. The concept of reciprocity is important, as are the exchanges which facilitate co-operation. Pastoralists often have strong social capital at community level, with complex systems of indigenous social support based on the exchange of livestock.

Financial capital: This is the financial resources which people use to achieve livelihood objectives. It relates to both production and consumption, and the availability of cash (or equivalent) which enables conversion to other types of capital.

Natural capital: This is the natural environmental resources which people use to make a living. It includes soil, water, vegetation and wildlife resources, and encompasses access rights and land ownership. In general, pastoralist areas are characterised by low rainfall with high spatial variability. It is this rainfall pattern which largely determines the seasonal movement of pastoral herds (transhumance), and the seasonal variations in production and markets.

Physical capital: This is the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. In pastoralist areas, the physical capital required to support livestock production is often poorly developed. This includes roads, communication infrastructure and livestock markets.

Access to and use of these different types of capital is determined by various factors:



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Seasonality: Particularly seasonal variations in rainfall, livestock production and the terms of trade for livestock and cereals.

Trends: Such as global climatic trends, the increasing occurrence and severity of drought, the growth of export markets for livestock, environmental change associated with bush encroachment, private enclosure of rangeland, and human population growth. Such as livestock disease epidemics and conflict; as drought becomes more regular and predictable it might be categorised as a seasonal factor rather than a shock.

1.1 UNDERSTANDING LIVELIHOODS SCOPES

Livelihood strategies

Livelihood strategy is how people access and use these assets, within the aforementioned social, economic, political and environmental contexts. The range and diversity of livelihood strategies are enormous. An individual may take on several activities to meet his/her needs. One or many individuals may engage in activities that contribute to a collective livelihood strategy. Within households, individuals often take on different responsibilities to enable the sustenance and growth of the family. In some cultures, this grouping may expand to a small community, in which individuals work together to meet the needs of the entire group.

Livelihood vulnerability

The strength of a given livelihood is not only measured by its productive outcomes, but equally by its resilience to shocks, seasonal changes and trends. Shocks might include natural disasters, wars and economic downturns. Availability of resources, income-generating opportunities and demand for certain products and services may fluctuate seasonally. More gradual and often predictable, trends in politics and governance, technology use, economics and availability of natural resources can pose serious obstacles to the future of many livelihoods. These changes impact the availability of assets and the opportunities to transform those assets into a “living”. Under such conditions, people must adapt existing strategies or develop new strategies in order to survive.

Livelihood interdependence

One final important characteristic of livelihoods is their interdependence. Very few livelihoods exist in isolation. A given livelihood may rely on other livelihoods to access and exchange assets. Traders rely on farmers to produce goods, processors to prepare them and consumers to buy them. Livelihoods also compete with each other for access to assets and markets. Thus, positive and



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negative impacts on any given livelihood will, in turn, impact others. This is a particularly important consideration when planning livelihood assistance.

Livelihood mapping

The livelihood mapping divides the country into areas where the rural population shares relatively homogeneous living conditions. The livelihood zone areas describe the agroecological and the socio-economic characteristics of the rural population, including the main livelihoods, the natural resources available, the potential constraints and priorities for development. The livelihood map is used to identify priority areas for investment according to the demand of the population. Livelihood mapping is therefore about gaining an accurate geographic and realistic cultural understanding of people's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (assets or capital endowments) and how they endeavour to convert these into positive livelihood outcomes. It mainly considers the main livelihood zones, farm typology, potential beneficiaries and threats to such livelihoods and the possible viable sustainable livelihoods that can be adopted.

There is no one-size-fits-all approach to livelihoods. Interventions must be adapted to the local context. Different factors fundamentally change the way livelihood interventions should be designed. This Manual provides a framework for assessment to help trainers determine the right combination of interventions to arrive at a holistic approach that is well adapted to the local context.

Emergency calamity cycle management

In the case of slow onset emergencies such as drought or desert Locust infestation, livelihood analysis highlights the need to protect assets and support the services and systems which in the long-term, are required for recovery and development. Increasingly, it is becoming questionable whether drought or desert locust infestations which are becoming cyclic and predictable may not really be a shock, but more a regular and predictable event which occurs seasonally.

In terms of the practicalities of designing Crop and livestock interventions, these can be categorised according to their relevance at a particular stage of a typical calamity cycle. Some interventions such as water supply and veterinary care are always needed, whereas other interventions are appropriate only at certain times. For example, support to commercial destocking should occur during the alarm/alert phases whereas restocking should take place during the recovery phase.



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Early livelihood-based programming

- Emergency food Supply
- Cash Transfer Programmes
- Input Supplies (Seeds, fertilisers, pesticides etc)
- Commercial destocking
- Feed supplementation
- Water supply
- Veterinary care
- Ongoing drought monitoring

These Manual refer to Crop and livestock interventions during the alert/alarm phase, the emergency phase and the recovery phase. A prerequisite for an effective and timely response is a strong early warning system based on livelihoods indicators. In pastoralist areas, such systems include indicators of livestock status and market conditions; while crops are diminishing supplies of essential staples, vegetables and common food items.

Assigning different interventions to different stages in the drought cycle indicates that combined interventions are often needed. For example, in the alert/alarm phase commercial destocking to remove some animals from the rangeland should be accompanied by efforts to protect the remaining livestock, such as veterinary care, feed supplementation and water provision. The need to combine different interventions simultaneously is a challenge, particularly if different interventions are assigned to different agencies - hence the need for strong coordination. Not only are different interventions appropriate at different stages of the calamity, the intensity and scale of the intervention often needs to change during the calamity cycle. An example of activities at different stages of a drought is provided in Table 1.1.



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Table 1.1. Example of the type and intensity of activities required at different stages of a calamity cycle

Stage of calamity cycle activities	
Alert	Organise meetings with government departments and relief Agencies Facilitate visits to areas of concern Assist commercial destocking Conduct water point surveys and check state of repair of water facilities; check status of water management committees (if any) If not already in place, start weekly tracking of cereal and livestock prices Check status of veterinary services, including availability of drugs in public and private sectors, and status of Community Animal Health Workers (CAHW)
Alarm	Scale up and intensify all the above activities, plus: Intensify commercial destocking Expand livestock/cereal exchange Define strategies for livestock feed supplementation Support veterinary care as needed Rapid rehabilitation of water points; coordinate with human water supply agencies as necessary
Emergency	Scale up all of the above activities, plus: Destocking for slaughter and local meat distribution Supplementary feeding of core breeding animals
Recovery	Maintain veterinary interventions, plus: Restocking of viable pastoralist households
No drought	Drought contingency planning

Current evidence points to the cost-effectiveness of early response to drought in pastoral areas using approaches such as commercial destocking. Emergency preparedness and contingency planning activities which can support early response to emergencies in pastoralist areas include the following:

Contingency plans and triggers – all agencies should develop contingency disaster plans with clearly- defined triggers for action and the subsequent release of funds and other resources. Such plans are informed by knowledge of past crises, and the types of response which can be implemented within a given operational and funding context. It is important that contingency plans are developed with local partners and include specific, clearly defined and pre-agreed triggers for prompting action and the release of contingency funds. In the case of ruminant livestock including



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camels, Knowledge on body weight and body condition scoring are critical triggers for intervention as a useful tool to mitigate the damage that can be caused by drought and other related calamities.

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