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An Assessment of Response Mechanisms to Climate Change - Related Conflicts in the Horn of Africa (HoA),

Disaster Response Management in Complex Emergency within Peace Support Operation in Eastern Africa



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Foreword

The International Peace Support Training Centre (IPSTC) is a research and training institution focusing on capacity building at the strategic, operational and tactical levels within the framework of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) and has developed to be the regional Centre of Excellence (CoE) for the African Standby Force (ASF) in Eastern Africa. IPSTC addresses the complexities of contemporary UN/AU integrated Peace Support Operations (PSOs) by describing the actors and the multidimensional nature of these operations. The research conducted covers a broad spectrum of issues ranging from conflict prevention through management to post-conflict reconstruction. The Centre has made considerable contribution in training and research on peace support issues in the Great Lakes region and the Horn of Africa (HoA) of Africa regions through design of training curricula, field research and publication of Occasional Papers and Issue Briefs. The Occasional Papers are produced annually, while Issue Briefs are produced quarterly. The Issue Briefs are an important contribution to the Vision and Mission of IPSTC.

The Fourth Quarter Issue Brief no 10 (2015) has two titles on peace and security architecture in Eastern Africa: *An Assessment of Response Mechanisms to Climate Change - Related Conflicts in the Horn of Africa (HoA)*, and *Disaster Response Management in Complex Emergency within Peace Support Operation in Eastern Africa*

The Issue Briefs provide insights into pertinent peace and security issues in the region that are useful to policy makers and aims to contribute to the security debate and praxis in the region. The articles in the Issue Brief are also expected to inform the design of training modules at IPSTC. The research and publication of this Issue Brief was made possible by support from the Government of Japan through UNDP.

Brig Patrick Nderitu
Director, IPSTC

Acronyms

ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
AMCOW	African Ministerial Council on Water
AU	Africa Union
CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CE	Complex Emergency
CEWARN	Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism
CEWERU	Conflict Early Warning and Response Units
COP	Conference of the Parties
CPMR	Conflict Prevention Management and Resolution
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
DIA	Diaspora Investment in Agriculture
DPC	District Peace Committees
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EA	Eastern Africa
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FM	Field Monitors
HoA	Horn of Africa
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFRC	The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development

IGADD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Drought and Development
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
ISAC	Interagency Standing Committee
ISAP	Institutional Strengthening Action Plan
LDC	Least Developed Countries
NAPA	National Adaptation Programs of Action
NBI	Nile Basin Initiative
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
NRI	National Research Institutes
NWICDP	North-Western Integrated Community Development Programme
OPA	Oromia Pastoralist Association
PFCC	Parliamentary Forum on Climate Change
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
PSO	Peace Support Operation
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SALW	Small Arms and Light Weapons
SECS	Sudan Environmental Conservation Society
TDRM	Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
USAID/EA	United States Agency for International Development/East Africa
WACDEP	Water, Climate and Development Programme

Definition of key terms

Disaster: A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources, necessitating a request to national or international levels for external assistance

Disaster risk management: The systematic process of using administrative directives, organizations, and operational skills and capacities to implement strategies, policies and improved coping capacities in order to lessen the adverse impacts of hazards and the possibility of disaster.

Disaster Response management: Comprehensive approach and activities to reduce the adverse impacts of disasters. This includes a sum of decisions, actions, public assistance and service provision taken during and after disaster, including immediate relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction, in order to save lives, reduce health impacts, ensure public safety and meet the basic subsistence needs of the people affected (UN DHA, 1992)

Complex Emergency: Humanitarian crisis with large-scale displacements of people, mass famine or food shortage, and fragile or failing economic, political, and social institutions resulting from considerable breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict and which requires an international response that goes beyond the mandate or capacity of any single and/or ongoing, (UN, 2007)

Complex political emergency: A situation with complex social, political and economic origins which involves the breakdown of state structures, the disputed legitimacy of host authorities, the abuse of human rights and possibly armed conflict, that creates humanitarian needs. The term is generally used to differentiate humanitarian needs arising from conflict and instability from those that arise from natural disasters (OCHA, 2003)

Vulnerability: The conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes, which increase the susceptibility of a community to the impact of hazards. For positive factors, which increase the ability of people to cope with hazards, (ReliefWeb 2008) www.reliefweb.int/glossaries

Eastern Africa: refer to 11 out of 18 countries as compiled UN this will include: Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Somalia, Kenya, South Sudan, Sudan, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania (UN 3013)

Peace Support Operation (PSO): Describe activities in complex humanitarian emergencies. PSOs may include peacekeeping and peace enforcement, as well as conflict prevention, peacemaking, peacebuilding and humanitarian operations, (ISS 2000).

Introduction to the Issue Briefs

The paper *An Assessment of Response Mechanisms to Climate Change - Related Conflicts in the Horn of Africa (HoA)* focuses on the various mechanisms that have been formulated with the aim of addressing the issue of climate change related conflicts in the HoA. Climate change is a phenomenon that impacts HoA states as a cross border issue. Armed conflicts among communities as they scramble and jostle for diminishing and scarce resources also tend to spill across the borders. The paper focuses on national, regional and international as well as traditionally-based response mechanisms to climate change. The second paper examines the *Disaster Response Management in Complex Emergency (CE) within Peace Support Operation(PSO) in Eastern Africa (EA)*. The paper explores : The nature of the CE in PSOs, Institutions dealing with CE in PSO; response mechanisms and strategies in addressing CE and their effectiveness and efficiency.

An Assessment of Response Mechanisms to Climate Change Related Conflicts in the Horn of Africa

By **Watson Karuma and Nelly Kibet**

Introduction

Conflict is endemic and pervades through society due to its nature, whether in its mild or severe form. The Horn of Africa (HoA) also referred to as the HoA in this paper and regarded as most conflict-affected sub-region in Africa, is a region that has endured and experienced heightened conflict levels some of which are intractable in nature. Some of the conflicts in the HoA emanate from climate change that contribute to the scarcity of natural resources that constitute the livelihood and means of survival for many communities (Leroy & Erda, 2011). The volatile HoA continues to grapple with the impacts of climate change. Indeed, many scholars (Markakis, 1998; Mengisteab, 2011) associate the HoA with famine, poverty, instability and conflict. Most parts of the region are semi-arid and arid with rapid climatic changes manifested in frequent droughts, rainfall changes, and raising temperatures. These results into chronic food and water shortage, displacement, forced migration, civil upheaval, cattle rustling and banditry that trigger and exacerbate conflicts in the region. These conflicts occur at interpersonal, intergroup and interstate level (Mengisteab, 2011).

In 2007, the Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) declared that by 2020, between 75 and 250 million people in Africa were projected to be exposed to increased water stress due to climate change. This observation by IPCC in 2007 was already a reality in the HoA going by its report published in 2014. The IPCC's fifth assessment report (2008) asserted that Africa's climate was already changing and the impacts were already being felt. According to Brown and Crawford (2009), scarcity of water due to climate change has resulted to security threats in the HoA. Persistent internal and intra-state conflicts within this region have escalated due to lack of water among other resources necessary for livelihoods. Indeed, drought and famine have become major underlying threats to food security in this region.

Funder, Cold-Ravnkilde and Ginsborg (2012), point out that climate change is a multiplier to conflict issues as it aggravates and triggers underlying issues. As a result, it flares up latent conflicts. Climatic conditions at their worst fuel conflicts by complicating resource sharing arrangements between communities. This normally happens when land becomes less fertile or is rendered unusable by floods which means people are forced to migrate to favorable areas. In addition, conflicts may also arise when those forced to migrate displace people in order to settle or when they compete for the available resources such as food, water or pasture for their animals.

Dannreuther (2007) argues that there is a clear linkage between environmental change and the numerous civil wars and violent conflicts witnessed in the poor regions of the world. When people are forced to move in pursuit of pastures for their animals, ethnic and group –identity tensions are bound to arise in the course of settling in the new areas. The 2004 conflict in the Darfur region of Sudan was based on multiple of grievances, most of which were due to effects of climate change. The UN General Secretary in 2007 argued that the conflict in Darfur region of Sudan started as “an ecological crisis arising, at least in part, from climate change.” In this regard, climate change is a risk multiplier that exacerbates and escalates conflicts (Messer, 2010).

The HoA is directly and adversely affected by climate change because, among others, of its high dependence on rain fed agriculture and the region’s limited capacity to adapt to its impact. With this realisation, there are response agencies set up to respond to climate change-related conflicts in the region. Most of these response mechanisms are effective but are faced with several challenges. Fragmented and uncoordinated policies, financial constraints, weak political will and commitment, lack of implementation of policies, proliferation of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) are some of the major challenges that hinder the effectiveness of the response mechanisms.

Organization of the Paper

This paper comprises seven sections. Following the introduction in section one, the second section looks at the problem statement, objectives and research questions guiding the paper. The next section will interrogate the theoretical framework that will apply to the paper. The fourth section covers the nature and types of climate change-related conflicts facing the HoA. The fifth section looks at the role and effectiveness of international, regional and nation-specific response mechanisms that address climate change-related conflicts in the region. The challenges facing these response agencies are briefly discussed in the sixth section while section seven constitutes the conclusion and recommendations.

Statement of the Problem

Evidence suggests that the turbulence in the Horn of Africa (HoA) is influenced by many factors one of them being climate change. There exist a number of response mechanisms formulated to curb climate change-related conflicts in the region. However, such conflicts are persistent and cyclical despite having agencies that respond to them. It is therefore imperative to identify and assess the effectiveness of such response mechanisms that attempt to address climate change-related conflicts in the region. This study will assess the response mechanisms that outline, plan and implement policies to curb climate change-related conflicts in the HoA. It also seeks to interrogate the effectiveness of such response mechanisms, identify the challenges that hinder the success of the mechanisms and provide guidance on the way forward.

Objectives

The paper is guided by the following objectives:

- Identify response mechanisms and strategies on climate change-related conflicts in the Horn of Africa.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of response mechanisms and strategies on climate change-related conflicts in the Horn of Africa.

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- Propose more effective ways of addressing climate change- related conflicts in the Horn of Africa.

Research Questions

- What are the response mechanisms and strategies on climate change-related conflicts in the Horn of Africa?
- To what extent are response mechanisms and strategies on climate change-related conflicts in the Horn of Africa effective?
- In which way can response mechanisms and strategies on climate change-related conflicts in the Horn of Africa be enhanced?

Conceptual Framework

Climate change is considered one of the major factors that exacerbate conflict in the HoA thus the need for appropriate mitigating response mechanisms. The response mechanisms are meant to ensure that the effects of climate change on the society do not breed conditions rife for armed conflict. Food shortage, forced migration, cattle rustling, banditry and civil upheaval are examples of different conflicts attributable to climate change as a result of scarcity and competition for the dwindling resources. As the above phenomena are persistent and cyclical, it is imperative to identify and assess the relevant policies and strategies in the region that attempt to address the symptoms and root causes of climate change related conflict. These responses and strategies that address climate change related conflicts in the HoA help in ensuring that its effects are mitigated through various national, regional and international mechanisms. The response mechanisms, for example, the Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), are identified, negotiated and implemented jointly by governments, development partners and other relevant stakeholders. It is a fact that climate change causes a situation where scarce resources cause friction and subsequent conflict among communities at inter-state and intra-state levels. For example, many communities living in the HoA are mainly pastoralists and agro-pastoralists and livestock is a key component of their livelihoods.

Water and pasture are critical for maintaining and sustaining livestock. Accordingly, when the wellbeing of their source of livelihood is threatened by drought and famine, communities tend to infringe, through migration, on areas where resources are available. As a result, conflict arises as underlying or new tensions are exacerbated from competition for the limited resources.

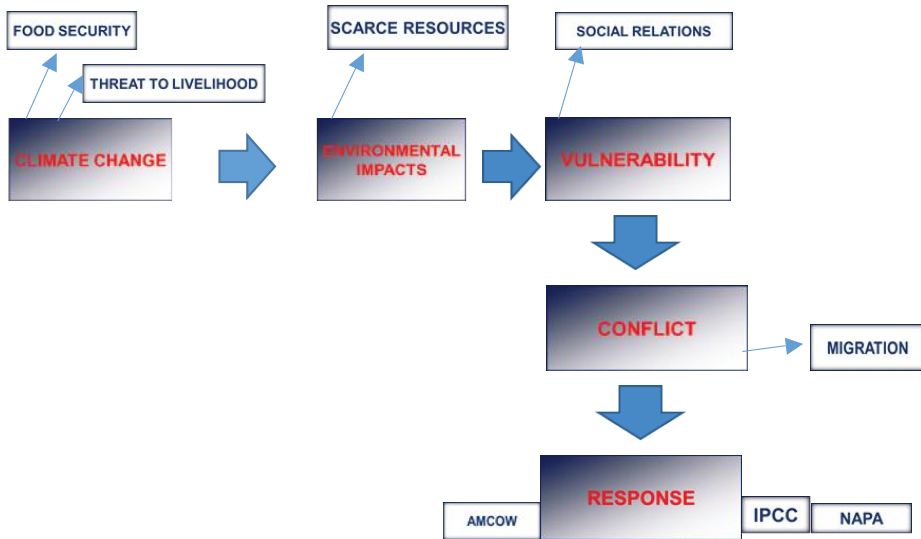


Fig. 1 The authors' impression of the paper's conceptual framework

Theoretical framework

Two theoretical frameworks: Human Needs and Relative Deprivation theories, are applied in the analysis of this paper.

Human Needs Theory

The theory holds that there are universal and non-negotiable needs, which are required for the development of human species. Human needs are the basic essentials that are required by individuals to live and attain well-being. Human beings are always striving to satisfy their needs to safeguard their survival. Failure to satisfy these human needs will lead to conflicts. Given that, all human beings have certain basic universal needs, when these needs are not satisfied, conflict is likely to occur.

Several conflict theorists have adopted Maslow's ideas on human needs and linked them to conflict theory. They suggest that unmet or frustrated basic human needs are the underlying causes of deep-rooted and intractable social conflicts. Advocates of human needs theory suggest that in order to resolve such conflicts, social institutions should develop new methods of understanding the needs and design ways of satisfying them.

According to Burton (1990), needs (identity, recognition, security, and personal development) are universal and primordial in the human species and are termed as ontological since they form an integral part of the human being. Need values are non-negotiable and will be pursued by all means available. These needs require to be addressed first before an active pursuit for peace and stability. He further argues that any threat to fundamental aspects of "being" and "having" would lead to violence. For Burton, when human needs are neglected, groups tend to use violence to demand for the satisfaction of those needs. Similarly, Jeong (2008) agrees that human needs are intrinsic to biological and physical survival. Human needs are not subject to elite control or undermined by authoritarian orders. Thus, need values cannot be controlled, suppressed or bargained by the environment.

The sources of intractable social conflicts in the HoA originate from a set of unsatisfied existential and other deep-seated needs (Burton, 1990). As already pointed out, the ontological needs of the inhabitants of the HoA cannot be bargained. Most climate change related conflicts in the HoA arise from the inhabitant's lack of water, food, pasture for their cattle and fertile land to cultivate. For instance, the Northern part of Kenya – Turkana, is a severely drought stricken region, and this has led to numerous deaths due to famine and other conflicts, that are linked to the struggle for physical needs such as food and water. The negative effects of climate change exacerbate the scarcity of these resources. According to Messer (2010), climate change decreases the availability of resources and in return people start competing for pasture, habitable and arable land, clean water and other resources. This challenges human security and in effect leads to increased violence and decreased standards of living.

Since the satisfaction of human needs is the ultimate prerequisite for stability of society, it is key to resolving conflicts. Response mechanisms, institutions and the governments in the Horn of Africa should be concerned with preventing conflicts from arising in the first place though, predicting future climate change occurrence and formulating and implementing policies that mitigate the lack of basic human needs due to the effects of climatic conditions. If this is done, inhabitants in the Horn of Africa will be well prepared to cope with the effects of climate change in the climate and thus, mitigate potential conflicts.

Relative Deprivation Theory

Climate change is a big threat to humankind in relation to its impact as an accelerant of conflict over use, access and ownership of resources particularly land and water. Negative impacts of climate change have left people's livelihoods in shambles and wallowing in poverty and social deprivation. The Relative Deprivation theory, developed by Ted Robert Gurr (1970), delves into the gap that exists between people's expectations and the reality on the ground, that is, how the situation is in relation to available resources and how it ought to be (Ubhenin, 2012). The scarcity of resources that exists in the HoA leaves communities in a quagmire of deprivation, as the resources available are sparse and limited. As a result, conflicts arise, for example, among the sedentary farmers and pastoralists over rights and entitlement to natural resources - water, pasture and land.

Duclos and Grégoire (2011) stress that,

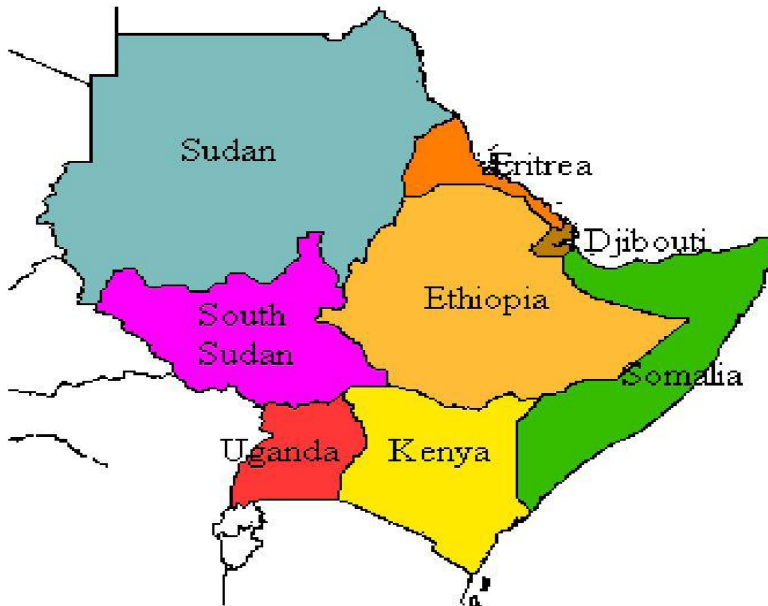
Individuals, families and groups in the population can be said to be in poverty when they lack the resources to obtain the type of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are customary, or are at least widely encouraged or approved, in the societies to which they belong. Their resources are so seriously below those commanded by the average individual or family that they are, in effect, excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities.

This is evident in areas where climatic conditions hamper development efforts due to Climate change-related circumstances. These areas are the ones that are likely to experience high chances of conflict given that the relative deprivation theory identifies scenarios such as lack of resources as possible triggers of friction among communities.

Relative deprivation theory links climatic shocks to conflict considering that the shocks - limited access to land and water - are seen as the root causes of conflict especially in areas where resources are scarce (Calderone, Headey & Maystadt, 2014). The theory then illustrates that as much as conflict can be resolved through existing mechanisms, the underlying issues that give rise to them need to be addressed in unique ways depending on the context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Climate change-related Conflicts in the Horn of Africa



Source:<http://cdn.intechopen.com/pdfs-wm/48252.pdf> (Accessed: 11/11/2015 1420hrs)

The Horn of Africa (HoA) is made of seven states that occupy the region of North-East Africa and jointly cover an area of 5.2 million km² (Francis, 2006). The HoA primarily comprises of Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda [South Sudan is also included after it separated and gained independence from the Sudan on 9th July, 2011] (Van De Giessen, 2011), that are all susceptible to climate change-related conflicts. The HoA region faces Red Sea to the East, the Indian Ocean to the South East and the Nile Basin to the West. The population of the region is estimated to be over 600 million with population varying depending on the country (Francis, 2006). Majority of the inhabitants of the HoA rely on subsistence agriculture and pastoralism for livelihood. The region is prone to famine, droughts and floods since 70% of land is arid and semi-arid (Francis, 2006). It is also adversely affected by environmental degradation which constitute desertification, deforestation, water scarcity and watershed degradation (Francis, 2006).

According to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), climate change refers to a change of climate that is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and, in addition, the natural climate variability observed over a comparable period of time (United Nations, 1992). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) defines climate change as a change in the state of the climate that can be identified by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties and that persist for an extended period, typically decades or longer (United Nations, 1992). Climate change is a key challenge to stability and food security in the HoA. On September 10, 2009, Senator John Kerry, (current USA Secretary of State) in an address at George Washington University posited that:

Climate change injects a major new source of chaos, tension, and human insecurity into an already volatile world. It threatens to bring more famine and drought, worse pandemics, more natural disasters, more resource scarcity, and human displacement on a staggering scale.

Senator Kerry's sentiment is a true reflection of the impact of climate change in the HoA as environmental degradation is linked to increased instability in the region. Pastoralists and subsistence farmers in the HoA compete for water, land and other natural resources for survival. This competition for scarce resources causes conflict in the HoA (Markakis, 1998; Homer-Dixon, 1992 and 2004).

Meierding (2013) observes that climate change is characterised by broad shifts in temperatures, rainfall patterns, rise in sea level, habitat changes for animal and plant species, increased frequency and intensity of storms, droughts, floods, landslides and wildfires. Consequently, climate change inspires conflict through its effects on agricultural productivity, freshwater availability and migration. These sentiments resonate with et al (2010) who conclude that the impacts of climate change are felt through changes in temperature, wind patterns, precipitation and humidity. Due to climatic change, the biodiversity of the HoA region has been affected adversely leading to desertification. This in turn resulted in low crop yields since food production is sensitive to Climate change.

Like other arid and semi arid areas, the Horn of Africa is prone to resource-based conflicts. Barash and Webel (2009), define conflict as rivalry or competition between two social groups who are in competition over scarce resources. Therefore, different outcomes may arise out of resource-based conflicts - with one side gaining and the other losing; both sides getting a share of the resource or both sides losing out on the resource. The competition for the scarce resources is a catalyst for the conflict in the HoA where each party to the conflict seeks to ultimately increase its share. Unfortunately, the distribution of natural resources in the region is uneven and hence creates intense competition resulting in violent conflicts.

The change in climate causes conflicts in the HoA because the livelihoods of its inhabitants are climate dependent. Messer (2010) argues that droughts, famine, floods, changes in rainfall patterns causes large-scale human and animal migrations (dependent on agriculture) away from affected areas to new productive areas whereby a fierce competition for resources will arise. Markakis (1994) notes that the inhabitants in the HoA have adapted to climate change by extensive migrations in search of land, pasture and water which creates competition for the resources. Mengisteab (2011) notes that in addition to civil wars, Horn of Africa countries have faced many intercommunal armed conflicts. These are often fought between ethnic and clan groups over resources such as land, water and even livestock. Salehyan (2008) points out that climate change indirectly disrupts economies, reduce the availability of natural resources, and generate mass migration out of affected areas. Therefore, these forced migrations in search of land, water and pasture leads to frequent and hostile conflicts. Climate change is considered a cause, catalyst and a consequence of conflict in the HoA. A case in point is the imminent insecurity in the borders of Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan and Kenya because of pastoral conflicts (Ashine, 2012).

Berhe and Butera (2012) points out that conflict among pastoral groups emanate from lack of adequate access to resources that are vital to their livelihood.

For example, Kenya is inhabited by different pastoral communities from various ethnic groups including the Gabra and the Borana found in the Northern part of the country. Climate change-related conflicts flare up in this region due to harsh climatic conditions resulting in inadequate access to natural resources – water and pasture. Due to the geographical attributes of pastoral regions, which are periodically dry, livestock diseases are prevalent and cause devastating losses of livestock, which is a major source of livelihood and well-being of the communities. Pastoralist groups that lose their livestock engage in rustling for re-stock purposes. As a result, cattle rustling which results in retaliatory armed attacks leading to ethnic based armed conflict exacerbate ethnic tensions. Therefore, climate change can be regarded as a cause of conflict, as the competition for the available resources exacerbate the conflicts.

Barnett and Adger (2007) observes that there are three factors that increase the vulnerability of people to climate change namely: the extent to which the people are dependent on natural resources and ecosystem services; the extent to which the resources and services are sensitive to climate change; and, the capacity to adapt to climate change. Inhabitants of the HoA are vulnerable especially given their low capability to adapt and high dependence on climate-affected resources - land and water. As a result, conflicts among the communities are imminent (Brown & Crawford, 2009) and the need exists for effective response mechanisms to address climate change-induced conflicts.

Climate Change related Conflict Response Mechanisms

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change/ National Adaptation Programs of Action (UNFCCC- NAPA)

In 2001, during its seventh Conference of the Parties (COP), UNFCCC's highest decision-making authority, identified the need to assist developing countries to address the adverse effects of climate change. Principally, the COP settled on assisting the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in preparing National Adaptation Programs of Action (NAPA). NAPA was formulated to provide a platform for LDCs to identify priority activities that respond to their urgent and immediate needs and concerns related to adaptation to the adverse effects of climate change. The needs to be addressed were those whose further delay would increase vulnerability and costs at later stages. NAPA is designed to address all forms of vulnerability and the low capacities of countries to cope with climate variability and change.

Six of the seven HoA countries have submitted their NAPA to the UNFCCC's Secretariat: Djibouti (October 2006); Eritrea (May 2007); Sudan (June 2007); Ethiopia (June 2008); Uganda (December 2007); Somalia (April 2013). Kenya has not yet submitted its NAPA documents to the UNFCCC (Ashine, 2012). Like other LDCs who have submitted their NAPA, the HoA countries are legible to apply for implementation funding under the LDC Fund, which is managed by the Global Environmental Facility (GEF). South Sudan has formulated but not submitted its NAPA to the UNFCCC. However, it was given approval to access the LDCF after it was officially recognized as an LDC in December 2012 (Global Environmental Facility, 2014).

Each country formulates a NAPA, which contains a list of ranked priority adaptation activities and projects. Most of the priority areas chosen by the countries in the region broadly focus on the areas of human and institutional capacity building, improving natural resource management, enhancing irrigation agriculture and water harvesting, strengthening early warning systems and awareness raising. For example, Uganda's NAPA identified the following nine priority sectors:

Community Tree Growing; Land Degradation Management; Strengthening Meteorological Services; Community Water and Sanitation; Water for Production; Drought Adaptation; Vectors, Pests and Disease Control; Indigenous Knowledge (IK) and Natural Resources Management; Climate Change and Development Planning.

NAPA is a step toward articulating and implementing nation-specific strategies that address the impacts of climate change across states in the HoA. Despite the existence of priority projects outlined on the NAPA, a lot need to be done in the region to implement projects aimed at reducing the impacts of climate change.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

UNDP supports a comprehensive approach to tackling the root causes of instability in the HoA. It is actively involved in crisis response as well as supporting governments in the region with emergency response capacity. In responding to drought in the region, UNDP's strategy is aligned with Interagency Standing Committee's (ISAC) revised framework for the HoA and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) regional Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Strategy. These strategies have short, medium and long-term interventions.

In the short-term, UNDP focuses on rapid restoration of people's livelihoods, increasing security and preventing conflict. This short-term goals are achieved through 'cash-for-work' and other livelihood interventions. In addition, UNDP assists the people in repairing essential infrastructure vital for survival.

In the medium and long-term, the UNDP works with partners and aims at redoubling efforts to ensure sustainable food security, supporting local peace building; and strengthening institutions for long-term economic recovery and development. To achieve the medium and long-term prospects, UNDP has a multi-year and multi-sectoral Disaster Risk Reduction (DDR) programmes and economic and livelihood support initiatives. Moreover, based on ongoing conflict analysis UNDP also supports local peace building initiatives (UNDP, 2011).

Through its Reduction of Resource-based Conflicts among Pastoralists and Farmers programme, UNDP has invested significantly in efforts to create platforms for dialogue and reconciliation. The programme focuses on strengthening capacity to manage resources and conflict in order to address and prevent conflicts. UNDP supports re-stocking of small livestock and provision of drought-resistant seeds in areas where farmers and agro-pastoralists are affected by droughts to ensure that conflicts are prevented. Additionally, the UNDP's programme to reduce resource-based conflict among pastoralists and farmers include: protection of animals through provision of vaccines, establishing water points and opening of fire lines (UNDP, 2010).

Within the Disaster Resilience and Sustainability programme in the HoA, UNDP has partnered with IGAD. One of the key objectives of the programme is to enhance the capacity and capability of IGAD to plan, implement and co-ordinate conflict prevention activities guided by an Institutional Strengthening Action Plan (ISAP) Framework. In addition, the programme seeks to enhance and avail knowledge on products, policies, and systems relating to conflict prevention, disaster resilience, and disaster risk management.

The dire situation in the HoA in regards to climate change and conditions is compounded by either intra or inter-state communal conflict. As a result, this has brought about a humanitarian situation within the region that threatens the very survival of the resident communities. IGAD sought UNDP's support with the view of using the partnership to strengthen its capability to offer solutions for absorbing future shocks and stresses. IGAD's mandate falls within the HoA and its mission is to ensure that member states achieve the promotion of peace and security and humanitarian affairs with the hope of enhancing sustainable development in the region.

UNDP's readiness to implement strategies through its well-established offices and delivery mechanisms ensures its success in the region. In addition, UNDP focuses on promoting gender equality and women empowerment that is necessary for ensuring sustainable development. Thus, the UNDP initiatives contribute significantly to alleviate climate change-induced conflicts in the HoA.

African Ministerial Council on Water - Water, Climate and Development Programme (AMCOW-WACDEP) Initiative.

The African Union established the African Ministerial Council on Water (AMCOW) in 2002. AMCOW is made up of all the African ministers of water who are responsible for mobilizing their respective governments and the international community to support the achievement of AMCOW's mission. The mission of AMCOW is to provide political leadership, policy direction and advocacy in the provision, use and management of water resources for sustainable social and economic development and maintenance of African ecosystems (Badejo, 2008).

Through Africa Water Vision 2025 (2000), AMCOW recognizes the impact of climate change on water security. Hence, in 2008, AMCOW adopted the Sharm el Sheikh Declaration on water and sanitation. In 2010, AMCOW created the Water, Climate and Development Programme (WACDEP) to implement the commitments outlined in the declaration. The goal of the WACDEP is to promote water as a key part of sustainable regional and national development and contribute to climate change adaptation for economic growth and human security. The framework is responsible for providing guidance to countries on how to integrate water security and climate resilience into development planning and investment processes, build climate resilience and support countries to adapt to a new climate regime through increased investments in water security, (Africa Water Vision 2025, 2000).

The HoA experiences cycles of drought and other climate change effects which lead to conflict due to water scarcity. By ensuring water security, WACDEP, contributes to prevention of resource-based conflicts by addressing water problems before they escalate into violent conflict. The programme is concerned with the distribution of adequate water to the households and farmers to prevent conflicts arising from water scarcity ((Africa Water Vision 2025, 2000). Unfortunately, despite the achievements of WACDEP water scarcity related conflicts are still witnessed in the region.

Intergovernmental Authority on Development - Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism (IGAD-CEWARN)

Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) was formerly established in 1996 during the Inter-Governmental Authority on Drought and Development (IGADD) Summit in Nairobi to supersede IGADD which was founded in 1986. IGAD is a building block of the African Union (AU) and therefore implements AU policies in the HoA region. Its priorities lie in the issues faced by the countries in the region. IGAD's primary focus is on food security and environmental protection; infrastructural development and regional conflict prevention; management and resolution; and, humanitarian affairs (Karugia, 2008).

IGAD implements its Conflict Prevention Management and Resolution (CPMR) through one of its institutions, the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism (CEWARN) founded in 2002. CEWARN is part of the Peace and Security Division of IGAD and is particularly mandated to deal with conflict in the region. It targets to mitigate and prevent violent conflicts in the sub-region and is particularly focused on cross-border pastoralist related conflicts. Pastoralist communities in the region clash mainly over pasture and water which has been dwindling due to changes in climate. Impacts of climate change in pastoralist areas is characterised by unpredictable rainfall, increased frequency of drought, outbreak of livestock diseases, and migration. Additionally, population pressure, ineffective utilization of natural resources and land use are also factors that aggravate the vulnerability of communities of the region to impacts of climate change (Christensen, 2009).

CEWARN's objectives include supporting member states in preventing cross border pastoral conflicts; to enable local communities to play an important role in preventing violent conflicts; to enable the IGAD secretariat to pursue conflict prevention initiatives, and, to provide members with technical and financial support. CEWARN has two wings; the early warning system and the early response system. It operates in three clusters:

Karamoja Cluster (covering the cross-border areas of Ethiopia, Kenya, South Sudan and Uganda); the Somali Cluster (covering the cross-border areas of Ethiopia, Kenya and Somalia) as well as the Dikhil Cluster (covering the cross-border areas of Djibouti and Ethiopia). To ensure that the three areas are covered, CEWARN relies on its national network of governmental and non-governmental stakeholders through Conflict Early Warning and Response Units (CEWERUs), National Research Institutes (NRIs), and Field Monitors (FMs). In its operations CEWARN involves both states and non-state actors at local, national and regional levels (Christensen, 2009).

CEWARN's aim is to concentrate peace initiatives efforts in the field of conflict prevention. Having been in operation since 2003, it is the longest serving mechanism within the African continent as compared to Africa Union (AU), South Africa Development Community (SADC), and Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) conflict prevention initiatives (Christensen, 2009). To date, the CEWARN mechanism for conflict prevention has focused on the early warning detection aspect of the mechanism as it develops the response aspects (Christensen, 2009). As a result, IGAD-CEWARN is facing challenges due to the fact that the finalization of its response mechanism framework, is taking too long thus delaying its implementation. Additionally, policy formulation and implementation is marred by a lack of commitment from member countries due to weak legislative guidelines. On their part, civil society organizations spend too much time drawing up new policies instead of focusing on the implementation of already existing ones (Cussen & Shiferaw, 2014).

In order to counter these hurdles, the ICT 4 PEACE initiative has been adopted in order to address a fast response to Climate change-related conflicts in the HoA. This project is in conjunction with United States Agency for International Development/ East Africa (USAID/EA) and is meant to ensure that timely transmission of early warning information on conflicts to decision makers of IGAD member states is enhanced.

For example, in the areas surrounding the Karamoja Cluster (covering the cross-border areas of Ethiopia, Kenya, South Sudan and Uganda) it is vital to have the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) equipment to enhance real time communication with parties to conflicts. This will help CEWARN monitors in the field to give accurate and timely reports on impending conflict situations like rising tensions between communities. Specialized training is necessary to ensure that the monitors can be able to operate the equipment effectively. Indeed, given that there is no single theoretical framework that provides specific general responses that can cut across all conflicts as conflict dynamics are context specific, capacity building efforts are important. Capacity building can be done through efforts that enhance the knowledge on how key stakeholders can improve mitigating factors, local inclusion and collaboration among stakeholders (Christensen, 2009).

The Nile Basin Initiative (NBI)

The Nile Basin Initiative (NBI) is an intergovernmental partnership mechanism that is meant to foster greater co-operation among the riparian member states along the Nile River. The NBI is composed of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda; thus, half of the member states belongs to the HoA. According to Bronkhorst and Bob (2014) this amalgamation of states in the NBI poses a great challenge to the States in the HoA since they cannot adequately address climate change-related conflicts specific to them that arise from the use of the Nile. For this reason, countries in the HoA are forced to bear the consequences of the adverse effects of climate change to ensure the overall agreement of the NBI stands.

The NBI has goals and objectives that are meant to be compatible with those of key regional initiatives like AMCOW which the riparian member states are party to. The AMCOW initiative can bolster NBI's initiatives given that respective water ministers can influence amicable use of the Nile water with emphasis laid on states that are within the HoA (NBI Climate Strategy, 2013). One of the challenges facing the NBI is that countries within the HoA are at loggerheads with fellow states from the NBI over the use of the Nile River. This is due to the different needs each state has, poor policy formulation and implementation resulting in inadequate capacities across the board.

COUNTRY SPECIFIC MECHANISMS

ETHIOPIA

Joint Peace Committees

According to Glowacki and Gönc (2013), Joint Peace Committees surfaced in Ethiopia in 2004 but were largely unrecognized by the government and thus their roles remained largely informal. With time they were integrated into the national Conflict Early Warning Response Units (CEWERUs) and hence have a formal mandate to cover their respective regions or ‘*woredas*’ (districts). They are involved in cross-border conflict issues within the Ethiopian regional administrative zones. The Joint Peace Committees are necessitated by the perennial conflicts emanating from agro-pastoralist and pastoralist communities competing for scarce available resources like pasture, water and arable land.

Somali Garri clan and the Oromo Borana clan in Moyale Woreda Initiative

Hybrid mechanisms that allow local communities to mitigate and take part in conflict prevention and peacebuilding to address climate change related conflicts are vital. One such mechanism exists among the Somali Garri clan, and the Oromo Borana clan from Moyale Woreda in Ethiopia where a Joint Peace Committee initiative with the government has played a key role in addressing climate related conflict. These two ethnic groups use their respective community elders who liaise with the District administrative officers in the region in ensuring that perennial conflicts over scarce resources are addressed and minimized. The two groups that have had a long history of violent armed conflict with each other as climate change continues to put pressure on their habitats with dwindling rainfall, livestock and crop coupled by a rise in population that is putting pressure on an already volatile situation. The Ethiopian government ensures that there are regular meetings with the traditional elders from both sides so that any underlying issues that may arise are highlighted and addressed.

This “after effect strategy” involves post-conflict initiatives like returning of stolen livestock. Unfortunately, the initiative is event specific and does not include early warning systems that may highlight potential triggers for climate change induced conflicts. Such conflicts triggers include resource scarcity, food security, and threats to livelihoods.

In the Wachile and Hudet regions, conflict between the Oromo and Borana was addressed through another Ethiopian government initiative known as Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP). The programme gave the communities, especially women income generating activities like clearing up land for subsistence farming and grassland, all of which lessened the effects of climate change in the region. The only downside to the initiative was that the Ethiopian government partnered with a Non-Governmental Organization (SOS Sahel Ethiopia) whose funds run out and the government was unable to sustain the initiative (Stark, Terasawa & Ejigu, 2011).

Karamoja and Somali Clusters in Ethiopia

In the Karamoja cluster, District Peace Committees (DPCs) were originally initiated and funded by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), in this case the Mercy Corps. The Karamoja cluster structure was however changed to fit into the CEWERU structure, a national mechanism for early warning response to conflicts. The Ethiopia Peace committees in the Somali cluster were also initiated by NGOs such as Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), for example, the Oromia Pastoralist Association (OPA). CARE established the peace committees through which funding was channelled. The OPA provided supporting mechanisms like personnel and good offices which enhanced the operations of the committees in areas where CEWARN mechanisms were not in place (Glowacki & Gönc, 2013). The constitutional changes of 2009 in Ethiopia, that restricted the CSO’s support for peace committees, were a hinderance to the effectiveness of their roles in peacebuilding. The restrictons limited the participation of government representatives and community members in the peace committees as well as peacebuilding activities in general (Glowacki & Gönc, 2013).

UGANDA

Parliamentary Forum on Climate Change (PFCC)

Established in 2008, the Parliamentary Forum on Climate Change (PFCC) was initiated in order to look into the environmental, economic and social pressures emanating from the effects of climate change (Hepworth, 2010). Another purpose for the forum was to ensure that climate change-related issues were streamlined into the budget given that its members are part of the legislative arm of government. In addition, PFCC has a capacity building mandate where training is offered to the members who in turn train their constituents on matters of climate change and how to cope and adapt to its effects. Other objectives of the PFCC include: the increase of public awareness on climate, address adaptation and mitigation measures, and establish a parliamentary information help desk on climate change as well as other environmental issues. PFCC also aims to create linkages at national and international levels that can promote global action on climate change, while also promoting and harmonizing climate change responses at both national and local levels (Hepworth, 2010).

However, these objectives are ambiguous and hence lack a clear cut roadmap on how they would be achieved.

In addition, the government is faced with low capacity and awareness and limited coordination and support at the local and national levels of governance (Hepworth, 2010). This translates to limitations that the mechanism faces in addressing issues dealing with climate change-related conflicts in Uganda.

The Disarmament Initiative of Karamoja in Uganda

According to Jeffrey (2014), the Karamoja region is inhabited by the Karamojong pastoralist communities and lies in the North Eastern region of Uganda. Pastoralism in Uganda has faced many challenges including demographic changes in form of an increase in population and land rights issues emanating from land tenure policies.

This has restricted the movements of the Karamojong in their quest for pasture and water for their livestock. A rise in the population and need for expansion coupled with climate change effects are factors contributing to the escalation of conflict in the Karamoja region. The pastoral Karamojong communities are in constant armed conflict as they criss-cross land that is privately owned in search of water and pasture. This is because much of the seasonal rivers have dried up forcing the communities to travel far and wide. The influx of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW), arising from the fall of President Idi Amin's government meant that the Karamojong were heavily armed and use the illegal arms in confrontations with other communities. As a result, the Ugandan government undertook a disarmament initiative to rid the area of illicit weapons. The disarmament initiative was first initiated in 1984 then picked up again in 1987, 2001 and, with added vigour, since 2006 (Jeffrey, 2014). This is a government sanctioned military operation that sought to disarm the pastrolists first on a voluntary basis and later using force on reluctant armed groups. This initiative does not directly address climate related issues but rather it is meant to take away arms from civilians in an attempt to minimize conflicts that are, themselves, exacerbated by climate change. One of the initial challenges with the disarmament exercise was the heavy military involvement with little engagement of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs). However, this was justified by the prevailing levels of insecurity. Occasionally, cases of human rights abuses were reported. Another criticism has been that at the very onset, the disarmament initiative did not prioritise factors like food insecurity, deprivation and poverty that are catalysts fueling conflict particularly those induced by adverse climate change.

THE SUDAN

NGOs and Traditional Conflict Resolution Mechanisms

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) play a pivotal role in addressing Climate change-related conflicts. Most of the NGOs operating in The Sudan are involved in peace and reconciliation conferences, dialogue forums, peacebuilding workshops, conflict resolution and capacity building workshops to help resolve conflicts, most of which arise from adverse climatic conditions in the region (Bronkhorst, 2011).

The Adlan Services and Development Organization (Adlan) is one of the NGOs that addresses environment-related conflicts in its development and peacebuilding agenda. Adlan held a successful peacebuilding workshop in December 2009 to resolve long-standing conflict between tribes from Southern Kordofan. The conflicts were mainly as a result of competition over scarce resources (Adlan Services and Development Organization, 2009).

Similarly, Sudan Environmental Conservation Society (SECS), a national NGO established in 1975, supports grass-roots community driven programs. SECS Water for Peace project contributes to local peace building processes in South Kordofan State where competition for water is a key conflict issue. By ensuring access to safe, and adequate water for human and animal consumption the project mitigates competition over water. The project aims to prevent conflicts by creating alternative water resources and providing separate water resources for humans and livestock consumption. Water for Peace also focuses on re-establishing traditional social structures for conflict resolution and to reduce inequalities and exclusions in access to and control of water resources. In turn, the project supports conflict resolution, improved environmental management and reduces vulnerability and exclusion - three important components for conflict sensitive climate resilient development (Bronkhorst, 2011).

Bronkhorst (2011) observes that NGOs support traditional and interactive conflict resolution mechanisms, address or remove environmental threats as well as engage in development projects. NGOs address climate change-related conflicts and provide alternative means of survival to the people in The Sudan thus reducing the competition for already scarce resources. This has been done through capacity building for women on various economically viable projects like processing and selling of milk and selling. The men are trained as paravets so as to ensure that livestock are kept healthy hence averting a situation where cattle rustling occurs in order to replenish lost herds. In addition, the NGOs ensure that agricultural techniques like irrigation are taught to communities. These initiatives are applied to ensure that in times of adverse climatic conditions, communities in The Sudan have food and revenue generated from different engagements.

According to Bronkhorst (2011), the use of Traditional Conflict Resolution Mechanisms to resolve climate related conflicts are widespread in The Sudan especially where modern institutions do not exist. Peace or reconciliation conferences are widely used and accepted to resolve climate related conflicts between and within pastoralist and agro-pastoralists. However, these traditional conflict resolution mechanisms have been hampered by modernity, civil strife in The Sudan and interference from government and other political interest groups. In addition, traditional mechanisms are limited by lack of manpower, financial resources and displacement of knowledgeable people as a result of intra-state armed conflict (Mohammed, 2002). For example, Croshaw (2008) observes that climate related conflicts in Darfur erupt due to lack of conflict resolution mechanisms, low capacity, and absence of adequate adaptation strategies. Evidently, Sudan will continue to experience resource-based conflicts despite the presence of NGOs, traditional conflict resolution mechanisms, government institutions and other agencies working to resolve such conflicts.

SOMALIA

International Fund For Agricultural Development (IFAD)

Somalia was hit by famine in 2011 amidst more than a decade of instability. The 2011 Somali famine illustrated the devastating effects of drought, conflict and uncertain international response. As a failed state, Somalia is characterised by clan-based violence and virtually non performing political structures (Ferris & Petz, 2012). To this end, there are no country specific strategic programmes or agencies developed to handle Climate change-related conflicts in the country.

Among other development agencies, the International Fund for Agriculture (IFAD) intervened in Somalia to alleviate poverty and improve food security. One of IFAD's strategic objectives in Somalia is to increase incomes and food security. This is achieved through IFAD's support to agriculture and related activities, improving access to water, sanitation and health care, strengthening the natural resource base and building rural financial services.

IFAD emphasizes the importance of making water available for irrigation and livestock. Due to this, violence arising from competition over scarce water is prevented between and among farmers, and pastoralists (IFAD, 2015).

IFAD has also been effective in scaling up programmes on soil conservation, watershed management, subsurface dams, sand dams and borehole drilling. Moreover, it has several grant-funded operations in the northern regions of Somalia, which include the North-Western Integrated Community Development Programme (NWICDP) and the Diaspora Investment in Agriculture (DIA) Programme (IFAD, 2015). Despite these notable efforts to address climate change-induced conflicts, the conflicts are still prevalent across the country.

ERITREA

International Fund For Agricultural Development (IFAD)

Given Eritrea's water related problems, IFAD works with the Eritrean government and communities to introduce appropriate measures and adaptive technologies that reduce the vulnerability of poor rural communities to climate variability and longer-term climate change. In 2003-2010, IFAD funded a soil and water conservation programme through the Gash Barka Livestock and Agricultural Development Project. This was aimed at reducing land degradation and increasing availability of water for crop irrigation and livestock. In addition, IFAD introduced soil and water conservation technologies and micro-catchment interventions (IFAD, 2011). The project supported infrastructure works such as building of water points, diversion of rivers and small streams and water harvesting for supplementary irrigation (IFAD, 2006). Sustainable water supply interventions mitigated conflicts in many areas. The project was effective despite the prevailing difficult post-conflict environment especially due to lacklustre political will and commitment by government.

KENYA

Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms (TDRM): The Oromo – Borana Gaada System of Conflict Resolution

The Constitution of Kenya (2010) clearly recognizes and legitimizes Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms (TDRM) as a mode for conflict resolution as enshrined in Article 159 (2) (c). These mechanisms are meant to be initiated by the courts and tribunals (Muigua, 2011). Under the Supreme Law of the Land, the TDRM under the courts and tribunals are meant to operate under certain principles like mediation, arbitration and reconciliation which encourage use of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanisms. However, these mechanisms should not go against the Bill of Rights but should serve to reconcile and address conflicts especially those emanating from climate change-related conflicts among pastoral communities (Muigua, 2011).

The mechanisms should not be gender biased or prohibitive to accessing justice through other conventional judicial means. Since resolution is non-power based, traditional means help conflicting parties share their problems and enhance their problem solving capacities through a shared platform. Given that scarcity of resources is a commonality to pastoral problems which breed conflict, TDRM should help them come up with constructive means of addressing climate change-related problems and conflicts. Indeed, resolution is the best avenue as it tackles the root causes of conflict and ensure that it does not recur even with other conditions notwithstanding.

The Gaada system is a TDRM used by the Borana and derived from various traditional institutions like the *aada* (custom and tradition), *safuu* (ethics) of the Oromo and the Borana *seera* (Laws). As conflict resolution mechanisms, the Gaada system in Northern Kenya has helped resolve conflict over use of resources like water and pasture.

Supported by networks put in place by kin, it is a vital mechanism since communities converge to address their problems at grassroots level among themselves which build trust given that resolutions arrived at are underwritten by respected community leaders. The lack of adequate government presence to address issues of climate change-related conflicts foster the need for TDRM in the region. The need of TDRM is also derived from the fact that cross border migration between the Kenya, Somalia and Ethiopia largely involves communities with similar customs and traditions.

Consolidating the Peace Processes and establishing foundations for a successful political transition in Kenya: 2010-2013

This is a project that was meant to build and enhance the capacities of state and non-state actors at national and local level in conflict prevention, management and resolution. The aim of this strategy was to strengthen the national capacity for conflict prevention, expanding the scope and coverage of the District Peace Committees (DPCs), and supporting the capabilities of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs). This was in order to enhance the management and prevention of conflict especially in the climate change prone regions of Northern Kenya. In addition, the project was meant to enhance the role of the youth and women in peacebuilding.

Had it been given a chance to go beyond 2013, this is a strategy that would have been accorded proactive government intervention by both both state and non-state actors in order to give it legitimacy. Through it, the aspect of highlighting the dangers of having these arms during the latent stage of conflict and disarming communities in order to rid them of illegal firearms and prevent their use during conflict can be enhanced (UNDP, 2015).

Community Based Traditional Peace Committees

Peace Committees are built around the concepts of traditional conflict resolution mechanisms derived from different communities. These committees are comprised of council of elders from the various communities who manage conflict based on customary institutions of their respective communities.

The Turkana have such Peace Committees and it is headed by the elders in the community who are composed of clan representatives and all respected members from the community. To resolve armed conflict, especially water and pasture based conflicts or cattle rustling, a special sitting is convened by the *Tree of men* - the council of elders. The decisions made in these committees are solely based on consensus which is acknowledged by all including the aggrieved parties (Pkalya & Adan, 2006).

Peace Committees face challenges that stem from their structures being driven by cultural practices which are only recognized by individual communities. This is a difficult task as different communities have different norms and beliefs given that tradition and culture varies. Another challenge facing the Peace Committees is the apparent disconnect with the formal (government led) approaches. Indeed, communities living in the Oromo speaking areas in Marsabit and Moyale, for example, are heavily inclined towards traditional approaches with Peace Committees being subservient to the decisions by the elders within the communities. Thus, despite the district communities arbitrating or negotiating for peaceful settlements, the last word lies with the traditional elements (elders) within the society on whether to reach consensus or reject agreements to end hostilities.

The other challenge with the Peace Committees is the lack of incorporating the youth and women which effectively alienates them even though they bear the brunt of conflict either as foot soldiers or victims. It has been suggested that the elders, who consider themselves as the custodians of the society, are afraid of ceding power to the younger generation (youth) or to the women. They therefore selfishly restrict and impede broad based participation of the entire community in the Peace Committees (Pkalya & Adan, 2006).

Analysis of the Challenges Facing the Response Mechanisms

The use of inclusive efforts to ensure that mechanisms outlined in the foregoing sections are reinforced for a greater impact in addressing climate related conflicts is critical. These efforts should be geared towards focusing on providing high-level policy frameworks that incorporate climate change and security in the agenda of major intergovernmental organisations such as the AU, IPCC and IGAD.

The inclusion of international actors like the United Nations (UN) under the auspices of UNFCCC, can influence and strengthen the mechanisms. By adopting international mechanisms, the HoA countries can either collectively or individually implement appropriate environmental protection initiatives and at the same time ensure that coping mechanisms like alternative economic empowering initiatives are effected. This way, instead of adverse climatic conditions exacerbating conflicts, communities can be empowered to adapt and embrace alternative means of livelihoods, for example, agricultural farming practices that mitigate eventualities like famine. These approaches, for example, better farming practices through irrigation schemes require funding by government and its development partners. The practices should be complemented by appropriate policies on climate change. The goal should be to develop measures that minimize potential conflicts arising from climate changes.

Given that mechanisms like CEWARN rely on governmental and non-governmental stakeholders for their data on early warning mechanism of predicting impending conflicts, emphasis should be given to creating better networking among all the relevant practitioners.

The collaboration should also include the development of policies and guidelines that ensure that the affected communities are able to cope with the effects of climate change and conflict. The policies should be actualized through practical projects like the Water for Peace Project in Sudan which minimizes potential conflict situations between farmers and pastoralists over water and land. It is also important to take advantage of existing initiatives like the AMCOW that aim to offer political leadership and direction in managing water resources through policy guidelines based on respective member states' ministries.

IGAD-CEWARN needs to finalize its response mechanism framework which has delayed its implementation. It is also important to encourage IGAD and other AU member countries to develop relevant legislative guidelines (Cussen & Shiferaw, 2014). Initiatives like ICT 4 PEACE should be emphasised in order to bolster a firmer response to climate change-related conflicts in the HoA. The involvement of the CSOs and NGOs is important, for example, in ensuring timely transmission of early warning information on conflicts to the relevant decision makers.

It is imperative that conflict prone areas, for example, the Karamoja region (covering the cross-border areas of Ethiopia, Kenya, South Sudan and Uganda) should have the necessary equipment to enhance real time communication with parties to the conflicts. This will help, for example, the CEWARN monitors in the field to give accurate and timely reports on impending conflict. It is crucial that specialized training is provided to ensure that the monitors can be able to operate the equipment availed. Indeed, the lack of capacity building initiatives to enhance specialized training, hampers CEWARN's ability to carryout its functions and achieve its mandate. AMCOW's major challenge is political in nature as it is heavily influenced by government bureaucracy given that the ministers of water sit in the council.

It is a fact that climate change can fuel political conflicts arising from territorial and border disputes among neighboring countries (Tadese, 2010). The seven HoA states in AMCOW experience water stress within their regions, this complicates comprehensive policy formulation despite the countries enjoying historical interactions..

This reality, potentially, hampers effective collective action to mitigate and prevent natural resource-based conflicts. AMCOW, for example, lacks an intergovernmental policy dialogue that promote the sustainable use of water resources necessary for mitigating water-based conflicts (AMCOW Hand Book, 2007).

The NBI needs a standard treaty agreement that gives equal rights to riparian states for the use of the Nile Water, with emphasis laid on the specific needs that address human security.

Politics greatly influence the development of various treaties and agreements on the Nile River but, the humanitarian aspect of the climatic effects on states like Ethiopia, warrant other considerations, for example, dedicated water rights. The considerations can be sought or negotiated through available regional and sub-regional bodies, the AU or other international mechanisms. Enhanced co-operation within the NBI should be encouraged in order to draft policies and proposals for projects that directly benefit communities that are in constant conflict over scarce resources.

Peace Committees are essential because they are localized and give communities opportunities to use their own machinery and mechanisms for addressing conflict issues. This way, communities are able to not only arbitrate and resolve conflicts, but also draw up strategies that bridge their differences including through projects that benefit the conflicting parties. Initiatives like the Water for Peace project in South Kordofan Region by the Sudan Environmental Conservation Society (SECS), an NGO, are a good example. Indeed, it is vital for the governments in the HoA to work with other stakeholders including NGOs in all climate change related projects.

Most countries in the HoA lack adequate funding both at the national and international levels. As a result of their poor economies, poverty levels are high in the region. Poverty hampers the implementation of relevant policies. For example, the countries lack the necessary resources to implement the measures identified in their nation-specific NAPA. Likewise, AMCOW, for instance, relies on foreign donors to fund its water infrastructure projects. These projects, among others, may not come to fruit due to lack of funding especially because some member countries are either incapable or are reluctant to allocate resources for climate change-related projects.

The HoA continues to grapple with the proliferation of illicit SALW. The easy access, availability and misuse of the arms exacerbate intra-communal conflicts including cattle rustling and natural resource-based conflict over water, pasture and land.

The resultant insecurity makes conflict resolution harder to achieve. Despite adept policies formulated and adopted to curb climate change-related conflicts, most countries in the HoA lack the political will and commitment to embrace policies and to enforce them. Countries in the region have not implemented their NAPA owing to lack of political will and commitment. Even in countries where non-governmental agencies are willing to assist, the strained State-NGO relationships restricts their effectiveness.

Conclusion

Climate Change has left the HoA exposed to the perils of conflict as communities, largely pastoralists and agro-pastoralists, compete for scarce resources. The flare up of conflicts is partly attributed to irrational allocation and use of resources leading to underdevelopment. Underdevelopment limits the capacities of the communities to adapt to the adverse effects of inter- and intra-state climate change-induced conflicts in the region.

The international, regional and local mechanisms that have addressed climate change-related conflicts have done so through state and non-state actors including the communities that are directly affected. The negative impacts of climate change on the available natural resources has defranchised communities in the region especially due to conflict over the scarcity of food, water and pasture. The mechanisms initiated by the UN, AU, IGAD or individual member states have been beneficial especially because projects initiated under them contribute towards the mitigation of climate change-induced conflicts.

Local mechanisms like District Peace Committees (DPCs), a mixture of government and traditional local actors, has ensured that grassroots oriented conflict resolution mechanisms contribute positively towards conflict resolution. The lack of confidence in the Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms (TDRM) by the youth and women who feel alienated through cultural bias has however watered down gains from the local mechanisms. Additionally, lack of adequate support by government to NGOs and CSOs facilitating TDRM have negative impacts on conflict resolution and the advocacy for peace in general.

Recommendations

- Traditional conflict resolution mechanisms should be strengthened and linked to formal institutions - police, courts and other government agencies. There is need to encourage alternative livelihoods besides the reliance on rain-fed agriculture and pastoralism. Instead irrigated agriculture, value addition and other business enterprises should be encouraged.
- Establish a regional institution for monitoring climate change adaptation policy frameworks that incorporate climate change and security on the scope and agenda of the major intergovernmental organisations such as the African Union, IPCC and IGAD.
- Establish linkage between UNFCCC and other international mechanisms that ensures that NAPA is adopted and implemented wholly by all HoA states. This is instrumental in ensuring that policy frameworks on climate change and conflict are insitutionalised.
- The IGAD-CEWARN response mechanism frameworks should be drawn up and effected as it is taking too long while the effects of climate change increasingly exacerbate natural resource-based conflicts.
- Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) should give greater emphais on the realization of existing policies that address climate change-induced conflicts rather than spending too much time formulating new ones. This will minimize having too many frameworks stuck at the implementation stages.
- The HoA states lying along the Nile River should be given more leeway under one Nile treaty agreement that is supported by all riparian states. This would minimize the threat posed by scarcity of water where individual states harvest water from the Nile.
- Government and Non-governmental actors should avail capacity building initiatives and projects to District Peace Commitees to ensure that conflict resolution mechanisms and peacebuilding initiaves are nurtured at the grassroots level.

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Ensuring the Effectiveness of Climate Change Mechanisms and Strategies

- The use of top-down efforts to ensure that these mechanisms are reinforced for a greater impact in addressing climate related conflicts is vital. The efforts should be geared towards focusing on providing high-level policy frameworks that incorporate climate change and security on the scope and agenda of the major intergovernmental organisations such as the African Union, IPCC and IGAD.
- Emphasis should be laid on linking both state and non-state stakeholders initiatives in regards to policy and guidelines that ensure that communities have a sound footing on coping with the negative effects of climate change and conflict.
- AMCOW ensures that the problem of water based conflicts either at intra-state or inter-state level is addressed through formulating policies that enhance water security among communities. AMCOW promotes water as a key part of sustainable regional and national development that contributes to climate change adaptation for economic growth and human security within the HoA.
- In ensuring that climate change related conflicts are wholesomely addressed, the incorporation of Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms as a strategy is key. The same should be well supported under the existing laws in different countries; for example, in Kenya, the mechanisms are recognized under the Constitution.

Abstract

The Eastern African (EA) nations are prone to natural hazards which lead to complex emergency especially in peace support operations. This includes floods, droughts, earthquakes, landslides, strong winds, lightning and their secondary impacts of diseases and epidemics. Drought, floods, landslides and epidemics are the most frequent disasters in the region. EA nations are part of the global community and hence needs to integrate Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) into its programmes and planning in line with the Hyogo Framework of Action (HFA) and the Africa Regional Strategy for disaster risk response management in complex emergency (CE). The Objectives of this paper were to determine the nature of the CE in Eastern Africa PSO in the last five years, examine existing national and regional institutional structures dealing with CE, evaluate the response strategies undertaken to address CE and their effectiveness and efficiency.

This paper concludes that EA countries and communities have realized the need to move from reactive (response actions) disaster risk management which has been based on emergency and crisis management to a proactive (Prevention actions) that is based on the analysis of vulnerability, risk evaluations, and situational assessments with a view to mitigate disasters impacts before they occur. Unless a disaster occurs, disaster response management in CE is given a low priority by both governments and donors. CE response receives resources and funds during emergency periods but long-term development of disaster risk management capabilities, prevention, mitigation and preparedness measures are inadequate.

The paper makes several recommendations including: The need to find permanent solutions to communities being displaced by conflicts especially those over limited food, water and grazing resources; prioritising the coping with current climate extremes and adaptation to future climate change to ensure sustainable peace in the region; need to strengthen national preparedness for example the realization of the Emergency Coordination Center with support from partners such as the IGAD and EAC in order for member states to meet the post 2016 Hyogo protocol;

Member states to balance humanitarian and development activities and investment that address the underlying causes of CE.

Lastly the EA countries have to realize the need to move from reactive (response actions) disaster risk management which has been based on emergency and crisis management to a proactive (Prevention actions) which is based on the analysis of vulnerability, risk evaluations, and situational assessments with a view to mitigate disasters impacts before they occur

Disaster Response Management in Complex Emergency within Peace Support Operation in Eastern Africa

By Dr Eunice Njambi

Introduction and background

1.1 Introduction

Complex emergency (CE) have a singular ability to erode or destroy the cultural, civil, political and economic integrity of established societies. According to World Vision, Mercy Corps (2015) the top humanitarian crises of 2015 included the Syria refugee crisis, Nepal earthquake, Iraq displacement, West Africa Ebola outbreak, South Sudan conflict, Somalia and Central American drought and Central African Republic violence. Globally about 60 million people are displaced around the world, and more than a quarter of these displacements are due to the conflicts in Iraq, South Sudan and Syria. Violent and prolonged conflict, makes population to be desperate and in need of protection and humanitarian assistance.

Africa is increasingly regarded as exhibiting characteristics of CE where conflict co-occurs with multiple additional, and often intractable, demographic, environmental, economic, and social instabilities. The 2014 Ebola outbreak that hit West Africa was the worst since the disease since 1975. It sickened 28,000 people and killed 11,300 in the three countries (IFRC, 2015). The current crisis in north-eastern Nigeria, precipitated by Boko Haram-related violence, is affecting some 14.6 million people. In Mauritania, 13 regions have excessive levels of malnutrition. Malnutrition in Senegal indicates that one in six people is food insecure. In neighbouring Gambia, wasting among children under age 5 has significantly increased from 6.4 per cent in 2005 to 11.5 % according to (OCHA 2016).

Eastern Africa (EA) has experienced the four types of CE in the two last decade, this includes: Acute, Chronic, Urban and Protracted. In South Sudan, humanitarian agencies responding to the crisis say 6.4 million people need humanitarian assistance and 3.9 million are facing severe food shortages. At least 250,000 children are severely malnourished. Conflict, government instability, recurring drought, and lack of basic infrastructure have contributed to long-term food shortages in Somalia, (IFRC 2014).

Unlike natural disasters, complex emergencies have a singular ability to erode or destroy the cultural, civil, political and economic integrity of established societies. They attack social systems and networks. Humanitarian assistance itself can become a target of violence and appropriation by political actors who are organic parts of the crisis. CE are internal to political and economic structures. They are different from natural disasters and deserve to be understood and responded to as such. This paper examines: the Nature of the PSO CE, Institutions dealing with CE in PSO, response mechanisms and strategies in addressing CE and their effectiveness and efficiency.

1.2 Background of Peace Support Operations in Eastern Africa

The African Union/UN Hybrid operation in Darfur, referred to by its acronym UNAMID, was established on 31 July 2007 with the adoption of Security Council resolution 1769. UNAMID has the protection of civilians as its core mandate, but is also tasked with contributing to security for humanitarian assistance, monitoring and verifying implementation of agreements, assisting an inclusive political process, contributing to the promotion of human rights and the rule of law, and monitoring and reporting on the situation along the borders with Chad and the Central African Republic (CAR).

Following the crisis which broke out in South Sudan in December 2013, United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan (UNMISS) was established in 2014 to consolidate peace and security.

In addition to help establish conditions for development reinforced UNMISS and reprioritized its mandate towards the protection of civilians, human rights monitoring, and support for the delivery of humanitarian assistance and for the implementation of the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement. The Security Council also authorized the deployment of a peacekeeping force to the disputed Abyei Area, which straddles northern and southern Sudan and has been claimed by both sides. The Council's action came in response to the renewed violence, escalating tensions and population displacement in the Abyei region (UNMISS 2015).

UN Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo MONUSCO took over from an earlier UN peacekeeping operation the United Nations Organization Mission in Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) on 2010. The mission was authorized to use all necessary means to carry out its mandate relating, among other things, the protection of civilians, humanitarian personnel and human rights defenders under imminent threat of physical violence and to support the Government of the DRC in its stabilization and peace consolidation efforts. MONUSCO mission's report is overwhelming: the substantial increase in violence among ethnic groups has caused serious humanitarian crisis. Significant movements of the population have increased the number of internally displaced persons (IDPs). Currently, 20 700 IDPs are living in the four camps, and 8000 others have settled in an additional camp (MONUSCO 2015).

The African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) is a multidimensional PSO mandated to among other things: assist the FGS in establishing conditions for effective and legitimate governance across Somalia, through support, as appropriate, in the areas of security, including the protection of Somali institutions and key infrastructure, governance, rule of law and delivery of basic services, liaise with humanitarian actors and facilitate, as may be required and within its capabilities, humanitarian assistance in Somalia, as well as the resettlement of internally displaced persons and the return of refugees (AMISOM 2015).

The political and security context in Burundi remains tense and unpredictable. The UNHCR (2015) reports that nearly 215,000 (49.6 % male and 50.4 % female) Burundians have been displaced and are living as refugees mostly in Tanzania, Rwanda, DRC and Uganda. An estimated 54.7 % of the refugees are children below 17 years. The displacement has resulted to increased vulnerability with 36% of the households being food insecure, including 700,000 people severely food insecure. More than a hundred thousand refugees living in Tanzania are faced with overcrowding and disease. These refugees are faced with additional humanitarian needs resulting from the El Niño weather, floods and cases of acute diarrheal

1.3 Problem statement

Peace Support Operations (PSO) in Eastern Africa are deployed with complex mandates in countries that have experienced lengthy conflicts. This includes The African Union/UN Hybrid operation in Darfur, referred to by its acronym UNAMID, MONUSCO in Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), UNAMID in Darfur (Sudan), UNMISS in South Sudan, and UNISFA in Abyei (South Sudan). Increasingly, peacekeeping has been used to address complex emergencies. This includes humanitarian disaster that occurs in a conflict zone and is complicated by, or results from conflicting interests by warring parties. The life cycle of prolonged conflicts is a recipe to humanitarian crisis that follows human suffering and human rights violations.

Complex emergencies are typically characterized by Extensive violence and loss of life, Displacement of populations; Widespread damage; to societies and economies, the need for large-scale, multi-faceted humanitarian assistance, The hindrance or prevention of humanitarian assistance; by political and military constraints, and Significant security risks for humanitarian relief workers in some areas.

The issue brief will assess the present Disaster Response Management (DRM) in complex emergency in PSO, in the context of , the nature of the PSO complex emergency, existing national and regional institutional structures dealing with CE, strategies undertaken to address the CE and lastly assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the strategies.

This research argues that the practice of DRM in CE is a defining characteristic of resilient societies, and should therefore be integrated or mainstreamed into all aspects of development. Mainstreaming DRM in CE in development planning can reverse the current trend of rising disaster EA.

1.4 Research Objectives

- To determine the nature of the PSO complex emergency in EA in the last five years
- To examine existing national and regional institutional structures dealing with CE in PSO
- To evaluate the response strategies undertaken to address the complex emergencies in PSO
- To assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the DRM to complex emergency in PSO

1.5 Research Questions

- What is the nature of the PSO complex emergency in Eastern Africa in the last five years?
- What are the existing national and regional institutional structures dealing with CE in PSO?
- What are the response strategies undertaken to address the complex emergencies in PSO?
- How effective and efficient is the DRM in responding to complex emergency within PSO

1.6 Justification

Many countries in the Eastern Africa region are exposed to recurrent complex emergencies caused by natural disasters such as floods and droughts, conflict and displacement, as well as HIV/AIDS and other epidemics. In 2009 alone, 11 of the region's 20 countries experienced an emergency situation requiring humanitarian relief. The changing nature of conflict has created new trends in emergencies in the region, including civil unrest, ethnic tension, and post-election violence leading to an increase in political instability. Complex emergency have profoundly different impacts on peace support operations, women and girls as well as on boys and men. Existing inequalities may be intensified in times of crises and can also create new or additional disparities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 The Nature of the PSO Complex Emergency in Eastern Africa in the Last Five Years

Burundi

As of 20 December, 20,285 Burundian refugees had been biometrically registered by UNHCR and the Government's National Commission for Refugees (CNR). The majority are located in the Uvira and Fizi territories. Over half of the refugee population originate from the Cibitoke and Bururi provinces as well as Bujumbura.

In 2005 during the reporting period, 444 individuals were relocated from transit centres and regrouping sites to the Lusenda camp set up to host the Burundian refugees. A total of 12,487 refugees are currently in Lusenda. The number of arrivals into the DRC has remained low but steady. Small groups of Burundian refugees have arrived into the DRC and registered at the Kavimvira transit centre and Sange regrouping point. Others are reported to have arrived through unofficial entry points (UNHCR updates 2015).

Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)

In 2015 DRC was redeclared a disaster due to the ongoing complex emergency and projected humanitarian needs. Attacks by armed groups continue to displace populations in eastern DRC, while increased security in some areas is supporting limited returns. 4.1 million people are food insecure in the eastern, 2.6 million are Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in DRC, (OCHA 2015). Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) faces multiple challenges, including weak governance and lack of capacity, ongoing violence, particularly in the east of the country, ethnic tension and widespread poverty. Human rights violations are commonplace, with armed groups attacking villages, killing indiscriminately and torturing, mutilating and raping vulnerable women and girls. Humanitarian needs are acute. Ongoing instability in the DRC continues to have a regional impact, threatening peace and security in the Great Lakes region and beyond.

There are over 420,000 Congolese living as refugees and asylum seekers in neighbouring countries whilst the DRC continues to host 120,000 refugees, mainly from the Central African Republic, Rwanda and Burundi. The DRC also suffers from a severe nutrition and health crisis: three million children are malnourished and epidemics such as measles and cholera kill tens of thousands a year.

Ethiopia

During 2015, the population in Ethiopia requiring humanitarian assistance has continued to increase—from 2.9 million people in early 2015 to 4.5 million people in August, according to the Government of Ethiopia (GoE). By October, the population requiring emergency food assistance in Ethiopia had further increased to approximately 8.2 million people. Water and pasture shortages have decreased livestock production and caused livestock deaths in pastoralist and agropastoralist communities, further deteriorating the food security and nutrition situation in drought-affected regions. The UN has identified affected populations in parts of Afar, Amhara, Oromiya, Somali, Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples (SNNP), and Tigray regions. Multiple consecutive seasons of below-normal rainfall—exacerbated by the effects of El Niño have resulted in deteriorating agricultural, livestock, food security, and nutrition conditions in northeastern and central Ethiopia. By early 2016, the UN anticipates that 15 million people will require emergency food assistance and 350,000 children will need treatment for severe acute malnutrition (SAM); critical needs in drought-affected areas will also require humanitarian agricultural, health, and water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) interventions (UNHCR updates 2015).

Kenya

Conditions in Somalia have created an escalating refugee crisis, primarily in Kenya and Ethiopia. Despite considerable efforts by the United States and the international community to respond to the emergency, the needs of those affected are unlikely to be met in the coming months and may not stabilize until 2012. Key priorities include food, water and sanitation, health, and protection (UNHCR updates 2015).

An estimated 43% of population living on less than \$1.25 a day. Post-electoral highlevel of violence: riots, protests, and violence- High-level exposure to climate change hazards (drought: 1999-2001; 2003-2006; and 2008- 2009), 45,000 to 100,000 urban Refugees 31.3% of the urban population live below the national urban poverty line 31% of urban population with access to sanitation

Somalia

In Somalia, where over two decades of civil conflict are characterized by recurrent natural disasters and/or conflict, weak governance, long standing food crises, the breakdown of livelihoods and insufficient institutional capacity the loss or damage of life, malnutrition, lose vital information on land and water systems and their use.

Furthermore, given the escalation of the armed violence in the Central A mix of factors including drought, soaring food prices, conflict, access constraints and inadequate funding has led to a serious deterioration of the humanitarian situation in 2014, jeopardizing the political, security and socio-economic gains made in recent years in Somalia. Over a million Somalis are unable to meet their basic food requirements. A further 2.1 million people are on the verge of acute food insecurity, bringing the total number of people in need of humanitarian assistance to 3.2 million. An estimated 1.1 million displaced people live in extremely difficult conditions in overcrowded settlements with limited access to safe water, sanitation and hygiene services (WASH), placing them at high risk of water and sanitation-related diseases. Internally displaced people make up the majority of those affected by food insecurity (62 % Displaced people continue to face forced evictions, discrimination and gender-based violence, threats from explosive hazards and lack of adequate protection and durable solutions. In 2015 humanitarian partners in Somalia will aim to assist 2.76 million or 86 % of the 3.2 million people in need, focusing on three overriding objectives: providing life-saving support, improving protection, and strengthening resilience (UNHCR updates 2015).

South Sudan

United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan (UNMISS) has continued its essential work in promoting stability, protecting civilians under threat of violence, and assisting in humanitarian efforts. UNMISS has been on the ground in South Sudan since it became independent in July 2011, fostering state-building; supporting efforts to disarm, demobilize, and reintegrate former combatants; and strengthening the country's justice system. Since the mandate has shifted to civilian protection the role of the UNMISS is even more important (UNHCR updates 2015).

Abyei (UNISFA), a peacekeeping mission for the Abyei region on the border of Sudan and South Sudan. Resolution 1990, drafted and championed by the United States, provided for the deployment of up to 4,250 peacekeepers to provide security and protect civilians under imminent threat of violence in the disputed border region. The Security Council passed UNSC Resolution 2156, extending the UN presence in the area and authorizing a force of up to 5,326 military, and 20 police personnel. This renewed mandate includes an emphasis on the protection of civilians, allowing UNISFA peacekeepers to take the necessary actions to protect civilians under imminent threat of physical violence, irrespective of the source. UN bases currently shelter tens of thousands of displaced persons while peacekeeping forces ensure civilian safety and work to uphold the recent ceasefire agreement.

Darfur, Sudan

In 2015, an estimated 5.4 million people in Sudan were targeted for humanitarian assistance across the country. Vulnerable families in the Sudan need help to increase food production in the face of further displacement, insecurity and seasonal floods and dry spells.

In conflict-affected areas of South Kordofan and Darfur, new waves of displacement continue to undermine food security as families are forced to abandon agricultural land, leaving them reliant on external assistance.

Some 3.1 million people are internally displaced in The Sudan, with 2.5 million displaced in Darfur alone. More than 2 million people are acutely malnourished, and over two thirds of children in Darfur are stunted owing to malnutrition.

The joint United Nations-African Union peacekeeping operation in Darfur (UNAMID) to address the humanitarian crisis in the western region of Sudan. UNAMID, which replaced a previous mission led solely by the African Union, was tasked with such objectives as securing the implementation of the Darfur Peace Agreement (DPA), protecting civilians, and supporting humanitarian assistance. With the adoption of resolution 2148 in April 2014, which ended in August 2014, greater emphasis has been placed on these latter two, in addition to a renewed focus on conflict mediation and reconciliation. UNAMID's current mandate extends through July 2015, placed up to 15,845 military personnel, 1,583 police personnel, and 13 formed police units in the field, UNAMID is currently the second largest UN peacekeeping mission in the world.

In 2014, ongoing violence in Darfur, South Kordofan and Blue Nile 19 and the influx of refugees from South Sudan have contributed to a significant deterioration of the humanitarian situation in Sudan. Approximately 6.6 million people are currently in need of humanitarian assistance. In Darfur, more than 450,000 people have fled their homes since January. Most of the newly displaced have moved into IDP camps already hosting over 2 million people, adding to the demand for under-resourced basic services. In South Kordofan and Blue Nile, hundreds of thousands people in opposition-held areas have been cut off from humanitarian assistance as a result of Government operations against the SPLM-N. Conflict has exacerbated malnutrition and food insecurity but some of the highest rates of malnutrition have been recorded in the relatively peaceful east of the country. An estimated 1.2 million children under the age of 5 suffer from acute malnutrition. More than 5 million people were food insecure during the 2014 pre-harvest lean season. Humanitarian needs in Sudan are increasing but the capacity of the humanitarian system to respond to these needs has decreased (UNHCR updates 2015).

2.2 Institutions dealing with complex Emergencies in PSO

United Nation Organization for the Coordiantions of Humanitrian affairs (OCHA) responsible for bringing together humanitarian actors to ensure a coherent response to complex emergencies. It also ensures there is a framework within which each actor can contribute to the overall response effort. OCHA's mission is to: Mobilize and coordinate effective and principled humanitarian action in partnership with national and international actors in order to alleviate human suffering in disasters and emergencies; Advocate the rights of people in need; Promote preparedness and prevention. Facilitate sustainable solutions. Figure 1 below shows institutions dealing with complex emergency they include : UNICEF, UNCHR, WFP, WHO, IFRC, FAO, UNDP, UNICEF among others. In addition the local national institution dealing with CE are aslo involved this may include the: National army, Police , RedCross and Key line governt ministries

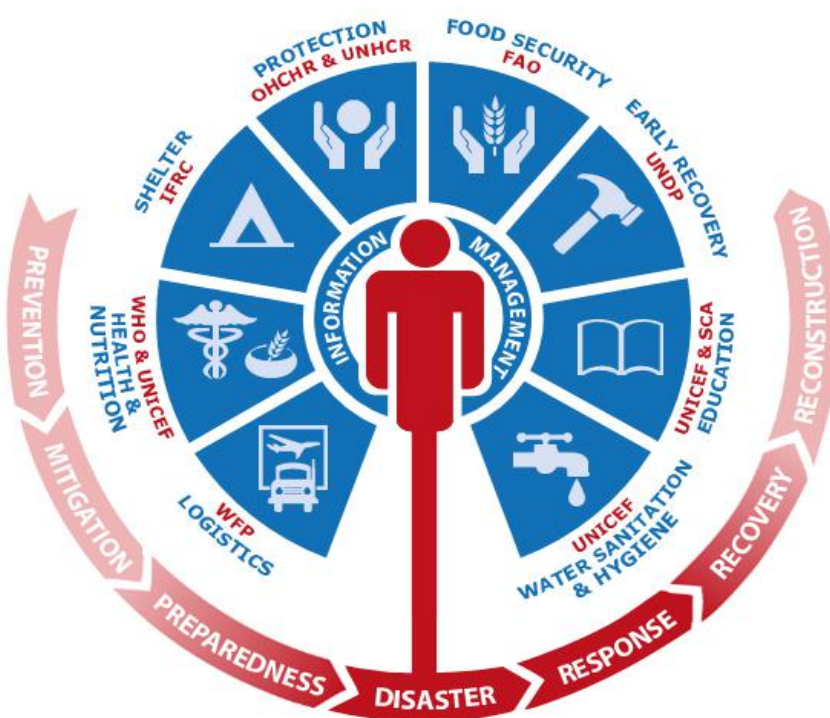


Fig 1 : International organizations dealing with complex emergency

Source UN OCHA (2015) www.unocha.org/media-resources/photo-gallery

2.3 Response mechanisms and strategies in addressing Complex Emergencies in PSO

Complex emergency response strategies and strategies are based with the topology and instability. The CE typology examines how different manifestations of each instability combine to form four distinct and common types of CE. There are four main characteristics type of CE by root causes, main consequences, and responses. The root causes across CEs vary: each involves a conflict or political instability, an environmental component, a poverty or vulnerability dimension and a social demographic factor. CE are typically characterized by: extensive violence and loss of life; populations displacements; widespread damage to societies and economies; need for large-scale, multi-faceted humanitarian assistance; hindrance or prevention of humanitarian assistance by political and military constraints; significant security risks for humanitarian relief workers in some areas (FAO 2013, Raimo V.2000)

These include: Political instability produced by conflict and measured in terms of violence levels and fatalities; Economic instability reflected by levels of poverty and vulnerability of the population facing increasing income inequality; Environmental instability including disasters and long-term shifts due to climate change both of which are projected to increase with the rising global temperature disproportionately affecting developing countries and Demographic instability observed with urban population growth, complex internal displacement, and epidemics. The table 1 below indicates the types of CE in EA and the main types of instability and possible response strategies, (WHO 2002).

MAIN TYPES OF CEs	COMPONENTS	EXAMPLES	RELATIVE IMPACT ASSESSMENT	POSSIBLE RESPONSES
Type 1 <i>Acute</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acute high-intensity conflict: level is higher than the country's baseline of violent events - Acute environmental disaster - High level of poverty - Complex social and ethnic geography 	Sudan Nigeria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Large effected area - Food insecurity: price hikes - High mortality rates - Concentrated forms of conflict-induced displacement: refugees and IDP settlements - Epidemic outbreaks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Food aid - Short-term distribution for displaced persons - Protection of refugees and IDPs - Negotiation and coordination - Open negotiation of a humanitarian access with all the conflict actors - High coordination between the NGOs and agencies - Build resilience
Type 2 <i>Chronic</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Chronic, low intensity of armed and fatal political violence - Vulnerability to climate change induced hazards - High level of poverty: marginalized region - Changing demographics between groups 	Sahel Region Mali	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Large affected area - Medium-to-high level of displacement: internal, short term, and circular - Chronic food insecurity: collapse of market and price hikes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Continued presence in the region and food aid - Short term distribution of food aid - Aid to facilitate the resumption of agricultural activities - Long-term measures - Aid for long-term adaptation to climate change - Plan for integration of conflict parties
Type 3 <i>Urban</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High level of civic violence: rioting and protesting - High level of exposure to climate change hazards - High level of unemployment and high percentage of under serviced population (public service) - Unstable demographic dynamics: rural-urban migration and urban refugees 	Nairobi (Kenya) Freetown (Sierra Leone) Monrovia (Liberia) Harare (Zimbabwe)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Localized affected area - Epidemic outbreaks - Concentrated forms of displacement - Acute food insecurity: seasonal price hikes - Large slum population 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better service delivery to population - Food aid - Education - Vaccination programs - Cooperation over the reinforcement of health institutions - Improve urban governance - Investment in urban employment - Improved living standards for the poor
Type 4 <i>Protracted</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Absence of central authority and large scale protracted conflict with multiple non-state actors - Severe vulnerability to climate change induced: consistently re-occurring and sudden disasters - High level of poverty and collapse of state and local economies - Disturbed demographics 	Somalia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transnational with local hotspots - Epidemic outbreaks - Chronic food insecurity and famines food availability - Intermittent phases of displacement (e.g.- Mogadishu) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reinstatement of a central control - Large scale poverty reduction programs - Food aid distribution - Investment for agriculture productivity - Resumption of public services - Reinforcement of health institutions

Table 1: Types of complex emergency and response

2.4 Effectiveness and efficiency of the CE strategies and mechanisms in PSO

Today's humanitarian system is made up of many different moving parts. These different parts are guided by different standards and learning initiatives, all aimed at promoting an effective humanitarian response. However, the system itself does not yet have a core set of shared values, and it is not clear whether the overall humanitarian endeavour is fit for purpose or optimally configured, given the challenges of a changing global context, and the increasing complexity of crises. The OECD/DAC (2014) criteria for evaluating humanitarian assistance define effectiveness as : effectiveness measures the extent to which the activity achieves its purpose, or whether this can be expected to happen on the basis of the outputs. Implicit within the criteria of effectiveness is timeliness similarly, issues of resourcing and preparedness should be addressed (OECD, 1999)

A common framework of humanitarian effectiveness would mean that each actor would be held accountable for their contribution to the same characteristics of effectiveness – based on what they can control, what they can influence, and where they advocate. Characteristics that are critical for humanitarian effectiveness: Humanitarian effectiveness is a shared responsibility, but with different roles – programmes should be grounded in comparative advantage, they should be forward-looking, and they should respect fundamental principles. Humanitarian effectiveness begins with effective programme design – programmes should aim to maximise reach, be adapted to the context, be demand driven, focus on results, and be good value for money. Humanitarian effectiveness needs the right tools and partnerships – programmes should be predictable and flexible, they should be timely, and co-ordinated, working together in partnership. Humanitarian effectiveness must be measured, demonstrated and improved – through system-wide learning, and accountability.

A common framework for humanitarian effectiveness, designed to promote collective responsibility and mutual accountability, would ensure that each actor would be held accountable for their contribution to the same characteristics of effectiveness. Most Member States have systematically identified and documented information on major national CE.

Awareness and commitment for CE amongst policy/decision makers and legislators have not reached the desired level yet, limiting progress in CE. Not all Member States have policies, strategies, plans and programmes and proper and fully functional institutional frameworks, mechanisms and capacities in place for CE response. There is still inadequate allocation of human and financial resources for CE both at sub-regional and national levels and CE response systems in both sub-regions are heavily dependent on external resource, posing a great challenge to sustainability. Capacities for CE response are not yet fully built and standardized at the sub-regional and country levels. There is limited progress in the integration of CE in urban settings.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

In the EA region, the disaster response management in CE mirrors the economic situation of most of the EA countries. Unless a disaster occurs, disaster response management in CE is given a low priority by both governments and donors. CE response receives resources and funds during emergency periods but long-term development of disaster risk management capabilities, prevention, mitigation and preparedness measures are not well addressed.

EA population lives in semi-arid to hyper-arid zones. Drought is another major hazard in the region. The presence of large tracts of arid and semi-arid land and other factors, such as widespread reliance on subsistence farming and pastoralism, weak farming and livestock management systems, population pressures and water scarcity, all contribute to desertification, environmental degradation and deforestation. The recurrences of climate stresses and population pressures have continued to reduce the use and effectiveness of traditional coping mechanisms.

Resources based wars and civil unrest have become the most serious causes of food insecurity in the region, disrupting food production and marketing activities. Relief and recovery measures to support millions of displaced persons use resources that would otherwise be available for national development. There is need to find permanent solutions to communities being displaced by conflicts. Some of the conflicts are over limited food, water and grazing resources. Coping with current climate extremes and adaptation to future climate change is critical for sustainable peace in the region

Most member states have developed/reviewed policies, strategies and plans and put in place institutions to deal with complex emergency indicating increased awareness and commitments on the part of policy and decision makers. There is little progress observed with respect to the integration of CE Response mechanisms into development policies, plans and programmes of relevant sectors such as agriculture, health, and water and energy.

There is still inadequate allocation of human and financial resources for CE management both at sub-regional and national levels and CE systems/programmes in both sub-regions are heavily dependent on external resource, posing a great challenge to sustainability. Not all Member States have policies, strategies, plans and programmes and proper and fully functional institutional frameworks, mechanisms and capacities in place for CE. The institutions dealing with CE response need to adopt a Business models, including the way we plan and deliver humanitarian assistance, need to change and evolve if they are to remain fit for purpose to meet today's challenges, and to provide assistance more effectively in the future. These changes can be grouped under three main headings: 1. Moving away from the one-size-fits-all response model 2. Adapting and refining programming tools and concepts 3. Clarifying when, where and why the response is effective

Recommendations

The EA countries need an efficient and effective response mechanism for complex emergency disaster in PSO. Interventions in this area will aim to build capacity as recent events have highlighted the need for disaster planning by leaders in all types of organizations, civilian and military

There is need to for building resilience and undertaking community based CE response outreach to establish a new generation of EA who are ready to make a sustainable difference

More efforts is needed to strengthening national preparedness Emergency Coordination Center, with support from partners, including IGAD, EAC in order for member states to meet the post 2016 Hygo protocol. There is need for member states to balance humanitarian and development approach and investment in addressing the underlying causes of CE .

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Highlights of Key Messages in the Issue Briefs

Response Mechanisms and Strategies on Climate Change-Related Conflicts in the HoA of Africa

- National, regional and international response mechanisms and strategies have been put in place in order to address climate change related conflicts. The response mechanisms like NAPA aim at looking at priority areas that can enhance communities adaptation to the effects of climate change which may in turn reduce potential conflicts threats over scarce resources.
- There are response mechanisms that also look at peace building and reconstruction of disaster prone areas within the HoA of Africa. Drought and famine are a great source of conflict in the HoA. Agencies like the UNDP undertake re-stocking of livestock, vaccination and construction of watering points that minimize the impacts of drought and famine.
- IGAD-CEWARN addresses cross-border conflicts among pastoralists that arise from the effects of climate change. It largely involves both state and non-state actors at local, national and regional levels in its mobilization strategy.
- Individual countries have mechanisms that attempt to address climate change related conflicts. The use of Joint Peace Committees necessitated by the perennial conflicts emanating from agro-pastoralist and pastoralist communities competing for scarce resources has been instrumental. Different countries within the HoA adopt different approaches of dealing with Joint Peace Committees where the committees either have an informal or formal role in conflict prevention, resolution and peacebuilding.

Author Profiles



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