REINFORCING VETERINARY GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA

VET-GOV

LIVESTOCK POLICY LANDSCAPE IN AFRICA: A REVIEW
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# Table of Contents

Acronyms vii

Preface x

Acknowledgements xii

1.0 Global and African Perspectives of Livestock 13
   1.1 Contribution of livestock to global and African economy 13
   1.2 Incomes, population growth and trends in urbanization 14
   1.3 Demand for livestock products/consumption trends 15
   1.4 Livestock Production trends 17
   1.5 Rationale for Livestock Policy Landscaping 17

2.0 Continental Policies and Proclamations 19
   2.1 Africa Agenda 2063 (2013-2063) 19
   2.2 NEPAD and CAADP 19
   2.3 African Union Tool for the Inclusion of Livestock in CAADP Compacts and Investment Plans 20
   2.4 Livestock Development Strategy for Africa (LiDeSA) 21
   2.5 Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa (PFPA) 22
   2.6 Maputo Declaration 2003 24
   2.7 Malabo Declaration 2014 24

3.0 Regional and National Agricultural /Livestock Policies 25
   3.1 COMESA 25
   3.2 EAC 38
   3.3 ECCAS/CEMAC 45
   3.4 ECOWAS 56
   3.5 IGAD 66
   3.6 SADC 71
   3.7 UMA/Egypt 79

4.0 Synthesis of Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa 90
   4.1 Regional Level Livestock Policy Landscape 90
   4.2 National level Livestock Development and Animal health/Veterinary Policies and Strategies 90
   4.3 Animal health/Veterinary Legislation 90
   4.4 Policy Directions 90
   4.5 Bridging the Gaps in Livestock Policies and Legislation in Africa 90

5.0 Conclusions 91

6.0 Recommendations 93

7.0 Bibliography 94
# ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACTESA</td>
<td>Alliance for Commodity Trade in Eastern and Southern Africa</td>
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<td>ADF</td>
<td>Agricultural Development Fund</td>
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<td>AGTGs</td>
<td>Agricultural Growth and Transformation Goals</td>
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<td>ASAL</td>
<td>Arid and Semi-Arid lands</td>
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<tr>
<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of Southeast Asian Nations</td>
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<td>ASF</td>
<td>African Swine Fever</td>
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<td>AU MSs</td>
<td>African Union Member states</td>
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<td>AUC</td>
<td>African Union Commission</td>
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<td>AU-IBAR</td>
<td>African Union Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources</td>
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<td>CAADP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme</td>
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<td>CAC</td>
<td>Codex Alimentarius Commission</td>
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<td>CAP</td>
<td>Common Agricultural Policy</td>
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<td>CBPP</td>
<td>Contagious Bovine Pleuropneumonia</td>
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<td>CCTs</td>
<td>CAADP Country Teams</td>
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<td>CDC</td>
<td>Defense and Security Commission,</td>
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<td>CEMAC</td>
<td>Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa</td>
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<td>CEWARN</td>
<td>Conflict Early Warning and Response Network</td>
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<td>COMESA</td>
<td>Common Market for East and Southern Africa</td>
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<td>COPAX</td>
<td>Council for Peace and Security in Central Africa</td>
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<td>CSOs</td>
<td>Civil Society Organizations</td>
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<td>CVO</td>
<td>Chief Veterinary Officer (Head of Veterinary Services)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAC</td>
<td>East African Community</td>
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<td>EAC–ARDP</td>
<td>East African Community Agriculture and Rural Development Policy</td>
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<td>ECCAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of Central African States</td>
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<td>ECOSOC</td>
<td>Economic Community of the Great Lakes States Economic and Social Council</td>
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<td>ECOWAP</td>
<td>ECOWAS Regional Agricultural Policy</td>
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<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>EEZ</td>
<td>Exclusive Economic Zone</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<td>FAO RNEA</td>
<td>FAO Regional Office for Near East and North Africa</td>
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<td>FLS</td>
<td>Frontline States</td>
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<td>FMD</td>
<td>Foot-and-Mouth Disease</td>
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<td>FOMAC</td>
<td>Multinational Force of Central Africa</td>
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<td>GATT</td>
<td>General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>GMOs</td>
<td>Genetically Modified Organisms</td>
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<td>HoA</td>
<td>Horn of Africa</td>
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<td>ICARDA</td>
<td>International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Area</td>
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<td>ICPAC</td>
<td>IGAD Climate Prediction and Applications Centre</td>
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<td>ICPALD</td>
<td>IGAD Centre for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<td>IDDRSI</td>
<td>IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative</td>
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Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

IFAD  International Fund for Agricultural Development
IGAD  Inter-Governmental Authority on Development
IGADD  Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Development
ILRI  International Livestock Research Institute
IPCC  Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPPC  International Plant Protection Convention
IRCM  Integrated Regional Coordination Mechanism
ITC  International Trade Centre
IUCN  International Union for the Conservation of Nature
LiDeSA  Livestock Development Strategy for Africa
LPH  Livestock Policy Hub
LSIPT  Livestock Sector Investment and Policy
M&E  Monitoring and Evaluation
MARAC  Early Warning Mechanism of Central Africa
MDGs  Millennium Development Goals
MIP  Minimum Integration Plan
MS  Member State
NA  North Africa
NAIP  National Agricultural Investment Plan
NENA  Near East and North Africa
NEPAD  New Partnership for African Development
NGOs  Non-Governmental Organizations
NPCA  NEPAD Planning and Coordinating Agency
NR  Natural resources
NWFP  Non-Wood Forest Products
OIE  World Animal Health Organization
PFPA  Pastoral Policy Framework for Africa
PI  Priority Intervention
PPP  Public Private Partnership
PPR  Peste des Petits Ruminants
R&D;  Research and Development
RAIP  Regional Agricultural Investment Plan
RAP  Regional Agricultural Policy
RBM  Results Based Management
RECs  Regional Economic Communities
REP  Regional Economic Programme
REPAC  Network of Parliamentarians of Central Africa
RLPH  Regional Livestock Policy Hub
RPFS-CA  Regional Program for Food Security in Central Africa
SADC  Southern Africa Development Community
SADCC  Southern African Development Coordination Conference
SDD  Stakeholder Driven Development
SME  Small and Medium Enterprise
SOFIA  State of Food in Africa
SPS  Sanitary and Phyto-sanitary Standards
SROs  Sub-Regional Organizations
SSA    Sub-Saharan Africa
TADs    Trans-boundary Animal Diseases
TCP    Technical Cooperation Programme
TN    Terra Nuova
UDEAC    Central African Customs and Economic Union
UEMOA    Economic and Monetary Union of West Africa
UMA    Union Maghreb Arab
UN FAO    United Nations Food And Agriculture Organisation
VET–GOV    Reinforcing Veterinary Governance in Africa Program
WTO    World Trade Organization
The African Union’s Interafrican Bureau for Animal Resources is implementing the Reinforcing Veterinary Governance Programme; The Programme’s intention is to improve the national and regional institutional environments to enable provision of effective and efficient animal health services in Africa. To achieve this, the Programme has adopted a two-fold approach; (i) Establishment of adequate and affordable veterinary services on the national level; and (ii) Enhancement of the capacities of regional institutions to play their coordinating, harmonising, supporting and integration roles between their member states.

The Programme was launched on January 16, 2012 at AU-IBAR in Nairobi, Kenya. Its scope is continental and implementation is undertaken in partnership with the Regional Economic Communities, the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the World Organization for Animal Health (OIE).

The VET-GOV programme aims to improve aspects of Governance and Institutional reforms required to improve the provision of veterinary services in Africa.

The strategic goal of the programme is to bring about institutional strengthening of veterinary services towards (i) the establishment of adequate veterinary services at the national level (ii) strengthen regional institutions to play their roles of coordination, harmonization, integration and support to countries to stimulate a more conducive environment for public and private investments in the livestock sector.

The programme focuses on three main areas: Creating a conducive and participatory change environment through evidence-based advocacy and knowledge creation; Building institutional and individual capacity in policy analysis, formulation and implementation to undertake institutional strengthening of veterinary services and Encouraging change through supporting initiatives with high leverage effects.

To enhance the knowledge base with respect to policy and legislative frameworks in the livestock sector and contribute toward effective and coherent policy and strategy formulation/implementation, the VET-GOV programme initially focused on enhancing existing livestock policies and strategies at the national, regional and continental levels. While these efforts are laudable it is imperative that the linkages and connectivity between them be discernible and the related synergy brought out.

The VET-GOV programme embarked on the production of a document that illustrates and consolidates the two years’ work done by VET-GOV programme in profiling and cataloguing livestock policies and strategies in Africa over the last ten years and offering a critical synthesis at the national, regional and continental levels. The document was aimed to provide evidence for livestock policies and capacity development for improved use of socio-economic analysis in animal health and livestock policy and related programmatic actions.

The work done included identification and reviewing of all relevant livestock policies and strategies in Africa at the national, regional and continental levels in addition to reviewing and synthesizing the identified policies and strategies in chronological order and development and application of a set of criteria for establishing a typology of policies and strategies to provide for a clear understanding of the intent, purposes and objectives.

This work also included establishment of a general policy direction and the main policy trends in the
continent and its consistency/contradiction with the changing public sector role, poverty reduction and promotion of increased private sector involvement and finally it included evaluation and proposing adjustments to the apparent policy direction.

The document focuses on profiling and cataloguing livestock policies and strategies in Africa over the last ten years and offering a critical synthesis at the national, regional and continental levels.

It is worth mentioning that this document illustrates and consolidates the work done by VET-GOV Programme in providing evidence for livestock policies and capacity development for improved livestock policy and related programmatic actions.

Professor Ahmed El-Sawalhy
Director, AU-IBAR
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1.0 Global and African Perspectives of Livestock

1.1 Contribution of livestock to global and African economy
Livestock play a vital role in economic development - particularly as societies evolve from subsistence agriculture into cash-based economies. Globally, livestock contribute 40 percent of the global value of agricultural output; valued at $1.4 trillion; support livelihoods and food security of 1.3 billion people; and, contribute 15 percent of total food energy and 25 percent of dietary protein (FAO, The State of Food and Agriculture: Livestock in the Balance, 2009). The proportional livestock contribution to agricultural output is about 50% in developed regions and 25% in developing regions. In developing regions, livestock provide major additional contributions to agriculture through draft power and manure for fuel and fertilizer (http://www.worldbank.org/html/cgiar/25years/live.html).

In Africa, over 350 million people, about a third of the continent’s population, are directly dependent on livestock for their incomes and livelihoods. The sector contributes 30-50% of agricultural GDP. FAO reports that around 10 percent of the human population of Sub-Saharan Africa is primarily dependent on livestock, while another 58 percent at least partially depend on livestock. It is further noted that:

- The growth markets for livestock products are in the developing regions. Improvements in livestock productivity are necessary to meet the substantial increase in demand for livestock products - especially in developing regions. However, it is neither appropriate nor sustainable to achieve these increases by mining the fragile natural resource base at the expense of future generations (http://www.worldbank.org/html/cgiar/25years/live.html)

- Increasingly, global strategies for livestock development must consider the environmental impact and the inter-regional economics of production and marketing. Improved livestock productivity supporting economic development and sustainable natural resource management are not incompatible goals. Inter-regional trade and market development must consider differences in comparative and competitive advantage, which often do not coincide. Subsidies, price controls, trade barriers and other factors can neutralize comparative advantage of developing countries for low-cost livestock production (http://www.worldbank.org/html/cgiar/25years/live.html).

- Animal agriculture can be a positive factor in long-term, sustainable agriculture by incorporating adequate economic returns to livestock farmers; through maintenance of natural resources and productivity; minimal adverse environmental effects; optimal production with minimal external inputs; and satisfaction of food, income and social needs (http://www.worldbank.org/html/cgiar/25years/live.html).

- Globally, livestock production is estimated at about 408 billion USD compared to 1,185 billion USD for agriculture and represents about 34.5% of the agricultural GDP. Its growth rate is estimated at about 2.4% (FAOSTAT, 2010). For developing countries as a whole, the annual economic value of production of milk, pork, poultry and eggs, and beef and veal is approximately the same, at around US$40 billion each. Mutton has a value only 12% of this amount. However, as with poultry, small ruminants have a special worth for resource-poor livestock keepers in view of their low capital value per head and short generation intervals (ILRI strategy to 2010: making the Livestock Revolution work for the poor, 2000 http://www.ilri.org/InfoServ/Webpub/Fulldocs/Strategy_10/toc.htm).

- Livestock significantly contribute to agricultural GDP in Africa. It is estimated that livestock-derived food items (meat, milk and eggs) alone contributed around 30% to agricultural GDP in Africa. In Southern Africa livestock contributes between 1 and 15% to Agricultural GDP. These percentages do not include non-food livestock products such as draught power and manure, which enhance productivity of crop production, nor do they take into account intangible livestock contributions to rural communities.
through risk mitigation and wealth accumulation.

- The livestock sector contributes between 20-50% to agricultural valued added in the African countries with a continental average of 26% and is expected to become the largest contributor to agriculture as economic development progresses because of a growing demand for high-value food items, including meat and dairy products.

1.2 Incomes, population growth and trends in urbanization

World population was estimated as 7.244 billion in July 2014 and is expected to grow to 9.3 billion in 2050. Among developing countries, SSA’s population will grow the fastest at 114%. Between 1980 and 2003, Urbanization in the world grew at 3%; was highest in developing regions (3.7%) and lowest in developed regions at 0.8%. By 2050, about 70% of the people will be living in urban areas. SSA had the highest rate in developing regions at 4.9% followed by South and South Eastern Asia at 4.0% and Near East and North Africa at 3.4% (FAO, FAO STAT, 2009). During the period 2010-2050, population growth rates will remain low in developed regions and high in developing regions as shown in Figure 1, below.

![Annual urban growth rate](image)

*Figure 1: Past and projected Urbanisation rates. Source: (FAO, The State of Food and Agriculture: Livestock in the Balance, 2009)*

The per capita income growth during the period 1990 to 2009 remained less than 2% in developed regions and between 3 and 4% in developing regions (Figure 2). During the period 2000 to 2009, per capita income growth trends in SSA have reversed from negative to positive rates of 2%. Income growth and urbanization in all regions are responsible for growth in demand for livestock and livestock products in SSA and are projected to rise further.
1.3 Demand for livestock products/consumption trends
Africa, with its large and growing urban populations and increasing per capita incomes is likely to experience higher per capita consumption of livestock products. This assertion is based on the following projections and observations:

- Annual meat production is projected to increase from 218 million tonnes in 1997-1999 to 376 million tonnes by 2030.
- By 2050 per capita consumption of meat in Africa is projected to increase to 26 kg and milk to 64 litres, while the total consumption of meat is projected to be 35 million metric tonnes (+218% increase over the 2005/07 projected levels) and for milk to increase to 83 million metric tonnes (+159% over the 2005/07 projected levels);
- Currently, between 16 – 20% of demand for livestock and livestock products on the African continent is met through importation.
- There is strong positive relationship between the level of income and the consumption of animal protein, with the consumption of meat, milk and eggs increasing at the expense of staple foods.
- Because of the recent steep decline in prices, developing countries are embarking on higher meat consumption at much lower levels of gross domestic product than the industrialized countries did some 20-30 years ago.
- Urbanization is a major driving force influencing global demand for livestock products. It stimulates improvements in infrastructure, including cold chains, which permit trade in perishable goods. Compared with the less diversified diets of the rural communities, city dwellers have a varied diet rich in animal proteins and fats, and characterized by higher consumption of meat, poultry, milk and other dairy products. For instance it has been noted that there has been a remarkable increase in the consumption of animal products in countries such as Brazil and China, although the levels are still well below the levels of consumption in North America and most other industrialized countries.
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

Table 1: Past and projected trends in consumption of meat and milk in developing and developed countries.

| Countries | 
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Annual per capita consumption | Total consumption | 
| | Meat (kg) | Milk (kg) | Meat (Mt) | Milk (Mt) | 
| Developing | | | | | |
| 1980 | 14 | 34 | 47 | 114 | 
| 1990 | 18 | 38 | 73 | 152 | 
| 2002 | 28 | 44 | 137 | 222 | 
| 2015 | 32 | 55 | 184 | 323 | 
| 2030 | 38 | 67 | 252 | 452 | 
| 2050 | 44 | 78 | 326 | 585 | 
| Developed | | | | | |
| 1980 | 73 | 195 | 86 | 228 | 
| 1990 | 80 | 200 | 100 | 251 | 
| 2002 | 78 | 202 | 102 | 265 | 
| 2015 | 83 | 203 | 112 | 273 | 
| 2030 | 89 | 209 | 121 | 284 | 
| 2050 | 94 | 216 | 126 | 295 | 

Source: Steinfeld et al. (2006) and for 2030–2050 from FAO (2006). Projections are shown in italic font.

- As diets become richer and more diverse, the high-value protein that the livestock sector offers improves the nutrition of the vast majority of the world.
- Livestock products not only provide high-value protein but are also important sources of a wide range of essential micronutrients, in particular minerals such as iron and zinc, and vitamins such as vitamin A. For the large majority of people in the world, particularly in developing countries, livestock products remain a desired food for nutritional value and taste. Excessive consumption of animal products in some countries and social classes can, however, lead to excessive intakes of fat.
- Driven by population growth and increasing incomes, the demand for animal source foods in developing countries is growing rapidly, while urbanisation leads to demand becoming highly concentrated. Up to a point of saturation, a more affluent population uses a proportional, or even increasing proportion of its growing income on animal-source foods.

Analysis of data and projections obtained from the FAO Global Perspective Studies Unit, show that increases in the demand for animal-sourced food will be extraordinarily high in Africa by 2030 and 2050 and that production will not keep the pace of consumption and therefore the continent is anticipated to increasingly become a net importer of animal-sourced foods (World Bank, 2013). By 2050, the meat market is projected at 34.8 million tonnes and that of milk about 82.6 million tonnes, an increase of 145 and 155 percent respectively over 2005/07 levels. Similar demand trends have been projected by the Africa Livestock Futures report that investigated plausible trajectories for African livestock to 2050 using a global partial equilibrium model under three scenarios (Herrero, 2014). Milk consumption is likely to increase three fold under all scenarios in all SSA regions by 2050. The consumption of pork, poultry and eggs have the highest projected rates of growth. Eastern Africa will remain largest consumer of milk, dominating the growth in consumption. West Africa is projected to have a 6 to 7-fold increase in the consumption of monogastric products mostly poultry to 2050, followed by Southern and Eastern Africa (four-fold increases).

Assuming business as usual scenario showed that imports of milk and monogastric products (poultry mostly) would double while share of ruminants meat imports to production would rise from 2% in 2000 to about 16% in 2050. If a negative deviation from current base production practice occurs in terms of productive efficiency, prices and GDP growth; and climate change, SSA livestock sector will largely be
uncompetitive, with substantially lower resource use efficiencies and high production costs. On the one hand assuming, an improved production scenario of high production growth (rapid technological change potential in livestock and crop yields, lower costs, and remunerative product prices, more competition in input and product markets) highest growth in milk production will be recorded in East and West Africa, while production growth of monogastrics and ruminant meat will be highest in West Africa and East Africa respectively.

The growth and transformation of the livestock sector to meet the increasing demand offers opportunities for agricultural development, poverty reduction and food security gains. To ensure the African livestock value chains do not miss the development opportunity and given the widespread societal benefits that inclusive growth of livestock can generate, investments, policy and institutional reforms are critical.

1.4 Livestock Production trends
Among the agricultural sub-sectors, livestock is one of the fastest growing driven by urbanization, income growth and human population increase and is supported by technological and structural changes. It is generally noted that:

- Production is increasing rapidly due to high demand brought about by growing population especially in developing countries and will double by 2050;
- Production is growing faster than any agricultural subsector;
- Most increase is in the developing countries;
- In sub-Saharan Africa, between 2000 and 2010, total production of nearly all livestock commodities increased by more than 3% per year;
- Livestock sector growth in Africa is the lowest in the world, growing at 2-3% per year.
- Total fisheries production in Africa in 2010 was estimated at 9.4 million tonnes. This comprised of 5.7 million tonnes from marine capture, 2.5 million tonnes from inland water fisheries and about 1.2 million tonnes from aquaculture.
- The contribution of Africa to the value of total global trade in fish imports (US$ 111.31 billion) and exports (US$ 8.54 billion) is estimated at 2.83 % and 7.25 % respectively in 2010 (SOFIA, 2010).)
- Key globalization issues that may impact on the animal resources sector include: expansion of commercial agriculture and trans-border investments, increasing cost of accessing the results of science and of sharing knowledge, property rights legislations needed to safeguard indigenous knowledge and biological/genetic resources, and developing, disseminating and enforcing sanitary and phyto-sanitary standards (SPS).

In 2010, FAO initiated the Global Agenda for Sustainable Livestock that promote improved sector performance while at the same adopting practices that support natural resource protection; poverty reduction and protect public health from agricultural related diseases. The initiative also supports adoption of guidance and recommendations that make livestock food value chains more sustainable by the public and private sector.

1.5 Rationale for Livestock Policy Landscaping
Livestock sector development in Africa has many drivers key among which are the global, continental, regional and national policies, strategies and legislations. These documents define the development path for the livestock subsector and subsequent public and private sector interventions. Similarly, these interventions position the continent and the specific countries to either take advantage of the existing opportunities for the benefit of their citizens or alternatively lose out. For the livestock sub-sector to adjust
to the needs of the future, it is imperative that a complete stock taking of the major policies, strategies and legislation that have led the Continent to its current status be documented in order to form the basis for charting a new course that will provide for increased benefits all along the value chain. This new course must document the policy constraints and challenges facing the livestock sub-sector ranging from animal diseases, limited trade, lack of investment, access to and management of natural resources as well as the more recent climate change issues. It must of necessity develop corresponding policy interventions that will offer the capacity to overcome the identified policy constraints.
2.0 Continental Policies and Proclamations

2.1 Africa Agenda 2063 (2013-2063)
This is a recent effort by AU heads of state to develop Africa calling for a paradigm shift in development approaches to build on the current positive economic prospects to fast track the growth trajectory in 50 years (2013 to 2063). It will strategically exploit all possible opportunities available in the immediate and medium term. The collective vision and roadmap commit to speed-up actions in the following areas:

• Eradicate poverty in a generation by 2025, through concentrating all efforts, investing in the productive capacities (skills and assets) of our people, improving incomes, creating jobs and providing basic necessities of life.
• Provide opportunities for all Africans to have decent housing in clean, secure and well planned environment
• Catalyse an Education and Skills revolution and actively promote science, technology, research and innovation, to build knowledge, human resources, capabilities and skills for the African century
• Transform, grow and industrialise our economies through beneficiation and value addition of natural resources:
• Consolidate the modernisation of African agriculture and agro-businesses, through scaled up value addition and productivity by 2025
• Implementation of the Programme on Climate Action in Africa
• Connect Africa through world-class Infrastructure,
• Fast-track the establishment of a Continental Free Trade Area by 2017,
• Support Young people as drivers of Africa’s renaissance,
• Silence the guns by 2020,
• Achieve Gender Parity by 2020 in public and private institutions
• Introduce an African Passport, issued by Member states, capitalising on the global migration towards e-passports, and the abolition of visa requirements for all African citizens in all African countries by 2018.
• Consolidate a democratic and people-centered Africa,
• Enhance Africa’s united voice in global negotiations,
• Strengthen domestic resource mobilisation,
• Set up an implementation, monitoring and evaluation system to ensure the attainment of the African Aspirations towards continental unity:

2.2 NEPAD and CAADP
The New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD), an African Union strategic framework for Pan-African socio-economic development, is both a vision and a policy framework for Africa in the twenty-first century. NEPAD is a radically new intervention, spearheaded by African leaders, to address critical challenges facing the continent: poverty, development and Africa’s marginalisation internationally. NEPAD provides unique opportunities for African countries to take full control of their development agenda, to work more closely together, and to cooperate more effectively with international partners. NEPAD manages a number of programmes and projects in the following six thematic areas:

• Agriculture and Food Security
• Climate Change and Natural Resource Management.
• Regional Integration and Infrastructure.
• Human Development.
• Economic and Corporate Governance.
Cross-cutting Issues, including Gender, Capacity Development and ICT.

The topmost policy document for improving agricultural production and productivity in the continent under NEPAD is the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). CAADP is designed to encourage investment in four key pillars (sustainable land and water management; rural infrastructure, trade and market access; food security; and agricultural productivity) that can make the earliest difference to Africa’s agricultural crises. CAADP was adopted by the African Heads of States as a framework for the revival of agriculture and officially launched in 2003 at a meeting held in Midrand, South Africa. CAADP aims to be the main tool for cutting hunger and poverty in half in by the year 2015. In order to achieve this goal, CAADP requires African countries to commit to:

- 10% of Budget to agriculture
- 6% annual sectoral growth up to 2015
- Dedicated implementation and monitoring mechanism

Although implementation of CAADP is primarily country driven, it is complemented by regional actions which add value to the national efforts. The formulation and implementation of regional and national CAADP’s is coordinated by the Regional Economic Communities (RECs).

In the initial phase of CAADP implementation, it was felt that there was a lack of emphasis on livestock issues which were under-represented in poverty reduction strategies. As a result, the African Union Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources (AU-IBAR) as a specialized technical office of the Commission of the African Union (AUC) with the mandate for supporting and coordinating the utilization of animal resources for human well-being, was mandated to assist AU Member States (MS) to mainstream livestock in their agricultural investment plans. Thus, in 2010, AU-IBAR developed a framework to mainstream livestock in the CAADP pillar framework. In addition, AU-IBAR developed a guide to assist CAADP country teams to be able to include livestock in their CAADP Compacts. This tool identifies livestock priorities in each of the CAADP pillars as follows:

**Livestock Priorities in Pillar 1**
- Access to water and pasture management
- Maintaining pastoral mobility
- Ensure access to and use of natural resources

**Livestock Priorities in Pillar 2**
- Promote trade with minimal risk. Promote inter-regional trade.

**Livestock Priorities in Pillar 3**
- Provide animal health services through governance.

**Livestock Priorities in Pillar 4**
- Development of options for securing service delivery. Public Private Partnerships are very important in this regard.

### 2.3 African Union Tool for the Inclusion of Livestock in CAADP Compacts and Investment Plans

The Tool for the Inclusion of Livestock in the CAADP Compacts primarily targets the so-called stocktaking exercise, a fundamental step in the CAADP process. It aims at the identification of major bottlenecks
and opportunities for agricultural development which translate in the Compact as priority areas for investment. The Tool identifies a number of core livestock indicators that the CAADP Country Teams (CCTs) should collect / generate for an effective stocktaking exercise, while it provides basic guidelines for the post-Compact stage, which includes the formulation of the National Agriculture Investment Plan (NAIP). It complements the AU-IBAR ‘Framework for Mainstreaming Livestock in the CAADP Pillars’ (AU-IBAR, 2010), the NEPAD’s ‘Accelerating CAADP Country Implementation: A Guide for Implementers’ (NEPAD, 2010) as well as the ‘Livestock Sector Investment and Policy Toolkit’ developed under the ALive Platform (LSIPT, 2012).

The Tool for the Inclusion of Livestock in the CAADP Compacts consists of five intertwined modules:

- **Module I, Mapping and Consulting Stakeholders**, assists CCTs in identifying and consulting stakeholders who appreciate the many channels through which livestock contribute to economic growth and livelihoods, including the monetary and non-monetary values of farm animals.

- **Module II, Livestock in the National Economy**, suggests that the CCTs collect / generate a key set of core livestock indicators at national level, which help appreciate whether there are opportunities for livestock sector development to contribute to economic growth, food security and poverty reduction.

- **Module III, Livestock in the Household Economy**, recommends that the CCTs collect / generate core livestock indicators at household level, which help understand the role of livestock in the household economy, including constraints to productivity. Ultimately, this module aims at identifying priority areas for livestock sector investments.

- **Module IV, Livestock in the CAADP Compacts**, clusters Module I and Module II national and household level indicators around the four CAADP pillars, namely sustainable land and water management; rural infrastructure, trade and market access; food security; and agricultural productivity. This module assists the CCTs in ensuring that livestock investments be consistent with the CAADP framework and priorities.

- **Module V, Post-Compact Livestock Investments**, gives some basic indications on the data / indicators needed to formulate, implement, monitor & evaluate the livestock component of the CAADP National Agriculture Investment Plan. It also delves upon the importance of experimenting or testing alternative implementation mechanisms on a small scale, before scaling out investments to the entire country.

### 2.4 Livestock Development Strategy for Africa (LiDeSA)

The Abuja Food Security Declaration (AU 2006) declared a firm commitment in increasing Intra-African trade by promoting and protecting rice, maize, legumes, cotton, oil palm, beef, dairy, poultry and fisheries products as strategic commodities at the continental level, and cassava, sorghum and millet at sub-regional level. In relation to this, the African Union Commission (AUC) is developing a livestock development strategy for the continent. As an integral part of the broader agricultural sector, the livestock agenda is guided by the vision and aspirations of the Accelerated African Agricultural Growth and Transformation Goals of the Malabo Declaration. This strategy is also informed by the CAADP results framework and will guide and assist countries and RECs in formulating livestock investment priorities within their agricultural investment plans. It is also in line with the Agenda 2063, a 50 year strategy for the African Continent in all spheres of social and economic development. It will position the livestock sector as the key driver for delivering the desired 6% annual growth in agriculture in the AU Member States thus contributing significantly to national economic growth. It will also guide and mainstream stakeholders’ efforts in addressing major development challenges facing the sector. This strategy will serve as a framework and advocacy tool to accelerate reforms and development in the livestock sector. This initiative is a response to a recommendation of the 9th conference of ministers responsible for animal resources in Africa that
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

was held in Abidjan Cote d’Ivoire on 18-19 April 2013. Within the framework of the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) this strategy will ensure coordinated action and promote synergy in addressing critical issues facing livestock development in Africa. This strategy will ensure coordinated action and promote synergy in addressing critical issues facing livestock development in Africa within the CAADP framework.

The Vision of LIDESA is “A competitive and sustainable livestock sector that significantly contributes to a prosperous Africa” while its Goal is “To transform the African livestock sector for enhanced contribution to socio-economic development and equitable growth”.

The Strategic Objectives that will lead to the realization of this Goal are:

• To attract public and private investments along the different livestock values chains
• To enhance animal health and increase the production, productivity and resilience of livestock production systems
• To enhance innovation, generation and utilization of technologies, capacities and entrepreneurship skills of livestock value chain actors
• To enhance access to markets, services and value addition

2.4.1 Continental programme for Sustainable Development of Livestock in Africa
Within the context of LiDeSA, AU-IBAR has formulated a continental programme titled: Livestock for livelihoods and sustainable development in Africa that has as its objective to enhance policy/institutional environment and strengthen livestock management systems and practices in response to natural and man-made shocks at national, regional and continental levels. To be effective in achieving the above specific objective, this programme delineates the interventions that will be implemented as part of national programme of each country, regional programme by the RECs and their partners and continental level by AU-IBAR and its technical partners. Technical support to be provided by the technical partners will address the three levels. These technical partners include FAO, OIE, SROs, ILRI, IUCN among others.

Pillar 1: Improving the control of priority animal diseases affecting livestock development and livelihoods
Pillar 2: Strengthening livestock production systems and natural resources Management
Pillar 3: Enhancing market access and strengthening value addition
Pillar 4: Enabling environment for enhanced investment and service delivery

2.5 Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa (PFPA)
A well-managed extensive livestock production on communal land is one of the most appropriate uses of the drylands. Over the years, pastoralists have developed elaborate land-use strategies for conserving resources, and there are examples of grazing regimes, stocking regulations and pasture conservation within many pastoral societies. These movements are not random or irrational, but highly strategic and draw on local information gathering and risk analysis, supported by extraordinary traditional systems of governance and decision-making. It is these technical and social aspects of pastoralism, developed and adapted over centuries, which has enabled the pastoralist to survive in this harsh environment.

Despite this long survival, pastoralism remains a poorly understood lifestyle and pastoral populations are often marginalized from national policymaking and economic development. Mobility is a highly efficient way of managing the fragile ecosystem of dryland characterized by sparse and fragile vegetation and
relatively low fertility of dryland soils. Dryland ecosystems may be more ecologically resilient, as long as some degree of livestock mobility or resource-use management is maintained. A poor understanding of the dynamics of pastoral systems has resulted in inappropriate policies such as constraining herd mobility that have undermined pastoral development.

Policies that promote sedentarization have been widely pursued in the past, with serious environmental and social consequences. Government policies have failed to protect key pastoral resources, such as wetlands, dry season reserves and livestock corridors, from encroachment by external agents such as farmers, investors and national parks. Consequently, access to grazing routes, watering points and livestock corridors are increasingly restricted, destabilizing the entire ecosystem. In pastoral systems, there are close interactions between livestock and the environment and therefore any changes and constraints within the system are likely to have strong environmental implications.

2.5.1 Old landscape, new opportunities and challenges in Pastoralism

After decades of comparative neglect, the drylands of the Horn of Africa are experiencing an unprecedented surge of investment. Large scale infrastructure projects now dominate national development plans. They represent a welcome renewal of interest by states in drylands and an opportunity to reduce long-standing inequalities in the provision of public goods and services. Extra industries (mineral and oil mining) are expected to increase in the future promoting urbanization, and changes in land use. Also, marginal drylands are likely to be opened for irrigation requiring policies to mitigate natural resource conflicts.

However, the prospects of these investments delivering broad-based benefits for dryland peoples will depend on the extent to which they take account for three critical issues: the impact of inequality; rights to land and other natural resources; and the manner of their planning and implementation. Investment may also overlook the value of pastoral production in the belief that other uses must be more productive.

The African Union’s Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa notes that appropriation of pastoral land for private commercial ventures “is [in part] influenced by misperceptions of pastoral rangeland as non-productive or even vacant.” The Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa is the first continent-wide policy initiative which aims to secure, protect and improve the lives, livelihoods and rights of African pastoralists. The policy framework is a platform for mobilizing and coordinating political commitment to pastoral development in Africa, and emphasizes the need to fully involve pastoralist women and men in the national and regional development processes from which they are supposed to benefit. The framework also emphasizes the regional nature of many pastoralist ecosystems in Africa and therefore, the need to support and harmonize policies across the Regional Economic Communities and Member States.

The African Union Policy Framework For Pastoralism in Africa has two objectives namely:

a. Secure and protect the lives, livelihoods and rights of pastoral peoples and ensure continent-wide commitment to political, social and economic development of pastoral communities and pastoral areas.

b. Reinforce the contribution of pastoral livestock to national, regional and continent-wide economies.

Regionalization of this policy is envisaged through the Regional Economic Communities (RECs). For example COMESA has a draft Policy Framework for Food Security in Pastoralist Areas released in late 2009, under the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Pillar 3. This framework proposes regional harmonization of national policies to support regional movements of pastoralists to
enable efficient use of transnational rangeland ecosystems, and for livestock trade.

2.6 Maputo Declaration 2003
The African heads of states, concerned that 30 percent of the population of Africa is chronically and severely undernourished; that the Continent has become a net importer of food; and that it is currently the largest recipient of food aid in the world and Convinced of the need for Africa to utilize its full potential to increase its food and agricultural production so as to guarantee sustainable food security and ensure economic prosperity for its peoples Resolve to:

REVITALIZE the agricultural sector including livestock, forestry and fisheries through special policies and strategies targeted at small scale and traditional farmers in rural areas and the creation of enabling conditions for private sector participation, with emphasis on human capacity development and the removal of constraints to agricultural production and marketing, including soil fertility, poor water management, inadequate infrastructure, pests and diseases;

IMPLEMENT, as a matter of urgency, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and flagship projects and evolving Action Plans for agricultural development, at the national, regional and continental levels. To this end, we agree to adopt sound policies for agricultural and rural development, and commit ourselves to allocating at least 10% of national budgetary resources for their Implementation within five years;

2.7 Malabo Declaration 2014
This is a recommitment by the African Heads of State and government to Africa’s accelerated agricultural growth and transformation goals 2025 (AGTGs 2025) and the principles and values of CAADP for agriculture, to drive national economies. These are:

- Recommitment to the Principles and Values of the CAADP Process
- Commitment to Enhancing Investment Finance in Agriculture
- Commitment to Ending Hunger in Africa by 2025
- Commitment to Halving Poverty, by the year 2025, through Inclusive Agricultural Growth and Transformation
- Commitment to Boosting Intra-African Trade in Agricultural commodities and services
- Commitment to Enhancing Resilience of Livelihoods and Production Systems to Climate Variability and other related risks
- Commitment to Mutual Accountability to Actions and Results
- Strengthening the African Union Commission to support delivery on these commitments

The Malabo Declaration is operationalized at the regional and national levels through the Implementation Strategy and Roadmap to achieve the 2025 Vision on CAADP which specifies Strategic Areas to enable agricultural growth and transformation and those that Strengthen systemic capacity to enable transformation and growth.
3.0 Regional and National Agricultural /Livestock Policies

3.1 COMESA

3.1.1 Establishment of COMESA
The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) comprises nineteen member states namely; Burundi, Comoros, DR-Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Kenya, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sudan, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe with a total population of 490 million people. The COMESA region is coordinated by a Secretariat which facilitates development and implementation of policies and programmes by member states. The Secretariat is guided by the COMESA Treaty - an instrument developed by member states and endorsed by their heads of states and governments otherwise called the COMESA Authority.

3.1.2 Key Articles of COMESA Treaty relating to Livestock
The COMESA Treaty covers various aspects of agriculture and rural development including livestock, right from Article 4 which indicates that Member States shall co-operate in the agricultural development; (b) adopt a common agricultural policy; (c) enhance regional food sufficiency; (d) co-operate in the export of agricultural commodities; (e) co-ordinate their policies regarding the establishment of agro-industries; (f) co-operate in agricultural research and extension; and (g) enhance rural development. These areas of co-operation are further outlined in detail in Articles 129 through 137 and range from harmonization of agricultural policies to strengthening the participation of farmer organizations in agricultural development.

3.1.3 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in COMESA
Agriculture, the backbone of most economies of COMESA member States, plays a key role in their industrial and trade development, accounting for more than 32 percent of the GDP and employing 80 percent of the labour force. The sector also accounts for 65 percent of foreign exchange earnings and contributes more than 50 percent of raw materials in the industrial sector. Crop agriculture is predominantly rain-fed with irrigated agriculture accounting for less than 2 percent of total production in most COMESA countries. Most countries in the region are highly vulnerable to droughts that have been exacerbated in recent years by climate change. In most COMESA countries, forests and trees play an important role in people’s livelihoods and economic activities in that they provide timber for housing, fuel for cooking and lighting, and in some cases, food.

Livestock plays a key role in food security in arid and semi arid lands (ASAL) which form 40 percent of Africa’s land surface. Within COMESA countries ASALs make up between 3 and 45 percent of the land area. Livestock is a key agricultural sub-sector with tremendous potential for enhancing people’s livelihood and economic development. Pastoral livestock production system (cattle, goat and sheep, camels and donkeys) contributes about 17 to 58 percent to the agricultural GDP of the countries in the Greater Horn of Africa (Uganda – 17 percent; Ethiopia – 40 percent; Kenya – 50 percent and Sudan – 58 percent). In some of the countries fisheries are also important sources of food and exports. This is true of riparian countries such as Egypt, Libya, Uganda and Kenya.

3.1.4 COMESA Regional Level Livestock Related Policies and Legislations
3.1.4.1 The COMESA Agricultural Strategic Framework
The COMESA Secretariat developed the Agricultural Strategic Framework (2010 to 2014) which is consistent with the overall strategy and aspirations of the COMESA Region, which seeks to achieve food security, assume a common agricultural policy and increase agricultural productivity of crops, livestock, fisheries
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

and forestry (COMESA Treaty, 2004). Within COMESA, the agriculture sector accounts for more than 32 percent of GDP, supplies 65 percent of raw materials for industry, and employs 80 percent of the region’s population. This sector’s contribution to GDP ranges from 6 percent in Mauritius to 49 percent in Burundi. Agriculture, therefore, plays a pivotal role in the attainment of increased incomes and improved standards of living of the majority of the people. COMESA region relies heavily on agriculture for employment and economic growth and is well endowed with livestock resources.

The COMESA Agriculture strategic framework was meant to be a guiding tool for COMESA Secretariat and its development partners to support efforts to achieve the objectives established by stakeholders in agricultural activities in the region. It was developed to help COMESA Secretariat position itself to respond to the region’s demands for achieving COMESA’s vision. The major vehicle of operationalizing the strategic framework was the alignment to the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) and its pillars. Thus the strategic framework was closely tied to CAADP processes in member states and the development and implementation of CAADP compacts in respective member states.

COMESA is committed to harmonizing and enhancing efforts of development partners, agribusiness and other stakeholders in agriculture to efficiently and effectively create impact on the region’s agricultural systems. Support to smallholder producers is of paramount importance.

The strategic framework based on three strategic priority areas Expanding Agricultural Markets, Increasing Adoption of Technologies, Improving the Enabling Policy Environment and six strategic functions.

3.1.4.2 COMESA Regional CAADP Compact

A Regional CAADP Compact adds value to the national compacts of the Member States by supporting regional actions that cannot be undertaken by individual member states because of their regional nature; the interventions reflect a regional challenge rather than a national activity except in specific cases where the intervention is a flagship program to complement national actions. Like the regional compact, the regional investment plans may have multi-country or cross-border interactions. The COMESA Regional Compact specifically focuses on regional policy and related issues.

Implementation of CAADP is coordinated by the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) which include COMESA, ECOWAS, IGAD, EAC and SADC with AU and NPCA providing overall political and technical leadership, as well as mobilizing financial resources from global alliances of bilateral and other non-traditional donors.

The regional priorities identified by the COMESA Member States are based on, and in conformity with, the priorities identified in their agricultural development strategies and frameworks, in national CAADP Compacts and Investment Plans.

Three main priority areas were identified:

Priority Area 1: Agricultural production and productivity with a focus on staple food crops, livestock produce, fisheries and forest produce.

Priority Area 2: Removing barriers to agricultural trade and linking farmers to markets with a focus on corridors (corridor development).
Priority Area 3: Reducing social and economic vulnerability and enhancing resilience and food and nutrition security.

Six cross-cutting priority areas identified were: Priority Area 4a: Gender and age mainstreaming; Priority Area 4b: Human and institutional capacity development and strengthening; Priority Area 4c: Information and knowledge management; Priority Area 4d: Climate change; Priority Area 4e: Resource mobilization to complement national efforts; Priority Area 4f: Improved coordination.

Under Priority Area 1: Agricultural production and productivity with a focus on staple food crops, livestock produce, fisheries and forest produce; the following regional intervention areas were identified:

i. Strengthening the regional generation and dissemination of agricultural knowledge and technology for nutritious staple food crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry (with focus on regional public goods).

ii. Promote sustainable trans-boundary natural resources management (water, land, forestry, fisheries) and the adoption by smallholder farmers of sustainable land and water management practices including mechanization and irrigated agriculture.

iii. Promote plant and animal health including pest control in pre- and post-harvest management.

iv. Support Member States in the implementation of the African Union Land Policy Initiative.

v. Strengthen regional input availability, accessibility and use (while ACTESA is spearheading this process on seed and fertilizer, other stakeholders are involved in these and other inputs).

vi. Promote (“climate smart agriculture”), i.e. an agriculture that reduces negative impacts on the environment such as land degradation, floods and droughts by protecting forests, reducing emissions of greenhouse gases, sequestering carbon, and meeting developmental goals.

vii. Promote the integration of small scale farmers into regional commodity value chains through public private partnerships (spearheaded by ACTESA).

viii. Strengthen and harmonize regional financial systems for agricultural finance and micro-insurance; build the capacity of stakeholders to mobilize resources; and support linkages of stakeholders to initiatives such as ACTESA’s capacity building on Rural finance and weather indexed insurance initiative for COMESA region’s land locked countries.

ix. Promote empowerment of smallholder farmers in the COMESA region through organizing themselves, lobbying and advocacy activities.

Under Priority Area 2: Removing barriers to agricultural trade and linking farmers to markets; the following intervention areas were identified:

i. Improve state of infrastructure along agricultural trade corridors.

ii. Facilitate the development of an enabling regional environment for private sector participation through appropriate policy and legal framework and promote regional public-private-partnerships and regional value chain development by organizing SMEs, capacity building and institutional development.

iii. Promote improved market information systems and systems for aggregation of smallholders’ production at the borders and for their better integration in regional markets and commodity value chains e.g. spearheaded by ACTESA.

iv. Improve the policy and regulatory environment for trade and transport.

v. Strengthen the capacity of SPS laboratories in other countries in addition to the three that currently exist.

vi. Support lobby and advocacy interventions for existing protocols around trade especially non-tariff barriers.
Under Priority Area 3: Reducing social and economic vulnerability and enhancing resilience and food and nutrition security, the following intervention areas were identified:

i. Strengthening regional coordination and linkages to information and knowledge sharing with respect to interventions mitigating hazards such as droughts, floods, etc.

ii. Develop and implement regional risk management tools and systems covering policy, hazards and financial aspects.

iii. Promote policy debate on livestock, fisheries and forestry sub-sectors in the CAADP process at country and regional levels.

iv. Promote regional policies, programmes and projects aimed at diversification of livelihoods in marginal areas and conflict/post conflict areas.

v. Support regional harmonization of agricultural taxation affecting agricultural inputs and basic food commodities.

vi. Strengthen bio-security systems for food safety to control hazards of biological, chemical and physical origin in imported food, food produced domestically and food that is exported; promote and engender food safety and nutrition; and support fortification of processed foods.

vii. Support regional interventions to mitigate HIV/AIDS related vulnerability and marginalization; vulnerability of migrant and mobile people; and unemployment and marginalization of the youth.

viii. Promote regional social safety nets.

ix. Promote development of models of extension services that can help poor smallholder farmers to improve their livelihoods and reduce poverty.

The implementation of the COMESA Regional CAADP Compact is being done by the COMESA Secretariat through its operational departments and the Member States. The COMESA Regional CAADP Investment Plan will be prepared on the basis of the priorities in this Compact.

3.1.4.3 Regulations on the application of sanitary and phytosanitary measures

Regulations on the application of sanitary and phyto-sanitary measures were developed and accepted by the Member States in 2009. The main objectives were:

1. To set out principles and create mechanisms for cooperation in the implementation of SPS measures by Member States;

2. To ensure the protection of:
   a. human health and life from risks arising from additives in food and drink, contaminants in food and drink, toxins in food and drink, and plant or animal carried diseases;
   b. animal health and life from risks arising from additives in feed and water, toxins in feed and water, pests, diseases and disease causing organisms;
   c. plant health and life from risks arising from pests, diseases and disease causing organisms; and
   d. the socio-economic structures and institutions of a Member State from risks arising from the entry, establishment and spread of pests and diseases;

3. To ensure that the application of SPS measures do not unnecessarily hinder trade in food and agricultural products in the Common Market.

Majority of COMESA Member States are members of the WTO, and greater effort has been placed on aligning bio-security laws and regulations with the WTO Agreement on Sanitary and Phyto-sanitary measures. Moreover, it is within an institutional framework that is aligned with the standards and guidelines developed by OIE, IPPC and the CAC.
Challenges and specific issues to be addressed
Because of the varying capacities, the effectiveness of bio-security laws, regulations and enforcement mechanisms amongst MS varies, causing mistrust and creating unnecessary trade barriers.

In addition, bio-security laws and regulations, related infrastructure and capacities are scattered between various government agencies.

Thus, in many instances, because of fragmented efforts, infrastructure and capacities are not optimized to address bio-security risks that are significant for food security, cross border and international trade, in a coherent and transparent manner.

The major challenge therefore, has been developing sufficient capacity across the region increasing trust between member/partner states so that countries can trade without unnecessary obstruction to the smooth flow of food and agricultural products.

In addressing this critical area of need, COMESA, EAC and SADC have established legal frameworks and bio-security or SPS committees to address trans-boundary or regional bio-security risks as well as harmonizes bio-security regulatory frameworks. The 26 Tripartite Member/Partner States are currently negotiating a legal instrument that will enhance collaboration on trans-boundary bio-security issues to enhance intra-regional trade and market access.

3.1.4.4 COMESA Strategy for the Sustainable Development of Fisheries and Aquaculture
The COMESA region is home to some of Africa’s most important fisheries resources. These include, among others, marine resources in the Western Indian Ocean, Southeast Atlantic and Mediterranean, as well as the vast freshwater systems of the Nile, Congo and Zambezi Basins and the Great Lakes found within them. Taken together, COMESA Member States have access to a coastline of some 14,418 Km, a continental shelf of about 558,550 square kilometers, and a total Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) area of about 3.01 million square kilometers, as well as in inland waters of about 394,274 square kilometers. Based on these rich resources, fisheries is an important economic sector in the COMESA region. It serves as as a source of high quality nutrition, income and employment, and public revenue. Fish is also a significant commodity of trade both within the COMESA region and from Member States to international markets. Export trade generates substantial foreign exchange for Member States. In order to safeguard and further increase the sector’s contribution to food security and economic development in the region, COMESA is prioritizing the new Fisheries Development Programme to assist Member States in sustainably developing their fisheries and aquaculture resources.

Since 2005, COMESA has contributed significantly to developing Africa-wide fisheries strategies and frameworks. These include the AU-NEPAD Action Plan for the Development of African Fisheries and Aquaculture which is an integral part of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). The overall objectives of the Action Plan are (i) to increase and sustain the long-term productivity of African fisheries and aquaculture through sustainable use of aquatic resources and application of environmentally sound and efficient technologies, and (ii) to strengthen the food security and trade benefits for Africa’s socio-economic development through improved access of African fish products to domestic, regional and international markets. These objectives guide COMESA’s initiatives in the fisheries sector. However, they need to be further specified to articulate the specific priorities of the COMESA region. The COMESA Fisheries and Aquaculture Strategy is fulfilling this purpose and ensures alignment of
programs and projects in the sector with the long-term objectives of COMESA.

**Purpose and Objectives of the Strategy**

The overall goal of the COMESA Fisheries and Aquaculture Strategy is to increase and sustain the contributions of fisheries and aquaculture to the region’s socio-economic development and food security.

The purpose of the Strategy is to identify regional priorities for the sustainable development of fisheries and aquaculture and to outline COMESA’s approach for the development of regional programmes in support of these priorities.

This Strategy Document pursues the following specific objectives:

i. To give an overview of the potential for fisheries and aquaculture development in the COMESA region;
ii. To identify key constraints to realizing this potential;
iii. To outline the priority areas within the sub-sectors of marine fisheries, inland fisheries and aquaculture where targeted investment can overcome constraints and foster sustainable development;
iv. To identify the roles of the main stakeholders, including COMESA, for taking this development agenda forward;
v. To identify the priority actions by COMESA over the next three to five years to support implementation of this Strategy.

**3.1.4.5 COMESA Regional Livestock Policy framework (2015)**

**3.1.4.6 COMESA Industrialization Policy (2015)**

The COMESA Council of Ministers, at their meeting in Addis Ababa, Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, on 24th-30th March 2015, adopted the COMESA Secretariat Industrial Policy. The COMESA Industrial Policy is based on Pillars, delivered through a number of channels, which will be implanted through existing COMESA Institutions and driven through an Incentive Framework. One of the Pillars is Agro-Processing and Leather Value chain. The vision of COMESA with regards to industrialization is to have a region with globally competitive and sustainable industrial sectors capable of creating sufficient quality jobs and wealth. The mission is to establish a diversified industrial base for economic transformation, supported by an institutional regulatory environment that is favourable to industrial enterprises in the region.

The enabling set of policies needed for the successful implementation of the COMESA Industrial Policy include policies that:

- Build productive capacity;
- Promote advances in technology and innovation;
- Act as a catalyst for the construction of the necessary supporting trade and logistics and energy infrastructure;
- Promote the development of the services sectors that are needed to support the implementation of a regional industrial policy and especially the provision of improved access to finance at affordable terms and promotes re-investment; and
- Create a social safety net that improves labour productivity and at the same time ensures that labour is not exploited and there is a fair wages for fair work environment.

**3.1.4.6 COMESA Regional Strategy for the Leather Value Chain (2012-2016)**

COMESA has a Regional Strategy for the Leather Value Chain (2012-2016) that was developed with International Trade Centre (ITC). The broad goal of the leather sector Strategy is to transform the COMESA
leather value chain from the production and trading of raw materials towards the production and trading of value added products. This thrust would help boost intra trade, create employment and increase sector’s contribution to GDP and poverty alleviation. The Strategy proposes practical activities that should be implemented at national level in order to deliver tangible results that would directly impact on the welfare of the citizens of COMESA including those at the grass roots level.

The Strategy focuses on the entire value chain, starting from pre- and post-slaughter issues that impact on the production of quality hides and skins, the leather production process up to the manufacture of footwear and other leather goods. Based on the main performance issues at a regional level, the Strategy proposes specific activities to address quality and capacity constraints at every stage of the chain, which are complemented by efforts towards improving access to finance, creating an enabling policy and legal environment and ensuring institutional support.

The Strategy’s four main objectives are:

i. Improving access to affordable finance;
ii. Creating enabling policy and legal environment and strengthen institutional framework;
iii. Facilitating the improvement of overall quality; and
iv. Improving information and marketing systems.

3.1.5 Transposition Status of COMESA Regional Level Livestock Policies
The COMESA Agriculture strategic framework is the major vehicle through which regional level policies are transposed at the national level. It is further aided by the development of the COMESA regional CAADP Compact in concert with the national level CAADP Compacts.

3.1.6 Overview of COMESA MSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations
The policy landscape of COMESA MSs reveals that most do not have comprehensive stand alone livestock policy and that livestock policies are often embedded within the broad development Visions and the general agriculture sector development policies. Consequently, the livestock sub-sector has not been given requisite attention it deserves as one with the potential for wealth creation and improved health. Zambia is the one of the few COMESA member States reporting the development of a Draft Livestock Development Policy. The majority of the COMESA MSs operate using Livestock development strategies. While many of the Countries in the region have Animal health/Veterinary related legislations, none reported an operational policy or strategy.

3.1.7 Livestock Policy Directions in COMESA
3.1.7.1 Livestock Production for Poverty reduction/Wealth Creation
The ILRI identifies three main livelihood strategies by which livestock can be used to pull households out of poverty and create wealth (ILRI, 2003). Termed “pathways out of poverty,” the first pathway focuses on how livestock help to secure the household’s asset base by providing access to more reliable flows of the benefits such as food production, income generation, providing manure, draught power, serving as financial instruments, enhancing social status. This capacity may help buffer the household, allowing it to bear risks associated with developing other income-generating strategies. The second pathway represents the livestock development scenario in which specialization and intensification increase the productivity of livestock, in turn increasing household incomes and promoting accumulation of other assets. The final pathway involves improving access to market opportunities (e.g., opening new markets, getting better prices) that increase the profitability of livestock activities and create incentives to increase production
and sales.

3.1.7.2 Food and nutrition security
Livestock can produce a regular supply of nutrient-rich Animal Source Foods (ASF) that provides a critical supplement and diversity to staple plant-based diets. This is particularly true for milk and eggs, which can help mitigate the effects of often large seasonal fluctuations in grain availability and can provide micronutrients and essential amino-acids. Keeping livestock influences human nutritional and health status through numerous multiple-link causal chains. As indicated earlier keeping livestock increases the amount of ASF, which can increase ASF consumption, dietary intake, and nutritional status.

In addition, Livestock ownership helps the producers increase animal production, animal and livestock product sales, and household incomes. Income from the sale of livestock products can be used to purchase ASF or other foods, and allow more or better quality healthcare services, education or products to be purchased by the household. Livestock do provide traction and nutrient cycling services that increase food crop production that can contribute immensely to nutrition security, possibly increasing crop sales, household income, and household food crop consumption and ultimately food and nutrition security.

A large productivity gap separates livestock producers in Africa from their counterparts in the rest of the world. Closing that gap would support growth, reduce poverty, and enhance food and nutrition security. Africa’s smallholder farmers need access to improved genetic materials, appropriate technologies that improve the shelf life of livestock products such as processing facilities that boost productivity, trade in livestock products and feed processing facilities. In general, facilitate change from subsistence farming practices to market oriented. Moreover, flawed policies, including restrictions on regional trade, also need to be revised so as to completely get rid of tariff and non-tariff barriers.

3.1.7.3 Public sector role in the delivery of livestock services and policy implications
The ability of livestock sector to attain its full productive potential is often constrained by the availability and quality of livestock services. Livestock services play a vital role in sustaining the productivity and profitability of livestock enterprises as well as the viability of the livestock sector as a whole. The value of livestock services derives from the reduction of production losses, the protection of society from livestock diseases that are transmissible to people, and the improvement of livestock productivity and livestock product quality. These services can be grouped into three major functional categories: health, production and marketing services. The major players that shape the livestock services sector are: the veterinarians and veterinary para-professionals, animal scientists, extension workers, the stock owners and herders, consumers, government, inter-governmental and non-governmental donors, and private entrepreneurs providing specialized services to the sector.

The public sector or government determines the structure and state allocation of resources to livestock health and extension programs. In particular, the Ministry/Department of Agriculture and the specialized livestock bureaus are principally charged with setting the priorities, planning, and implementing livestock development programs. These programs may include the provision of curative, preventive, extension and production services and veterinary supplies to public animal health clinics and posts. In addition, they provide the institutional framework for monitoring and regulating the performance of the industry (e.g. quality control and food/hygiene inspection). Meanwhile, members of the Ministries of Finance/Budget, the Central Bank, and the executive and legislative bodies of government determine the financial support the programs will receive. In addition, the executive and legislative bodies of government formulate
the domestic policies that shape the economic and institutional environment subsequently creates the incentives or disincentives to private-sector activities.

Therefore, the public sector needs to create the conditions for encouraging the private sector to leverage some of the activities especially those which can be better handled by private sector and public private partnership. Moreover, to realize inclusive growth, Africa’s private sector, an emerging economic force, has to engage sufficiently with governments to create conditions for broad-based growth.

### 3.1.7.4 Public Private Partnerships in the delivery of livestock services: Policy implication

Public - Private Partnership (PPP) is, conceptually, collaboration between public and private sector organizations in public service delivery (Sohail, 2003). Public Private Partnerships bring public and private sectors together in long term partnership for mutual benefit.

According to Nkya, (2000); and Sohail, et al., (2003), partnerships are basically institutional arrangements which constitute rules defining the relationships that govern the partnerships, roles, responsibilities and accountability mechanisms (formal or implied). The overall aim of PPP is to meet public needs, which would not have been realized without joint efforts.

Through PPPs, inter-alia, the public sector will be able to maintain partial ownership and management of services, avoid accusations of “whole sale” transfer of service delivery to the private sector and at the same time be effective in its role of political accountability to its constituents. Whatever the case might be for the partnerships to be efficient and effective, the concerned body needs to recognize that there are some things which the private sector does best and others where the public sector has more to offer. The old argument, as to whether public ownership is always best or whether privatization is the only answer, is simply outdated. The concerned body needs to make sure that modern, high quality public services are delivered that the public want and increasingly expect if it draws on the best of both public and private sectors especially in the areas where short term profit is not visible. The starting point is, therefore, recognition of the contribution that the public and private sectors can each bring to the partnership. The fundamental role for the concerned body thus may be through some combination of public and private sectors; the concerned body retains the responsibility and accountability for:

i. Deciding between competing objectives;

ii. Defining the chosen objectives, and then seeing that they are delivered to the standards required; and

iii. Ensuring that wider public interests are safeguarded.

In the case of PPPs introduced into public services, this means that, while responsibility for many elements of service delivery may transfer to the private sector, the public sector needs to remain responsible for:

i. Deciding, as the collective purchaser of public services, on the level of services that are required, and the public sector resources which are available to pay for them;

ii. Setting and monitoring safety, quality and performance standards for those services; and

iii. Enforcing those standards, taking action if they are not delivered.

Similarly, in the case of state-owned services, while PPPs bring the private sector into the ownership and management of the services, the Government remains responsible for safeguarding public interest issues. This includes, in particular, putting in place independent regulatory bodies, remaining in the public sector, whose role is to ensure that high safety standards are maintained, and that any monopoly power is not abused.
In most of the COMESA Member States, the public sector was the main actor in livestock service delivery. Nevertheless, following the winds of change in the form of many and far reaching social, political and economic reforms, the role of the public sector in the development process have been changing especially in other economic sectors though not as it is expected in the livestock sector. The role of the private sector in bringing about sustainable development in most economies is well known and acknowledged. Given the changing roles of the public and private sectors in the bid to bring about sustainable development, it is no longer sustainable for the public sector to continue to own, manage and operate the commanding heights of the economy. Efficient and effective production and distribution of goods and services should increasingly be left to the private sector.

Private sector services are proven to be more efficient and effective. The private sector is generally more dynamic, resilient, creative, innovative and vibrant than the public one. However, this sector is purely profit-oriented as it embraces the concept of free interplay of the market forces of supply and demand in the production and distribution of goods and services. There is therefore likely to be market failures or total nonexistence in the production and/or distribution of some goods and services especially in the less accessible areas. In Ethiopia, the largest share of livestock production is mainly in rural crop-livestock mixed and pastoralist areas, which makes it less accessible to private sector services. The private sector services therefore will not be easily available. Thus the use of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) in production and distribution of some goods and services is a matter of necessity rather than choice. There is a need therefore to forge and promote strong, efficient, effective, sustainable, dynamic and vibrant PPPs so that the private sector can produce and deliver some goods and services produced and delivered by the public sector. For instance the present effort in capacitating Community Animal Health Workers and private drug vendors in pastoralist areas of the country is encouraging and would be more efficient and effective if supported by sustainable PPPs. The use of PPPs in the provision of sustainable services is crucial to realize sustainable development. It is expected that better services could be delivered in both the quantity and quality as a result of application of the concept of PPPs.

3.1.7.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation: policy implications

The demand for animal food products is rising sharply in many developing countries, resulting in a pronounced reorientation of agricultural production in general. The reason for this is a growing urban middle class which is increasingly supplementing its diet with animal products. The growing demand for animal products represents a chance for livestock producers to enhance their production and earn more income. This trend is evident in COMESA and other AU Member States. Livestock and Livestock product marketing are being markedly expanded in many MS in order to meet this great demand. Increased livestock production in Africa results in additional income and employment, and thus wealth creation.

Demand for animal products in rapidly growing urban regions cannot be met by smallholder producers and extensive production alone. Larger operations with intensive production are also required, which have the necessary infrastructure for production, processing and transport at their disposal. Some of the COMESA MS especially in Eastern and Southern Africa have been promoting processing and value addition through small, medium and large scale manufacturing. Especially, poultry and pork are produced in industrialized and geographically concentrated farms. On the other hand, milk and meat production predominates in decentralized structure of family operations in all AU MS. The smallholder livestock producers have been a victim of shortage of services such as veterinary and extension. Moreover, the global market for livestock and livestock products is usually not accessible to smallholders in Africa. The export of animals and animal products is greatly limited by sanitary restrictions, tariffs, and non-tariff related constraints on trade. Thus,
there is an immense need to strengthen the veterinary and extension services. Encouraging investment by public and private sector in the areas of veterinary and extension services is a matter of necessity not a choice.

The international supermarket chains have expanded greatly in COMESA region. Their target clientele is the urban middle classes that are increasingly demanding choice, quality, and finished products. Supermarkets depend on regular, large-scale deliveries of goods of consistent quality. Small-scale producers face a challenge in meeting these criteria; therefore there is a need to allocate enough resources and human power to establish cooperatives and meet the required standards.

Moreover, to encourage smallholders to have opportunities to produce for the market, infrastructure in rural areas will have to be improved; reliable transport connections, means of communication, and financial services are necessary. Good agricultural extension services and veterinary services are needed to increase livestock productivity. Small-scale producers need to participate in the market more easily – for example, through improved credit conditions, particularly for women. Support for sustainable large-scale operations is also very important as they create employment opportunities.

**3.1.7.6 Equity in livestock production: policy implication**

Ownership of livestock does not mean the same thing everywhere in Africa, i.e. individual possession of animals. Traditional ownership conditions can, for instance, mean that an animal is owned and used simultaneously by several people or families; that an animal can only be used for certain purposes such as milk production but not sold; or that all animals with certain characteristics belong to the chief. Though women by and large manage and take care of livestock production, when it comes to administration of income and overall resources, men are the ones in control.

Farmers do not have the same basic livestock-keeping rights everywhere. Equality of access to grazing land and water is a basic pre-requisite for keeping grazing animals such as sheep, goats, cattle, and camels. The control of grazing land and grazing rights, however, is frequently either not at all or no longer in the hands of livestock keepers, families or villages, but in the custody of well-off farmers, urban residents, or the government.

The rights of the livestock producers on the basic livestock production inputs such as grazing land, water and natural vegetation has to be maintained. In general, to exercise the basic rights and realize equity in livestock production especially in pastoral and agro-pastoral system, there is a need to reorient the traditional subsistence livestock production into market oriented profitable production without much disturbance to traditional customary systems.

National governments can significantly improve the options available to smallholders through different normative measures. They can enact laws that guarantee equitable and transparent regulation of land ownership and ownership of animals. They should commit themselves to sustainable land use policies and enforcement of effective animal health and environmental measures.

**3.1.7.7 Climate change and Resilience**

Climate change may have substantial effects on the livestock sub-sector. Livestock production systems will be affected in various ways including feeds quality and quantity, heat stress, water availability, disease types and prevalence as well as biodiversity. Increasing climate variability will undoubtedly increase
livestock production risks as well as reduce the ability of farmers to manage these risks. At the same time, livestock food chains are major contributors to greenhouse gas emissions, accounting for perhaps 18 per cent of total anthropogenic emissions (Steinfeld et al. 2006).

Climate change will have severely deleterious impacts in many parts of the tropics and subtropics, even for small increases in the average temperature. This is in contrast to many parts of the temperate zone; at mid-to high latitudes, agricultural productivity is likely to increase slightly for local mean temperature increases of 1–3°C (IPCC 2007). There is a burgeoning literature on adaptation options, including new ways of using weather information to assist rural communities in managing the risks associated with rainfall variability and the design and piloting of livestock insurance schemes that are weather-indexed (Mude 2009). Many factors determine whether specific adaptation options are viable in particular locations. More extensive adaptation than is currently occurring is needed to reduce vulnerability to future climate change, and adaptation has barriers, limits and costs (IPCC 2007).

Most domesticated livestock species have comfort zones between 10 and 30 °C; at temperatures below this, maintenance requirements for food may increase by up to 50%, and at temperatures above this, animals reduce their feed intake 3–5% per additional degree of temperature (NRC, 1981). In many livestock systems, changes in temperature and rainfall and rainfall variability affect feed quantity most directly. Droughts and extreme rainfall variability can trigger periods of severe feed scarcity, especially in dryland areas, which can have devastating effects on livestock populations. In the recent past, the pastoral lands of East Africa have experienced droughts about one year in five, and even under these conditions it is generally possible to maintain relatively constant cattle herd sizes, but increases in drought frequency from one year in five to one year in three would set herd sizes on a rapid and unrecoverable decline (Thornton & Herrero, 2009). In Kenya, some 1.8 million extra cattle could be lost by 2030 because of increased drought frequency, the value of the lost animals and production foregone amounting to US $630 million (Ericksen et al., 2012).

Mixed crop–livestock systems are prevalent in much of the developing world (Herrero et al., 2010), and climate change and changing climate variability in the future may affect the relationship between crops and livestock in the landscape in many places. In places that will become increasingly marginal for crop production, livestock may provide an alternative to cropping. Such transitions could occur in up to 3% of the total area of Africa, largely as a result of increases in the probability of season failure in the drier mixed crop–livestock systems of the continent; these are projected to increase from the current rate of approximately one year in five to one year in four or three, depending on the combination of emissions scenario and climate model used (Jones & Thornton, 2009).

Changes in climate variability and in the frequency of extreme events may have substantial impacts on the prevalence and distribution of pests, weeds, and diseases. For example, in the past, combinations of drought followed by high rainfall have led to wide-spread outbreaks of diseases such as Rift Valley fever and bluetongue in East Africa and of African horse sickness in South Africa (Baylis and Githeko, 2006). Future increases in the frequency of extreme weather events could allow the expansion of Rift Valley fever northwards into Europe, for example (Martin et al., 2008). In general, the effects of future changes in climate variability on pests, weeds and diseases are not well understood (Gornall et al., 2010).

Globally, the negative effects of climate change on freshwater systems, in terms of changes in quantity and distribution, are expected to outweigh the benefits of overall increases in global precipitation due to
a warming planet; several parts of the tropics and subtropics, including parts of Central-West Asia, North Africa, Asia and North America, are likely to be particularly affected by reduced freshwater availability (Rosegrant et al., 2009). It is expected that more than half the world’s population will live in countries with severe water constraints by 2050 (Rockström et al., 2009).

3.1.8 Divergences and Gaps in Livestock policies
The following were some of the identified divergences and gaps in the COMESA Member States livestock policies, strategies and legislations:

i. Weak interlink and consistency between the different sectors and across sectors policies including with long term development agendas

ii. Policies were not aggressively ‘creating conditions to agricultural Extension, Credit, and Market facilitation, moreover, policies ‘sustaining growth’, including trade policies; agricultural research; environmental sustainability were not well considered.

iii. Limited or no schemes in the strategy that support farmers in livestock production to access good quality breeding animals, veterinary products, quality feed and fodder products.

iv. There was also lack of detailed carefully costed animal health and production policy implementation strategy and limited consideration of budgetary allocation to have robust livestock services. Technical capacity building and infrastructure (office and laboratory facilities) were not well considered in the overall implementation strategy.

v. Setting of strong bio-sanitary measures with clear mandate and responsibilities, certification of veterinary laboratory, emergency response, management and certification of animal source food processing facilities were not well considered in the strategies and policies.

vi. Weak implementation of policies mainly due to limited professional manpower (Animal science and veterinarian) and facilities including fully equipped laboratory and office facilities

vii. In some countries policies clearly define competent authority and legally binding Penalties but provides no regulations/implementation document to guide the professionals

viii. Consistency of the legislations: legislations need to be consistent with civil, penal and administrative laws and the associated procedures as appropriate.

3.1.9 Bridging the Gaps in livestock policies in the COMESA region
There is often a gap between policy design and implementation/internalization. The internalization can take place only if all participants are willing to learn and adapt. This inevitably means policy development will take longer but will hopefully lead to better learning and internalization by all stakeholders during the process. Continuous internalization through learning centered approaches can greatly facilitate bridging the gap between policy design and implementation. The VET-GOV program has been facilitating this and is encouraged to do so.

Working with partners to design and facilitate policies requires an understanding and ability to operate well within these relationships and to have a robust understanding of the context in which the work is taking place. The VET-GOV and other AU-IBAR projects therefore need to have a strategy to invest in relationship building as much as have a strategy for knowledge generation and dissemination. This requires processes and mechanisms to invest continuously in the quality of interaction and communication and ensuring mutual accountability with MS.

Providing space and opportunities for constant and continued reflection and respecting RECs and MS autonomy are key to effective implementation of the VET-GOV program. It is therefore critical to constantly
examine ways of stimulating communication and nurturing creative spaces. Ensuring ‘ownership’ by governments and maintaining effective relationships with non-government partners are necessary elements of the process.

3.2 EAC

3.2.1 Establishment of EAC

The East African Community (EAC) is the regional intergovernmental organisation of the Republics of Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, the United Republic of Tanzania, and the Republic of Uganda, with its headquarters in Arusha, Tanzania. The Treaty for Establishment of the East African Community was signed on 30 November 1999 and entered into force on 7 July 2000 following its ratification by the original three Partner States – Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. The Republic of Rwanda and the Republic of Burundi acceded to the EAC Treaty on 18 June 2007 and became full Members of the Community with effect from 1 July 2007.

EAC has its headquarter in Arusha, Tanzania with a surface area of 1.83 Million sq. km (including water), a population of 143.5 million, GDP (Market prices) USD 110.3 billion and GDP per Capita of USD 769.

3.2.2 Key Articles of EAC Treaty relating to Livestock

The overall objectives of co-operation in the agricultural sector are: the achievement of food security and rational agricultural production within the Community. To this end, the Partner States undertake to adopt a scheme for the rationalization of agricultural production with a view to promoting complementarity and specialization in and the sustainability of national agricultural programmes in order to ensure: (a) a common agricultural policy; (b) food sufficiency within the Community; (c) an increase in the production of crops, livestock, fisheries and forest products for domestic consumption, exports within and outside the Community and as inputs to agro-based industries within the Community; and (d) post-harvest preservation and conservation and improved food processing. The Partner States undertake to co-operate in specific fields of agriculture, including: (a) the harmonisation of agricultural policies of the Partner States; (b) the development of food security within the Partner States and the Community as a whole, through the production and supply of foodstuffs; (c) agro-meteorology and climatology to promote the development of early climatological warning systems within the Community; (d) the development and application of agricultural training and research and extension services; (e) the adoption of internationally accepted quality standards for food processing; (f) the establishment of joint programmes for the control of animal and plant diseases and pests; (g) the marketing of food and the co-ordination of the export and import of agricultural commodities; (h) joint actions in combating drought and desertification; and (i) in such other fields of agriculture as the Council may determine.

The overall objectives of co-operation in the agricultural sector in the EAC are the achievement of food security and rational agricultural production within the Community. To this end, the Partner States undertake to adopt a scheme for the rationalization of agricultural production with a view to promoting complementarity and specialization in and the sustainability of national agricultural programmes in order to ensure: (a) a common agricultural policy; (b) food sufficiency within the Community; (c) an increase in the production of crops, livestock, fisheries and forest products for domestic consumption, exports within and outside the Community and as inputs to agro-based industries within the Community; and (d) post-harvest preservation and conservation and improved food processing. The Partner States further undertake to co-operate in specific fields of agriculture, including: (a) the harmonisation of agricultural policies of the Partner States; (b) the development of food security within the Partner States and the Community as a whole, through the production and supply of foodstuffs; (c) agro-meteorology and climatology to promote
the development of early climatological warning systems within the Community; (d) the development and application of agricultural training and research and extension services; (e) the adoption of internationally accepted quality standards for food processing; (f) the establishment of joint programmes for the control of animal and plant diseases and pests; (g) the marketing of food and the co-ordination of the export and import of agricultural commodities; (h) joint actions in combating drought and desertification; and (i) in such other fields of agriculture as the Council may determine.

3.2.2.1 Article 110 on Food Security
The Partner States shall: (a) establish a mechanism for exchange of information on demand and supply surpluses and deficits, trade, forecasting and state of food nutrition; (b) harmonise quality and standards of inputs and products including food additives; (c) develop modalities to have timely information on market prices; (d) harmonise food supply, nutrition and food security policies and strategies; (e) initiate and maintain strategic food reserves; and (f) develop marine and inland aquaculture and fish farming.

3.2.2.2 Article 114 Management of Natural Resources
In particular, the Partner States shall: (a) take necessary measures to conserve their natural resources; (b) co-operate in the management of their natural resources for the conservation of the eco-systems and the arrest of environmental degradation; and (c) adopt common regulations for the protection of shared aquatic and terrestrial resources. For purposes of paragraph 1 of this Article, the Partner States: (a) with regard to the conservation and management of forests, agree to take necessary measures through: (i) the adoption of common policies for, and the exchange of information on, the development, conservation and management of natural forests, commercial plantations and natural reserves; (ii) the joint promotion of common forestry practices within the Community; (iii) the joint utilization of forestry training and research facilities; (iv) the adoption of common regulations for the conservation and management of all catchment forests within the Community; (v) the establishment of uniform regulations for the utilization of forestry resources in order to reduce the depletion of natural forests and avoid desertification within the Community; and (vi) the establishment of Api-Agro Forestry Systems. (b) with regard to the management of their water and marine resources, agree to co-operate through: (i) the establishment and adoption of common regulations for the better management and development of marine parks, reserves, wetlands and controlled areas; (ii) the adoption of common policies and regulations for the conservation, management and development of fisheries resources; (iii) the establishment of common fisheries management and investment guidelines for inland and marine waters; (iv) the strengthening of regional natural resources management bodies; (v) the establishment of common rules of origin for flora and fauna; and (vi) the establishment of a body for the management of Lake Victoria; (c) with regard to the management of the mineral resources sector, agree: (i) to promote joint exploration, efficient exploitation and sustainable utilization of shared mineral resources; (ii) to pursue the creation of an enabling environment for investment in the mining sector; (iii) to promote the establishment of databases, information exchange networks and the sharing of experiences in the management and development of the mineral sector using electronic mail, internet and other means for the interactive dissemination of mineral information; (iv) to harmonize mining regulations to ensure environmentally friendly and sound mining practices; (v) to adopt common policies to ensure joint fossil exploration and exploitation along the coast and rift valley; and (vi) to establish a regional seismological network whose primary objective is to monitor seismicity and advice on mitigation measures.

3.2.3 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in EAC
The regional livestock resource base is currently estimated to consist of 57 million head of cattle, 62 million...
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

goats, 32 million sheep, 8 million pigs, 143 million poultry and 3.1 million camels. On average, the livestock sector contributes 9% (Burundi), 8% (Uganda), 9% (Kenya), 10% (Rwanda) and 8% (Tanzania) to the GDP of the region. This makes the EAC region one of the richest in terms of animal resources on the continent. Livestock plays an important role in the economies of EAC partner States and the livelihoods of the peoples of the region. The region has been recording an increase in livestock population since 2006. Like in other regions, there are a number of issues impacting the livestock sub-sector. These include but are not limited to: Increasing demand for livestock and livestock products due to increasing population and urbanization in the region; per capita and affluence/middleclass growth, Climate change; TADS and zoonoses; diminishing water and feed resources, poverty, gender and equity issues and markets for livestock products.

3.2.4 EAC Regional Level Livestock related Policies and Legislations

3.2.4.1 EAC Agriculture and Rural Development Policy
The East African Community Agriculture and Rural Development Policy (EAC–ARDP) was developed as an initial step towards the implementation of the provisions of the EAC Treaty. The Policy reflects the commitment of the Partner States to foster their economic co-operation for the benefit of their peoples. The EAC-ARD Policy guides in the development of strategies, programmes and projects for realization of the aforementioned objectives of the EAC.

3.2.4.2 EAC Agriculture and Rural Development Strategy
The strategy addresses interventions in the following broad categories:

- Production
- Trade and Commerce
- Services and infrastructure
- Natural Resources conservation
- Institutional arrangements

3.2.4.3 EAC Food security Action Plan
The priority areas for the EAC Food Security Action Plan are:

- Provision of Enabling Policy, Legal and Institutional Framework
- Increase Food Availability in Sufficient Quantity and Quality
- Improve Access to Food
- Improve Stability of food supply and access in the EAC Region
- Enhance the efficiency of food utilization, nutrition, and food safety
- Implementation Strategy and Monitoring
- Resource Mobilization and Time Frame
- As a cross cutting issue, all food security strategies and actions will have in-built gender with reference to EAC Gender and Community Development Framework and HIV/AIDS considerations Strategy

3.2.4.4 EAC Livestock Policy
The EAC livestock policy goal is anchored on four policy objective pillars, namely:

a. Securing access to basic production inputs and security to stimulate productive use of livestock assets,
b. Building resilience to risks and shocks to secure livestock assets,
c. Enhancing growth in livestock productivity and competitiveness for livelihood benefits, and
d. Sustaining growth in livestock productivity and competitiveness adaptable to dynamics in the livestock value chains.
3.2.4.5 EAC Regional CAADP
Cognizant of the importance of Agriculture, the EAC CAADP Compact is developed in line with the objectives of the EAC Treaty, which is operationalized through the EAC Agriculture and Rural Development Policy (EAC-ARDP), the EAC Agriculture and Rural Development Strategy (EAC-ARDS) and the EAC Food Security Action Plan (EAC-FSAP). All these development instruments have the objective of achieving food security and maintaining sustainably high growth rates to improve the welfare of the EAC citizens. The Regional Compact sets the parameters for long-term partnership in the agricultural sector; specifies key commitments of the African Union, EAC, Development Partners, and other stakeholders including the private sector, farmer organizations and cooperatives, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), Faith Based Organizations, academia and defines expectations in both the farming and agribusiness communities so as to guarantee successful implementation of the EAC Food Security Action/Investment Plan. The Compact is in line with sector policies and highlights, investment niches and commitments of stakeholders to align their long term development assistance to the agricultural sector programmes in the Compact.

3.2.4.6 EAC Strategy on TADS and Zoonoses
This Strategy identifies and ranks the priority TADs and Zoonoses in the region and proposes strategies for their prevention, control and eradication.

3.2.5 Transposition Status of EAC Regional Level Livestock Policies in Member States
3.2.5.1 Transposition of the EAC Livestock Policy on EAC Member States
The policy documents have inspired EAC Partner States’ (PSs) governments to develop and or review their agricultural policies. For example, Uganda for the first time developed an Agricultural policy in 2011. Rwanda, Burundi and Tanzania are reviewing their policies to be in line with the EAC agricultural policy documents. For example, Tanzania and Rwanda are now building silos to conserve food. A good example of EAC policy transposition is to be found in Rwanda, where it is requirement that every district have a food storage facility for grains and legumes. At the same time, one stop border posts are being implemented across the region to facilitate agricultural trade. Similarly, harmonization of SPS standards and agricultural commodity standards are ongoing to facilitate trade in the EAC and IGAD region.

Currently, Kenya and Tanzania livestock policies are in tandem with the EAC livestock policy because they formed part of the basis for the development of the EAC policy. However, Rwanda, Burundi and Uganda are in the process of developing their national livestock policies in line with the EAC livestock policy. For harmony, transboundary issues like TADs and zoonosis in cattle are being addressed to promote animal health and peace in the region.

Similarly, Trade in services for professionals is being addressed and implemented as well as issues of standards with regard to aflatoxin.

3.2.6 Overview of EAC PSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations
The livestock policy landscape in the EAC Partner States is currently influenced greatly by the initiatives at the regional level. The Member States have fully developed Country Visions from which the Agricultural Sector policies/Strategies and subsequently livestock sub-sector policies/strategies have been developed. The regional level policies have greatly shaped the revised agriculture and livestock policies/strategies through efforts for consistency and harmonization. For instance, the recently developed EAC Livestock Policy has caused steps to be taken in the region that will ensure harmonized corresponding national
policies. The animal health/veterinary areas in the region have received more attention in terms of legislation and less in terms of policies and strategies. There are currently few countries in the region with fully developed national policies/Strategies relating to animal health/veterinary services. This is a historical consequence where veterinary issues were considered matters of enforcement of legislations rather strategy.

3.2.7 Livestock Policy Directions in EAC

Many of the agriculture and livestock sector policies and legislation are influenced by or oriented towards specific development concerns in the region as discussed below.

3.2.7.1 Poverty reduction / Wealth creation

Most of the EAC Partner States have National Development Plans and poverty reduction/eradication strategies and action plans which have tried to address poverty and wealth creation issues. The EAC Agriculture and Rural Development Policy (EAC-ARDP) also recognizes the importance of eliminating hunger and ensuring sustainable food security within the region as a necessary first step to poverty eradication and consequently a stimulus for rational agricultural development and realization of the aspirations of the Treaty establishing the EAC. However, the ability of the Partner States to achieve individual and collective durable poverty reduction and wealth creation has been elusive. This has been further compounded by the negative impacts of Climate Change. Therefore EAC Partner States have revised and incorporated in their respective national CAADP Compacts these issues. Rwanda has implemented the first phase of her Compact and is already on Phase two of the national CAADP Compact, while the other EAC States are in the process of revising their compacts. These national compacts must bring on board the Malabo Declaration by HSGs of Africa 2014, which gives more recommitment to the CAADP process in driving the African development agenda and fight against poverty and empowering youth and women and in wealth creation. Livestock is a promising enterprise and entry point for fighting poverty and creating poverty and therefore it should be well mainstreamed into the national CAADPs using the AU-IBAR Livestock CAADP tool. Initial training to use this tool to mainstream livestock into national and regional CAADP compacts has been undertaken in all the EAC Partner states.

3.2.7.2 Food and nutrition security

Most of the EAC region is generally food secure and much as EAC partner States mainstream issues of Food and Nutrition security into their respective national Agricultural policies, strategies and plans, the EAC Food and Nutrition Action Plan is the over arching food and policy frame work for the region. The Action Plan provides for: Enabling Policy, Legal and Institutional Framework; Increase in Food Availability in Sufficient Quantity and Quality for crops, livestock and fisheries products to by increasing agricultural (crops, Livestock and Fisheries) productivity to make East Africa Region a net exporter of food; improved Access to Food by ensuring that food is effectively moved from areas of surplus to areas of deficit within the East Africa region; improved Stability of food supply and access in the EAC Region by exploiting other alternative sources of food supply from other areas of the region; enhancement of the efficiency of food utilization, nutrition, and food safety; implementation Strategy, M&E and Monitoring; resource Mobilization for the Agricultural sector and a Time Frame for all the planned activities. The action plan compels EA Partner States to mainstream all the cross cutting issues like HIV/AIDS and gender, climate change in their national development plans.
3.2.7.3 Public Sector Role
The mid 1980s were characterized by structural adjustment programmes imposed by the World Bank and other Development Partners and, which led to changes in policies and the way governments in EAC Partner States conducted business. This shift in policy direction was meant to improve the delivery of goods and services and involved: privatization, decentralization, divesture and delegation of functions and the delivery of goods and services, which hitherto, had been of public good. The public sector was no longer involved in the provision of goods and services, but limited to Planning, Policy development and provision of strategic services like defense and security. Thus, the provision of many agricultural services to farmers became privatized and/or decentralized. Furthermore, decentralization led to relocation of most central staff to Local Governments out of the control of the Central Government. This negatively affected the veterinary chain of command and the provision of services like disease control, regulatory enforcement and other extension services for the livestock sector. This policy distortion has crippled the livestock sector and unless urgently addressed, the region is likely to deteriorate in its capability to enforce veterinary laws and control disease epidemics and pandemics.

3.2.7.4 Public Private Partnerships
The Structural Adjustment programmes imposed by the World Bank in the Mid 1980s were not very successful in the Agricultural sector. While the public sector has been fairly successful in their execution of their role in Planning, Policy development and provision of strategic services like defense and security, the private sector has not done well in the provision of goods and services, prompting government to step in from time to time. This is because the private sector in EAC is still growing and should not be left to handle services like: provision of veterinary clinical services, AI services, animal breeding services and other specialized animal health related services on their own. There is therefore a need to develop a strong public-private partnership for the livestock sector and for governments in the region to continue to nurture the private sector so that it can grow to a suitable level from which it can efficiently deliver requisite services. This however requires governments to provide and enabling environment in terms of policy, legislation and institutional set up. Secondly, there is a need for policy review to address erroneous policy decisions and inculcate consistency to global and emerging trends affecting the sector.

3.2.7.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation
In 2013, the EAC livestock sub-sector recorded an increase in all livestock production segments. Livestock has proved to be an economically viable enterprise and a reliable entry point to poverty alleviation in the region, with poultry, piggery and dairy farming scoring high on the list of pro-poor enterprises. Though export to external markets is still limited due to sanitary constraints, the internal and inter-state informal trade in livestock and livestock products is growing in the region. The growing middle class population, urbanization and demand for livestock products has created a promising internal market for livestock and livestock products and therefore a healthy investment climate for the sector. In order to promote livestock production and productivity in the EAC Partner States to match the requirements of the rapidly increasing human population and create surplus for export, the EAC is:
   a. Promoting appropriate policies that are enhancing livestock trade and marketing;
   b. Encouraging the development of a commercially oriented, efficient and internationally competitive livestock industry;
   c. Adopting effective transboundary animal disease control measures;
   d. Supporting the emergence of a more diverse structure of production with a large increase in the numbers of successful smallholder livestock producer enterprises;
   e. Adopting effective livestock extension and research strategies;
f. Conserving livestock resources and putting in place policies and institutions for sustainable resource development and use; and

g. Promoting investment in the drylands of East Africa so as to encourage a market oriented livestock sector and diversification for improved welfare of East Africans.

3.2.7.6 Equity
Equity is a major objective of any government and therefore needs to be accorded prominence in adopted policies. The National development policy documents in the region often have provision for addressing equity issues. However, the implementation and ultimately outcomes of many policies and legislations are inconsistent with equity requirements. While the issues of gender, youth and other vulnerable groups are well articulated in agricultural development policies of Partner States, the impacts indicate otherwise. However, in order to promote gender, youth and other vulnerable groups’ inclusiveness, the policies should continue to promote affirmative action as well as advocate and lobby for vulnerable groups and regions at all levels of government.

3.2.7.7 Climate change and Resilience
A large part of the EAC region is Arid and semi-arid (ASAL) and the region is prone to droughts and flooding and their associated negative impacts. Therefore, climate change issues are well mainstreamed in the relevant livestock and livestock-related policies in the region. These issues continue to be high on the development agenda of the EAC regional and national development programmes, partly driven by the frequent droughts and flooding in the region which have caused losses in lives of citizens, their animals and destruction to agricultural farmland and products.

3.2.8 Divergences and Gaps
At Partner State level most policies in the livestock sector show some level of harmony. However, there are several gaps and divergences in between some EAC partner States policies, created partly by different colonial settings, development levels and earlier political systems. The gaps and divergences include but not limited to: transboundary issues, trade in livestock and livestock products and the attendant sanitary requirements, disease control strategies, delivery of livestock services including extension services, research, animal breeding, regulation of professionals and services, etc. There is therefore a deliberate effort by the EAC effort to harmonize the various national policies under regional frameworks in order to reduce gaps and divergences. This is being addressed as regards the Sanitary regulations, disease control strategies especially for TADS and Zoonoses, Livestock development policy and trade in human capital for the livestock professionals, and veterinary medicinal products and biological.

3.2.9 Bridging the Gaps
The identified gaps in livestock policies and strategies in the region are being addressed through the regional policies and strategies. However, this calls for concerted efforts in view of harmonization at the national level and consistency with the regional level initiatives. This can be achieved more rapidly through the establishment and funding of coordinating bodies at the national and regional levels. These efforts have already started with the establishment and operationalization of National Livestock Policy Hubs and should be followed by the establishment and operationalization of an EAC regional Livestock Policy Hub.
3.3 ECCAS/CEMAC

3.3.1 Establishment of ECCAS

At a summit meeting in December 1981, the leaders of the Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC) agreed in principle to form a wider economic community of Central African states. ECCAS was established on 18 October 1983 by the UDEAC members and the members of the Economic Community of the Great Lakes States (CEPGL) (Burundi, Rwanda and the then Zaïre) as well as Sao Tomé and Principe. Angola remained an observer until 1999, when it became a full member.

ECCAS began functioning in 1985, but was inactive for several years because of financial difficulties and the conflict in the Great Lakes area. The war in the DRC was particularly divisive, as Rwanda and Angola fought on opposing sides. ECCAS has been designated a pillar of the AEC, but formal contact between the two organizations was only established in October 1999 due to the inactivity of ECCAS since 1992. The AEC again confirmed the importance of ECCAS as the major economic community in Central Africa at the third preparatory meeting of its Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in June 1999.

The 10th Ordinary Session of Heads of State and Government took place in Malabo in June 2002. This Summit decided to adopt a protocol on the establishment of a Network of Parliamentarians of Central Africa (REPAC) and to adopt the standing orders of the Council for Peace and Security in Central Africa (COPAX), including the Defense and Security Commission (CDC), Multinational Force of Central Africa (FOMAC) and the Early Warning Mechanism of Central Africa (MARAC). Rwanda was also officially welcomed upon its return as a full member of ECCAS.

On January 24, 2003, the European Union (EU) concluded a financial agreement with ECCAS and CEMAC, conditional on ECCAS and CEMAC merging into one organization, with ECCAS taking responsibility for the peace and security of the sub-region through its security pact COPAX.

The 11th Ordinary Session of Heads of State and Government in Brazzaville during January 2004 welcomed the fact that the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of a Council for Peace and Security in Central Africa (COPAX) had received the required number of ratifications to enter into force. The Summit also adopted a declaration on the implementation of NEPAD in Central Africa as well as a declaration on gender equality.

The economic indicators of ECCAS member countries show that the agricultural sector is far below the expected figures that the United Nations had hoped for in 2015 as part of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Two major realities characterize the ECCAS region: (i) the Congo Basin, which is home to the world’s second largest tropical forest and water reserve, and (ii) a huge but largely untapped mining, mineral and agricultural potential. Moreover, the region stands out on the continent as one with the least infrastructure network, particularly transport and energy, which impacts negatively on production capacities and regional trade as well as on social conditions and welfare (high poverty rates, health scourges and ultimately low rate of achievement of MDGs). Besides, this region is made up of fragile states, landlocked countries, forested countries and sparsely distributed population. This is Africa’s least integrated region but which abounds with considerable potential.

The region abounds with huge highly valued oil, mineral and mining resources. Recently, proven oil reserves in the region are estimated at 31.3 billion barrels, representing 28% of the continent’s total reserves.
Central Africa has a huge agriculture, forestry and hydroelectric power potential. Climatic conditions and the availability of quality arable land favors agricultural development. Finally, the region has the continent’s largest hydroelectric potential. Actually, the immense water network density accounts for 60% of Africa’s hydropower potential.

3.3.2 Key Articles of ECCAS
The ECCAS treaty was signed on 18th of December 1984 and aims to create a common market in Central African Region. The Treaty launching ECCAS states that the objectives of the organization are to:
- Eliminate, within the member states, customs duties and any other import/export taxes on goods;
- Abolish, within the member states, limitations and all other hindrance to free trade;
- Set-up and uphold community customs rates;
- Establish a commercial policy with non-community states;
- Promote within the member states free movement of people, goods, services, capital and establishment rights;
- Harmonize national policies to promote common activities, especially with regard to industry, transport, communications, energy, agriculture and natural resources, trade, money and finances, tourism, education and culture, sciences and technology;
- Create a co-operation and development fund;

Develop rapidly the landlocked, particularly enclaves and/or less developed member states;

To meet the integration challenges and draw on their enormous potential, ECCAS member countries in 2007 adopted a strategic integration plan dubbed the Vision (2025), which principally seeks to transform the region into a haven of peace, solidarity, balanced development and free movement of persons, goods and services. This strategy is consistent with CEMAC’s Regional Economic Programme (REP) (2009-2015) whose objective is to build a competitive regional environment to attract substantial private investment to growth sectors.

3.3.3 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in ECCAS
The economic importance of the livestock sector varies from one country to another. The exiting livestock population is far below the capacity of the Region. Angola, Chad, Cameroun and Central Africa Republic are the largest livestock producers in the Community. According to the local estimates contribution of the livestock sector to the GDP ranges from less than negligible in Equatorial Guinea to 15% in the Central African Republic. Most of the animal diseases are often reported in the countries with the highest livestock population. Agriculture and livestock are important sources of household wealth and income. The region as a whole has a higher potential for livestock development, especially small ruminants and other short cycle animals such as pigs.

3.3.4 ECCAS/CEMAC Level Agriculture and Livestock Policies
3.3.4.1 The Common Agricultural Policy Document (PAC) and the Regional Program for Food Security (RPFS) for the ECCAS Region
ECCAS/CEMAC’s Common Agricultural Policy is part of a broader process of a common economic policy that is to “promote the establishment of a Community market of Member States, with the coordination of sectoral policies and harmonization of regulations to achieve gradual economic integration of the region’s economies”. Similarly, this strategy takes into account the NEPAD Program that reflects the continent’s main requirements (Comprehensive African Agriculture Development - CAADP) and multilateral
obligations (WTO and EPA). The Common Agricultural Policy focuses on strengthening the agricultural sector’s competitiveness and productivity, comprising increased sustainable food production. Generally, this strategy gives priority to infrastructure components to facilitate trade and movement of products, people and information as well as structural ones such as access to training, new technology, support services (extension and advisory, input supply, credit-savings, veterinary services, quality control, etc.). Specifically, the ECCAS/CEMAC common agricultural policy responds to the following challenges:

- Strengthen and harmonize macroeconomic frameworks to promote policies that support the agricultural and rural sector. Indeed, structural reforms that were put in place to deal with the late 1980s crisis (liberalization of economic activities, stabilization of public finances, devaluing the XAF, state withdrawal from productive sectors, privatization of public and para-public enterprises that supported rural development, etc.) impacted heavily on measures and policies, by reducing their scale. This call for diversifying economic activities, developing financing tools and mechanisms suitable for agriculture, improving access to technology and strengthening the capacity of poor producers and their organizations in rural settings. According to FAO, in 2010 agricultural production needed to increase by 75 percent to meet global needs and reduce chronic under-nutrition. Regarding the CEMAC zone, the rate needed to increase by 290 percent. Therefore, this entailed developing agricultural research, promoting the transfer and adoption of appropriate technologies and knowledge sharing between researchers, promoting the development of technologies for water management that will allow steady production while respecting the environment. CEMAC countries will therefore need to organize themselves to speak with one voice in negotiations and be able to get support measures and compensation benefits for the region.

- Adopt and implement proactive national policies through increased national budgets allocated to the agricultural sector, in accordance with the Maputo Agreement of 2003 and the CAADP. Cuts in public funding for agriculture over the past two decades have resulted in a significant decrease in agricultural performance in the CEMAC zone. However, it should be noted that the agricultural sector presents the best prospects for Africa to initiate capital accumulation, productivity gain, growth and multiplier effect throughout the economy. In Central Africa, the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) is in charge of the implementation of the CAADP. Taking an example from CAADP orientations, the ECCAS elaborated its Common Agricultural Policy (CAP-ECCAS) and the Regional Program for Food Security in Central Africa (RPFS-CA) that are reference frameworks for national agricultural policies. The ambition of the CAP is to assure food security of a population bound to double around 2030 by leaning in priority on the potential of production and exchanges of the region, the coordination and increased harmonization of the implementation of the CAADP.

### 3.3.4.2 ECCAS/CEMAC Level Livestock Policy

There is no livestock stand-alone policy document either in the CEMAC Region or in the ECCAS Region as a whole.

ECCAS has not yet developed a regional animal health strategy. However, a study followed by a validation workshop, which was held in Libreville, Gabon in 2010, helped to produce a report, which recommends the creation of an Integrated Regional Coordination Mechanism to handle trans-boundary animal diseases including zoonosis.

According to the report, ECCAS is to lead the development and implementation of the regional coordination mechanism specifically targeting the prevention and control of TADs and other zoonoses. Such mechanisms can greatly enhance the capacities of Member States to counter disease threats and promote inter-regional
and international trade in livestock commodities, thus contributing to regional integration. This fits well with the overarching development frame for the African continent shaped by the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) and the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program (CAADP).

An Integrated Regional Coordination Mechanism (IRCM) for the prevention and control of TADs and Zoonoses in line with the political and development agenda of the AU, is proposed. The mechanism aims to strength the capacity of the REC to coordinate and harmonize disease prevention and control actions implemented by Member States through capacity building, promotion of inter-sectoral coordination and institutionalization of coordination procedures and practices. The Mechanism will focus initially on a limited number of TADs and zoonoses prioritized by the RECs. The medium term objective is to expand the IRCM’s scope to address other relevant TADs and zoonoses, and as such the Mechanism will be instrumental in promoting the “One Health” concept at national, regional and continental levels. The IRCM model could be expanded in the future to address other animal resources and NRM issues.

3.3.5 Overview of ECCAS MSs National Level Agriculture, Livestock Policies and Legislations

The livestock policy landscape in the ECCAS/CEMAC Member States is characterized by the absence of specific overarching national livestock development policies. At the same time there are no national animal health/veterinary policies/strategies. However, there are a plethora of animal health/veterinary related legislations that may require consolidation.

At the moment, a process of harmonization of veterinary legislation is underway in the ECCAS Region within the VET–GOV Program activities. FAO has conducted a TCP for the benefit of the CEMAC countries. The proceedings of the TCP will be used to expand this experience to the whole (CEMAC) ECCAS Region.

3.3.6 Agriculture and Livestock Policy Directions

3.3.6.1 Poverty Reduction / Wealth creation

Agriculture encompassing livestock, fisheries and forestry remains the economic base for the majority of the poor in Africa and as it constitutes a key economic sector in most African countries, its importance in poverty reduction and sustainable development cannot be overstressed. Most agricultural production comes from small-scale farms and low-income farmers account for most of the staple food production on the continent. There are important linkages with the rest of the economy, implying a potentially high multiplier effect for agricultural growth. At the same time, most of Africa’s poor live in rural areas, where they depend, directly or indirectly, on agriculture for their livelihood. Unfortunately, despite the Millennium Development Goals that the international community has pledged to achieve by the year 2015, poverty remains ubiquitous in many parts of African countries. For most poor people, livestock is an important source of their livelihood.

Small stock in, particular require minimal investment on the part of poor livestock keepers. They can be kept in the vicinity of the house or on common land, and fed with “residue” from agricultural production. Different nomadic societies, on the other hand, devote themselves exclusively to livestock production, which is an integral part of their culture and traditions.

The livestock sector is in fact one of the fastest-growing segments of the agricultural economy, particularly in the developing world. As demand for meat and dairy products in the developing world continues to increase, questions arise as to how this demand will be met and by whom. Parts of the sector, particularly poultry and pig production, have followed a trend similar to that in developed countries, where large-scale
production units dominate output. The expansion of such trends across the whole livestock sector will have major implications for poverty reduction and food security. To date, the transformation of the livestock sector has occurred largely in the absence of sector-specific policies; this gap needs to be addressed to ensure that the livestock sector contributes to equitable and sustainable development.

3.3.6.2 Food and nutrition security
In general, food and nutrition security was rarely addressed in the agricultural policy documents of ECCAS member countries and above all in the region as a whole. Fortunately, at the occasion of a workshop held in Dar Salaam, Tanzania, from February 25 to March 1st 2013, participants of the East and Central Africa, discussed on the ways and means to mainstream food and nutrition into their national and regional agriculture investment plans. They deliberated and summarized the specific nutrition context, highlighting overall country situation, key nutrition-related policies and programmes in related sectors and major food and nutrition security challenges. The Country Teams agreed on sets of actions to be incorporated into their country roadmaps to be used as a reference for follow up at both country and regional levels. Against this backdrop, extensive deliberations, situation analysis and reflections resulted in a number of key messages and recommendations by participants during concluding sessions of the workshop. Commonly expressed messages were:

- the need to continue work on identifying entry points for integrating nutrition into the agriculture-wide and food security plans at both regional and national levels;
- allocation of resources for nutrition-sensitive outcomes of these plans by both government economic planning institutions and development partners;
- in-country identification of nutrition-related capacity gaps and to ensure nutrition capacities are decisively addressed in the short-term;
- establishment or strengthening of in-country multi-sector coordination mechanisms and building partnerships focussing on nutrition-agriculture sector linkages;
- adequate and intensive support by the African Union Commission, NEPAD and their regional and international partners to the nutrition-agriculture integration processes; and
- establishment of monitoring and follow-up mechanisms and capacities to ensure that the agriculture sector contributes effectively and efficiently toward improving nutrition levels of the population, particularly the vulnerable groups through better targeting across the continent.

Most prominent among the challenges are:

i. weak or absolutely non-existent nutrition capacities in the agricultural, animal resources and fisheries institutions and organs, which mainly focus on production and productivity outcomes rather than food utilization outcomes (i.e., reduced levels of stunting, wasting, low birth weight and overweight in urban areas);
ii. limited nutrition-sensitive strategies and actions in agricultural development and investment policies and plans;
iii. very limited multi-sectoral approach in programming and delivery of nutrition services and;
iv. limited coordination mechanisms and partnerships in the efforts for reducing hunger and under-nutrition, thus resulting in missed opportunities and general under-performance.

In their conclusion, representatives of policymaking organizations outlined their respective commitments and plans to the cause of implementing nutrition-sensitive agriculture and food security programmes. Also underscored are opportunities to further pursue the nutrition-sensitive agriculture agenda through forthcoming continental events and platforms, where decisions of AU Heads of State and Government
can be garnered for implementation of policies. Furthermore, it was learned that the new Commission of the African Union has placed agriculture and food security as second of seven priorities of the post-2013 decade. All concerned were, therefore, advised to not take the matter lightly and to make use of opportunities presenting themselves for scaling up nutrition, drastically reducing hunger, malnutrition and poverty in Africa.

3.3.6.3 Public Sector Role
While agriculture is largely a private sector activity, it requires public sector and donor involvement for several reasons. First, pro-poor growth is unlikely to be achieved by market forces alone. Second, the use of natural resources in agriculture implies the existence of environmental externalities, requiring public regulation and intervention in order to maintain sustainability. Third, there are high transaction costs and risks in agriculture, resulting in the prevalence of market failures. While Africa has a long history of often-costly state intervention in agriculture with mixed levels of effectiveness, subsequent liberalization processes have also not been complete, convincing and/or successful. The public sector must then demonstrate the political will to develop ambitious policies structured around three main intervention areas:

i. Production of public goods;

ii. Use of economic policy instruments; and

iii. Regulations.

Governments and stakeholders must now be steered towards effectively honoring the commitments made. As such, in the ECCAS region, the tendency is to go as suggested by NEPAD in three main directions:

- Capitalize on results obtained so far and foster the creation of an economic environment conducive to sustainable agricultural intensification;
- Reaffirm government leadership and facilitate its expression through improved engagement with organizations across the continent; building better partnerships with farmers, farmers’ organizations and the private sector, and through greater mobilization of national resources;
- Coordinate talks on the future of the agricultural sector, clarify scenarios, predict trends and promote a vision for the sector and its role in solving the general problem of underdevelopment in Africa.

3.3.6.4 Public Private Partnerships
In the last two decades, fundamental changes have taken place in the roles of the public and the private sectors in agriculture in Africa, with a transition from state-led to private sector led development. Reform processes have involved liberalization and privatization, often with dismantling of monopolistic and monopsonistic structures, including marketing boards. These processes started first in Anglophone Africa and were later followed in other parts of Africa. However, anticipated reforms have not been completed in many of the countries, but neither have results been impressive, which may be both a cause and a consequence of the delay in implementing reforms. Market failures occurred in quite some cases with a state monopoly being replaced by a private one and with the private sector often not expanding as expected in input and output markets, especially in marginal areas.

These experiences, question the scope and pace of the reform processes, point at the need to reflect on a re-positioning in the role of the state, as well as finding a better way of state functioning with an aim of crowding-in private sector investments. The private sector, including producer organisations, is expected to perform most of the market-chain functions (input provision, credit, marketing, storage, extension). Governments on the other hand would focus on creating an enabling environment (setting and
enforcing standards, ensuring food safety, facilitating contract enforcement, providing public investments, negotiating on trade matters, organising safety nets for marginal groups, defining access to and management arrangements for natural resources, providing agricultural statistics and timely information on markets etc.).

While there appears to be a general consensus on main roles of the public and private sector, there is also a grey zone, which could be filled in accordance with country-specific circumstances, in particular the state of development of the agricultural sector, including its upstream and downstream activities.

The public sector also plays a crucial role in land policy and land administration. Land policy addresses issues of security and distribution of land rights, land use and land management, and access to land, including the forms of tenure under which it is held. Problems of land insecurity and conflicting claims on land form important reasons for Africa’s low agricultural productivity, for the marginalization of certain groups and for the erosion of sustainable production systems. The development and implementation of effective land policies, including clarifications on land tenure systems, are crucial aspects of economic governance, with effects far beyond the agricultural sector. While drawing up a national land policy is the responsibility of the state, it will need to build on and respond to the concerns of many non-state actors, including traditional authorities.

There is therefore a need for clarification and (re)definition of roles, but also for capacity building of public and private sector actors, and civil society, to better perform their respective tasks and functions. This involves the financial and institutional strengthening of the public sector to effectively perform core roles, capacity building of producer organizations and of inter-professional associations, but also the establishment of consultation arrangements and conflict resolution mechanisms (within the private sector and between public and private sector). Particular emphasis needs to be placed on the production and marketing roles of local and regional producer organizations, which often form the only solution for small farmers to deal with challenges that are associated with economies of scale (e.g. concentrated marketing chains, access to input and output markets). Public-private sector cooperation can be used to create institutional innovations, e.g. for quality enhancement and assurance, financial service provision, insurance, contracting and access to information. Moreover, continental and regional-level producer associations have the potential to increasingly play a prominent role in joint strategy development on production, processing, quality enhancement and marketing.

3.3.6.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation
Medium and long-term development perspectives of any productive sector are driven by prospects for demand growth which, dependent on the policy and economic environment, can translate into associated producer responses. For the livestock sector, trends in the consumption of animal-sourced foods and livestock by-products are the first key indicator of opportunities for investment. Data on the estimated consumption of animal-sourced foods and anticipated responses by producers for 2005-07, 2030, and 2050 are reviewed. By 2050, the meat market is projected at 34.8 million tones and that of milk about 82.6 million tones, an increase of 145 and 155 percent respectively over 2005-07 levels. More notably, over this period, Africa’s increase in volume of meat consumed will be on a par with that of the developed world and that of Latin America, with only South Asia and Southeast Asia anticipated registering higher growth. Policy and institutional reforms should be devised, building on solid data and evidence based analysis, to ensure that the business opportunities generated by the growing market for animal-sourced foods translate into widespread benefits for the populace, including livestock producers, and for other actors
along the value chains as well as consumers. African trends in the consumption of livestock products compared to other major world’s regions, as well as positioning these trends within the evolving trade position of the African continent.

Production will not keep pace with consumption. Africa is anticipated to increasingly become a net importer of animal-sourced foods. This represents a missed development opportunity, given the widespread societal benefits that inclusive growth of livestock can generate, particularly in a continent where the majority of rural dwellers depend fully or partly on livestock for their livelihoods. Consequently, investments, and policy and institutional reforms that target African livestock markets are required to ensure that the business opportunities generated by the growing demand for animal-sourced foods translate into widespread benefits for the population. Formulating effective livestock sector policies and institutional changes require a flow of information on market conditions and on the constraints to market entry. These are rarely readily available and investments in data collection and in data collection systems should be given appropriate priority, as the basis for supportive policies and investment.

3.3.6.6 Equity

It is estimated that approximately one billion people in the world live below the poverty line, this is more than the population of North America and Western Europe combined. With the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals which focus on eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, and reducing by half the number of people living on less than one dollar a day, the international community made the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger one of its primary targets. Specific targets are to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day and the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. Achieving these targets will only be possible if three requirements can be met. These are that economic growth must be substantially faster than population growth; economic growth must be focused on sectors in which the poor have a major stake, and the vulnerability of poor people to shocks, such as disease and drought must be reduced (DFID 2000).

The poverty trap recognized by the international community is juxtaposed by the broader trends, driven by increasing population and consumption, which are placing unprecedented demands on the agricultural sector. Growing populations, gains in real per capita income and progressive urbanization are fueling the demand for high(er)-value agricultural products, including fruit, vegetables, fish, meat and dairy products, thereby expanding the business opportunities for many livestock farmers (Delgado et al., 1999; FAO, 2006). Global demand for animal protein products by itself is projected to increase by 85 percent from 2005-/07 to 2050. While the production trends have favored large integrated operations, it is estimated that nearly 90 percent of the future growth in demand for animal products will come from developing regions where nearly 700 million of the rural poor keep livestock. Within the context of this growing demand, the equity challenge faced by nearly a billion people and development practitioners are:

- Will the poor be crowded out in the race to satisfy growing demand for agricultural and livestock products?
- Will cutbacks in public services, both for agriculture and livestock, threaten small-scale producers who cannot afford private suppliers?
- Will poorly developed access rights to land and water become insurmountable barriers to improving livestock production?
- How to ensure that the inequitable access that women have to resources and services is reduced?
- What are lessons on how to ensure equitable access to services?
All these issues must be addressed during the process of policy review and formulation.

**3.3.6.7 Climate change and Resilience**

The Economic Community for Central African States (ECCAS) and the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) Planning and Coordinating Agency assisted ECCAS and member countries in mainstreaming climate change into National Agricultural Investment Plans. The activity has been carried out within the framework of the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP). Improving the efficiency and output of agriculture is a long term project that requires not only major improvements in seeds and livestock and the way land is managed, but also adaptation to climate change and mitigating its impacts on food production.

There is a need to provide an in-depth and comprehensive analysis of emerging issues and challenges faced by African smallholder farmers, and allow scholars and professionals to contribute practical and evidence-based solutions. In fact, the effects of climate change on smallholders in Africa, the ongoing adaptation by farmers and livestock keepers, constraints to adoption of climate-smart technologies, and highlights areas where investments in African agriculture have the potential to be most productive. African agricultural policy makers and stakeholders have to identify climate change issues and challenges, as well as appropriate climate-smart agriculture practices and policies that can help smallholder farmers sustain and improve their livelihoods – that can increase productivity and incomes, enhance adaptation and build resilience to climate change, and reduce GHG emissions by Africa’s agricultural producers and processors.

**3.3.7 Policy Divergences and Gaps**

The major divergences and gaps that are hampering livestock development in Africa in general and in the ECCAS zone in particular can be summarized as below:

- Despite the potential contribution of livestock to poverty reduction, the sector seems to be largely neglected by policy makers.
- Second, a mix of macroeconomic and agricultural sector policies shapes livestock sector development with livestock sector specific interventions playing a subordinate role. In most countries, macroeconomic and institutional policies are increasingly sound and appropriate. However, the agricultural sector continues to fall behind this general policy trend, with the public sector often implementing invasive and/or distorting market policies, not limiting itself to supplying public goods, but supplying private goods while neglecting institutional policies. Today, the latter, however, are fundamental given the greater interconnectedness of rural and urban areas and the increasing necessity of innovative institutional arrangements to respond to the changing production and trading environment.
- Third, policymakers often design livestock policies in isolation, holding minimal consultation with other government offices or representatives from the subsector and with almost no consideration for small-scale producers. This way of proceeding often leads to the dominance of policies focussing on technical issues, which are essential but not sufficient to promote the development of the livestock sector unless they are consistent with the complex environment in which poor livestock keepers operate.
- Fourth, smallholder livestock keepers typically have no or only a limited voice in the political arena. Being poor, risk-averse, poorly educated and often separated by large physical distances from the centres of policymaking, they cannot afford and are reticent to invest resources in political lobbying. Since the balance of power between sectoral interest groups however significantly determines the extent to which policies are legislated for and implemented, policy makers will most likely ‘lack incentives’ to design and carry forward pro-poor livestock policies.
Agriculture and particularly livestock is underperforming in many ECCAS/CEMAC countries for a number of reasons. Among these is the fact that women lack the resources and opportunities they need to make the most productive use of their time. Women are farmers, workers and entrepreneurs, but they face more severe constraints compared to men in accessing productive resources, markets and services. This “gender gap” hinders their productivity and reduces their contributions to the agriculture sector and to the achievement of broader economic and social development goals. Closing the gender gap in agriculture would produce significant gains for society by increasing agricultural productivity, reducing poverty and hunger and promoting economic growth.

3.3.8 Bridging the Policy Gaps

The intervention areas include all activities related to revising relevant policy documents, including existing agriculture, climate change and environment related policies, strategies and programmes in order to bridge identified gaps including gender sensitivity and inclusiveness. It includes actions aimed at strengthening the coordination role of governments in order to ensure coherence and build synergies among the different actors in the areas of gender, climate change, agriculture and environment. Training and awareness creation activities must be carried out to government officials and other stakeholders on gender equity and women empowerment, gender analysis and budgeting as well as climate smart agriculture.

To bridge the identified policy, strategy and legislative gaps in the agricultural policies and particularly the livestock related policy documents, key principles must be observed in the future during the implementation of the CAADP process at country and regional levels. There is, therefore a need to have:

- a clear recognition by policy makers of the important role of agriculture in economic growth, poverty reduction, food security and resource management, including supporting biodiversity;
- a development of effective agricultural policies and strategies, in a consultative manner with all main stakeholders, well-integrated with Poverty Reduction Strategies, as a basis for external support to agricultural development;
- an integrated agricultural development in a broader framework and vision on rural development, requiring due attention to the diversification of the rural production base, to enhanced capacities to plan and manage local economic development in the framework of territorial development, and to the creation of safety nets in cases of chronic vulnerability.
- agricultural research for development to be responsive to demands from small-scale producers and their organizations, and to link research to training and extension in the framework of national and regional research systems
- mainstreamed environmental concerns in agricultural development, and recognized that agricultural production can both be causing environmental degradation and be a method to ensure sustainable resource management;
- a recognition that improved risk management is essential in reducing vulnerabilities of agricultural producers and rural communities, particularly those facing high uncertainty on price developments and on the occurrence of natural disasters, and thereby stimulating investments and innovation;
- a recognition of the comparative strengths of interventions at various levels (national, (sub)regional and continental), while maintaining the subsidiarity principle.

Bridging the gaps means also that policies and investments aimed at enhancing the contribution of livestock to economic growth and poverty reduction should consequently adopt a dual strategy of targeting livelihood-oriented and business-oriented livestock keepers, who have diverse incentives to
keep animals. There are, however, major information gaps which constrain the formulation of effective policy and investment decisions.

Last and not the least, closing the gaps is also addressing the gender issue. For that matter, it is mentioned in the FAO 2010 – 2011 edition of the state of food and agriculture, if women had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20–30 percent. This could raise total agricultural output in developing countries by 2.5–4 percent, which could in turn reduce the number of hungry people in the world by 12–17 percent.

The potential gains would vary by region depending on how many women are currently engaged in agriculture, how much production or land they control, and how wide a gender gap they face. Policy interventions can help close the gender gap in agriculture and rural labor markets. Priority areas for reform include:

- eliminating discrimination against women in access to agricultural resources, education, extension and financial services, and labor markets;
- investing in labor-saving and productivity-enhancing technologies and infrastructure to free women’s time for more productive activities; and
- facilitating the participation of women in flexible, efficient and fair rural labor markets.

Decision-makers must provide the impetus needed to ensure that farmers make their profession an economic activity that generates well-being in rural areas, and meets employment challenges and the expectations of citizens, namely those relating to security, well-being and independence.

To implement all these measures, efforts are under way to harmonize national policies, including at the level of ECCAS/CEMAC. National and Regional programmes for food security, which include the coordination and harmonisation of food security and agricultural policies, the promotion of regional agricultural trade and the improvement of competitiveness on the world market have now been adopted. However, while some projects have been put in place, a lack of funding delays implementation. ECCAS has also created a fund for agriculture, the FSRDA, to promote food security.

At the result, the identified gaps in terms of livestock policies and related issues can only be closed within the CAADP process, which is seen as a transformation agenda in Africa. In fact, CAADP has demonstrated rewards to collective action by Africans, as the continent is poised to address its developmental challenges. Transforming African agriculture is, by the same fact, transforming Africa’s economy. Domestic revenue provides the main source of finance for their development efforts. African governments are investing relatively more of domestic public funds into agriculture and rural development. Closer regional integration, in areas such as trade and infrastructure, is also essential to support this process. For Africa to continue on a sustainable path to development, it has to continue the momentum of political and economic gains; deepen process of regional integration; accelerate domestic resource mobilization and capitalization; and accelerate investment and returns to agriculture as the backbone of the African economy, especially given that Africa’s population will remain majority rural until about 2035.

Quality investment plans alone will not deliver the desired results and sustainable impact, if the policies and institutional capacity are not aligned and strengthen to support Africa’s vision on an agriculture-led growth and development. The achievements and lessons from CAADP have also provided stronger technical and political basis to pursue and deepen the regional integration objectives. Along the improved investment plans, alignment of policies and strengthening institutional capacity, CAADP has highlighted
opportunities to pursue and achieve tangible results in bringing regional integration objectives to bear on continent’s sustainable development agenda.

3.4  ECOWAS
3.4.1  Establishment of ECOWAS
On May 28, 1975, 15 West African countries met in Lagos, Nigeria, to sign the ECOWAS Treaty, also known as the Treaty of Lagos. These fifteen countries were Benin, Burkina Faso (then known as Upper Volta), Cote d’Ivoire, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, and Togo. The ECOWAS Treaty, which created the Economic Community of West African States, was intended to promote cooperation and integration within West Africa and to eventually establish an economic and monetary union.

Two years later, in 1977, Cape Verde became the sixteenth member of ECOWAS.

On July 24, 1993, the 16 members of ECOWAS signed a revised treaty. In accordance with the text of the revised treaty, all community conventions, protocols, decisions, and resolutions made in the 1975 treaty were to remain valid and enforced, except for those that were inconsistent with the revised treaty. The revisions that were presented in the 1993 version of the treaty were made with the two basic goals of accelerating the integration of economic policy and improving political cooperation.

To accelerate economic integration, the revised treaty outlined the necessary steps for the establishment of a common market and a shared currency. Some of the steps of this outline, as stated in the revised treaty, call for the study and research of monetary and financial development, the promotion of activities ensuring convertibility of currencies, and the establishment of a common currency zone.

To achieve the goal of improving political cooperation, the revised treaty established a West African Parliament, an Economic and Social Council, and an ECOWAS Court of Justice, to replace the existing Tribunal and to enforce community decisions. The revised treaty designated the responsibility of preventing and settling regional conflicts to the member states. This was later formalized at the ECOWAS Summit of December 1999, when the Community agreed on a Protocol for the Establishment of a Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peace and Security.

This revised Treaty emphasizes that Member States shall co-operate in the development of agriculture, forestry, and livestock and fisheries in order to:
  a. Ensure food security;
  b. Increase production and productivity in agriculture, livestock, fisheries and forestry, and improve conditions of work and generate employment opportunities in rural areas;
  c. Enhance agricultural production through processing locally, animal and plant products; and
  d. Protect the prices of export commodities on the international market

To this end, and in order to promote the integration of production structures Member States shall co-operate in the following fields:
  a. The production of agricultural inputs fertilizers, pesticides, selected seeds, agricultural machinery and equipment and veterinary products;
  b. The development of river and lake basins;
  c. The development and protection of marine and fishery resources;
d. Plant and animal protection;
e. The harmonization of agricultural development strategies and policies particularly pricing and price support policies on the production, trade and marketing of major agricultural products and inputs; and

The harmonization of food security policies in the region will pay particular attention to:

a. The reduction of losses in food production;
b. The strengthening of existing institutions for the management of natural calamities, agricultural diseases and pest control;
c. The conclusion of agreements on food security at the regional level; and

d. The provision of food aid to Member States in the event of serious food shortage.
e. The establishment of an early warning system

In December 1999, Mauritania withdrew from ECOWAS because of conflicting opinions on some of the decisions that were made during the Summit, lowering the number of member states back to 15.

3.4.2 Key Articles of ECOWAS
Although the governing bodies within ECOWAS have changed along the course of the community’s existence, the revised treaty lists eight institutions: the Authority of Heads of State and Government, the Council of Ministers; the 115-member Community Parliament; the Economic and Social Council; the Community Court of Justice; the Executive Secretariat; the Fund for Cooperation, Compensation, and Development; and Specialized Technical Commissions. Each institution is tasked with certain duties and delegated a specified degree of power, but the Authority of Heads of State and Government is the supreme institution.

ECOWAS and the Economic and Monetary Union of West Africa (UEMOA) signed a Cooperation Agreement for Regional Integration on May 5, 2004.

3.4.3 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in ECOWAS
West Africa region harbours a diversity of dynamic animal production systems attributed to the diversified agro-ecological conditions of the region. However, the region is being seriously threatened by a diversity of risks for livestock development. As a major component of the rural production systems of the West Africa region, livestock development contributes significantly to the overall food supply and food security, the GDP, the employment, livelihoods and the poverty reduction in the region.

In economic terms, livestock rearing plays a major role in household incomes, even if its contribution to the West African national budgets is negligible and variable. With regards to poverty reduction, statistics (FAO, 2006) indicate that about ¼ of the world’s rural poor in the sub-Saharan Africa, is entirely or partially dependent on livestock production to feed itself or obtain financial remuneration.

West Africa currently represents a market of 220 million consumers. Demographic projections show that this population is going to reach 350 million in 2020 (FAO, 2004). This increase of the population will be coupled with a very strong urbanization. The coastal zones will constitute the main demographic concentration zones with an urban population of nearly 60 % in countries like Côte d’Ivoire, Nigeria and Senegal. A major challenging concerns the satisfaction of the population’s needs and the supply of urban areas which will continue to be important poles of consumption.
As regards animal products markets, the literature underline that these demographic changes will lead to fast and critical modifications of the livestock systems and of the marketing chains within the framework of the livestock revolution (Delgado and al. 1999). Because of the high revenue elasticity of animal products, the challenges of the livestock sector are very important for West Africa. Indeed, the gap between demand and supply is important for various animal products, particularly for milk and poultry meat. The levels of satisfaction of milk are from 60 to 70 % for the Sahelian countries and from 8 to 50 % for the coastal countries (Balami, 2004). Imports therefore contribute strongly to the supply of the domestic West African markets.

3.4.4 ECOWAS Level Agriculture and Livestock Policies and Legislations

3.4.4.1 Regional Agriculture Policy (ECOWAP/CAADP)

The vision of the ECOWAS Regional Agricultural Policy (ECOWAP/CAADP) is “A modern and sustainable agriculture based on effective and efficient family farms and the promotion of agricultural enterprises through the involvement of the private sector”. Once productivity and competitiveness on the intra-community and international markets is achieved, the policy should be able to guarantee food security and secure decent incomes for agricultural workers.

**General objective**
Contribute in a sustainable way to meeting the food needs of the population, to economic and social development, to the reduction of poverty in the Member States, and thus to reduce existing inequalities among territories, zones and nations.

**Specific objectives:**
- Food security for people in the region;
- Reducing food dependence and achieving food sovereignty;
- Involving producers in markets;
- Creating jobs with guaranteed incomes in order to improve living conditions and services in rural areas;
- Intensifying production systems in a sustainable manner;
- Reducing the vulnerability of West African economies by limiting factors of instability and regional insecurity;
- Adopting appropriate funding mechanisms.

Thus, ECOWAP’s objectives affirm the principle of regional food sovereignty, primarily through high regional integration and appropriate levels of border protection, differentiated according to the specific needs of each supply chain.

The three major themes of this policy are:
- Increasing the productivity and competitiveness of West African agriculture;
- Implementing a trade regime within West Africa;
- Adapting the trade regime vis-à-vis countries outside the region.

The adoption of ECOWAP in 2005 raised the issue of how it would tie up with NEPAD’s agricultural programme. Therefore in July 2005 ECOWAS drew up a Regional Action Plan for the implementation of ECOWAP and CAADP/NEPAD in the period 2006-2010, based on six priority areas for joint implementation.
Six priority fields of action were retained on the basis of their capacity to help reduce poverty and food insecurity and contribute to regional integration, and their short- and medium-term feasibility. They are briefly summarised below:

- Improved water management, by (i) promoting irrigation and (ii) integrated water resource management;
- Improved management of other natural resources, through (i) organised transhumance and rangeland development; (ii) sustainable forest resources management; (iii) sustainable fishery resources management;
- Sustainable agricultural development at the farm level, through (i) integrated soil fertility management, (ii) better support services for producers, (iii) dissemination of improved technologies;
- Developing agricultural supply chains and promoting markets by (i) developing the different supply chains (food crops, peri-urban agriculture, export crops, short-cycle livestock rearing, agro-forestry food products, artisanal fishing and fish farming); (ii) developing processing operations, (iii) strengthening support services for operators, (iv) promoting national, international and regional trade;
- Preventing and managing food crises and other natural disasters by (i) promoting early warning systems, (ii) developing crisis management systems, (iii) assisting the recovery of crisis-hit areas, (iv) formulating mechanisms for disaster-related insurance and compensation;
- Institution building through (i) gender-sensitive approaches, (ii) support for capacity building in the formulation of agricultural and rural policies and strategies, (iii) long-term funding for agriculture, (iv) communication, (v) capacity building in steering and coordination, (vi) capacity building in monitoring and evaluation.

3.4.4.2 Regional Agricultural Investment Plan (RAIP)

Long-term Regional Agricultural Investment Programme (RAIP) and National Agricultural Investment Programmes (NAIP) develop the six priority areas under the Regional Agriculture Policy (ECOWAP). The other regional integration or cooperation organizations and the private stakeholders and socio-professional organizations have collaborated in this programme.

In this context, the ECOWAS Commission coordinated the preparation of National Agricultural Investment Programs (NAIP) in the Member States. The ECOWAS Commission provided important support to formulate quality programs and foster dialogue among actors in each country. It supported the organization of national round tables for the adoption of the proposals. The Commission will support the implementation of the NAIP through resource mobilization from development partners.

Since the adoption of ECOWAP, the ECOWAS Commission and the NEPAD Secretariat worked together with Member States to elaborate and adopt an action plan for joint implementation of the regional agricultural policy and CAADP. ECOWAS Member Countries, therefore, have a single, unified framework for planning and intervention in the agricultural sector.

At the regional level, the operationalization of ECOWAP/CAADP was translated into the development of action programs targeting six themes: (i) Water management; (ii) Management of other shared natural resources; (iii) Sustainable development of farms; (iv) Markets and supply chains; (v) Prevention and management of food crises and other natural disasters; and (vi) Institutional strengthening. These themes were complemented by a program focused on an Agricultural Information System (AGRIS).
Implementation of ECOWAP/CAADP at the regional level: Regional mobilizing programs.

The first mobilizing program is on the “Promotion of strategic products for food sovereignty”. Its objective is to support all regional initiatives and strategies for the development of agri-food value chains, in order to improve the incomes of the rural population, reduce food dependency of the ECOWAS Member States and modernize production systems. This is structured around the Promotion of the livestock, meat and milk value chains. This includes (i) supporting the adaptation and securing of the various livestock production systems; (ii) the management of movement of herds among countries and the prevention/regulation of conflicts in the use of natural resources; (iii) the restructuring and organization of marketing channels or value chains; and (iv) the promotion of processing and value addition to products.

3.4.4.3 The Strategic Action Plan Development and Transformation of livestock sector in the ECOWAS region

The Strategic Action Plan for Development and Transformation of livestock sector in the ECOWAS region (2011-2020) is intended to accelerate the transformation of the livestock sector.

The global objective of the Plan is the transformation and economic value addition to the cattle, meat and dairy sector in order to provide sustainable food security, reduce poverty and provide decent income for those working in the sector while preserving our natural resources.

Its strategic orientations can be summed up as a case for the promotion of a regional vision of Livestock farming based on the following major recommendations:

- Capacity building of national and regional professional bodies through networking, development of regional dairy organizations and professionals in the sector, institutional support for improved management and governance,
- Fast-tracking the harmonization of regulations in order to facilitate trade in cattle and animal products, guarantee animal health, sanitary security of food products of animal origin, veterinary products and animal genetic resources;
- Strengthen public veterinary services for the proper accomplishment of their regulatory mission and also support for the development of private veterinary services;
- Taking measures to protect pastures (grazing lands and transhumance/trading corridors) through the harmonization of pastoral conventions and agro-sylvo-pastoral regulations with reference to ECOWAS Decision A/DEC.5/10/98;
- Support for the production, gradual processing and intensification of livestock farming systems, including semi-urban production, through the improvement of feeds, the health and the breeding of West African domestic animals;
- Promoting the agro-food processing of animal products and by-products in the region through a favourable economic environment which encourages research, training on best practices and the standardization of livestock products;
- Support for the circulation of more information on markets and strengthening structures for the collection and management of information of market and livestock statistics;
- Strengthening research and training based on indigenous and modern practice of regional livestock farming, especially the impact of national and regional policies on natural and social changes in the livestock sector as well as all related institutions in the West Africa region.
3.4.5 Transposition Status of ECOWAS Regional Level Agriculture and Livestock Policies
Following policy discussions which involved member states of the ECOWAS, the socio-professional bodies, civil society and cooperation organizations, the ECOWAS Heads of State and Government approved, in January 2005, the ECOWAS agricultural policy (ECOWAP) as the instrument for the implementation of the CAADP.

In this context, the ECOWAS Commission and the secretariat of NEPAD worked together to produce a single framework for the schedule of interventions in the agricultural sector. This is the ECOWAP/CAADP.

At the regional level, the implementation of ECOWAP/CAADP gave rise to three regional mobilization programmes adopted in November 2009 and which, for this purpose, was based on the execution of the regional agricultural investment plan (RAIP) which focused on three mobilization programmes, viz.:

- Promotion of strategic products for food security and sufficiency
- Promotion of a global favourable environment for regional agricultural development
- Reduction of food vulnerability and the promotion of sustainable access to food

The regional agricultural investment plan, 2010-2015, for the implementation of the mobilization plan, is expected, among other benefits, to give West Africa the major part of its requirements in animal products and by-products through the promotion of livestock farming in the region. Based on this vision, the Regional Action Plan for the development and the transformation of livestock farming in the ECOWAS region keys into Objective no. 1: Promotion of strategic products for food security and self-sufficiency and Objective no. 2: the promotion of a global favourable environment for the development of agriculture in the region. This Action Plan targets several goals and is structured around some components and sub-components.

**Expected results**
The results expected from the implementation of the Action Plan are the four major components of the plan which are:

- Promotion of the livestock, meat and dairy sector;
- Provision of security for transnational mobility and reduction of conflicts;
- The structuring of the animal production sector;
- The creation of a favourable environment for the development of livestock, meat and dairy products

3.4.6 Overview of ECOWAS MSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations
An examination of the policy landscape in the ECOWAS region reveals that a large proportion of member states have overarching Visions and agriculture sector development policies and strategies. However, more than half of the member states do not have specific livestock development policies or strategies. Similarly, most of the member states have not developed animal health/veterinary policies or strategies. While almost all the member states have existing animal health/veterinary legislations, they were enacted many years ago and are certainly out of tune with current demands.

3.4.7 Agriculture and Livestock Policy Directions
3.4.7.1 Poverty reduction / Wealth creation
The food crisis caused by soaring prices of food products worldwide in 2007-08 were an abrupt reminder to the region and international community of the urgent need to make major reforms to transform agriculture and meet the challenge of poverty reduction and food security. According to the IFPRI, “African
countries have the necessary potential to reduce poverty and guarantee food security for the next 15 to 20 years by targeting investment policies and strategies with a view to: (i) increasing the average rate of growth of agricultural production by 50% This activity essentially aims to transform family farming systems by shifting them from a situation of subsistence farming to one of market agriculture. They must be capable of facing the three major challenges of the next fifteen to twenty years: food security for a constantly increasing population, agricultural growth to eradicate poverty and regional integration with the development of trade founded on production complementarities. Today a consensus exists with regard to the role of social safety net policies and programs in reducing long-term poverty. By improving the capacity of the households to access monetary resources, programs targeting the most vulnerable give the latter the means of escaping poverty for the long term.

3.4.7.2 Food and nutrition security
The West African agricultural sector must undertake massive transformations to cope with the challenges of food and nutrition security. In the case of production, it is an issue of ensuring a significant increase in labor, soil and water productivity while eliminating the deterioration of natural resources and strengthening the resilience of the production systems to climate change. Downstream from production, the aim is to increase performances of the processing and marketing systems in order to create the conditions conducive to both the sustainable intensification of production and improved food security (price, food quantity and quality). Three fields of action relating to food security have now been fully incorporated in intervention at a regional level: the information mechanisms, trade policy and the revival of production. The third specific objective of this program is to provide a more balanced response to the different parameters of food security by dealing with the question of social safety nets and regional support instruments for crisis prevention and management. This involves activating a region-wide action in these fields to support the member states and to evaluate it before envisaging its extension after 2015.

3.4.7.3 Public sector role
Following the withdrawal of the states from the economic sphere within the framework of the structural adjustment policies of the 1980s-1990s, the public authorities have very few instruments to enable them to make an effective contribution to market regulation and the sustainable growth of agricultural production. In this context and in light of the acute problems posed by the price hike of 2008, the states have tended to rehabilitate the national approaches in force before the adjustment. However, the regionalization of the markets, their openness to the world markets, the major transformations which have occurred in terms of international commitments, the organization of the economic operators and regional integration have profoundly modified the conditions and nature of effective public intervention. The region continues to be characterized by a strict compartmentalization of public intervention initiatives, be it between the states, between the backers or between the regional organizations (whose mandates sometimes overlap). This compartmentalization is detrimental to the implementation of ambitious regional actions in fields where the creation of economies of scale would significantly increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the interventions. This is particularly the case of public efforts with regard to agronomic and environmental research, information systems and capacity building.

3.4.7.4 Public Private Partnerships
The involvement of the private sector is enshrined in all major documents of ECOWAS. The treaty (1993 revised treaty, Art. 82) urges the community to cooperate with socioeconomic organisations “with a view to ensuring their involvement in the integration process.” Consultation mechanisms with such organizations should be set up.
The member states initiated a reform process to transform the community in an “ECOWAS of the people” and transformed the secretariat into a more powerful commission (2007). The reform document was called Vision 2020 in which the private sector is one of the five basic pillars. The private sector should be included in all official ECOWAS economic dialogues and integrated into the planning and implementation of regional strategies. PPP is foreseen as an essential element for the physical integration of the region. In all programmes a specific partnership component should be integrated (ECOWAS 2009a: 16) and “a clearly defined Private Sector Development strategy” developed (ECOWAS 2009a: 21). A strong regional business body (“ECOWAS Business Council”) should drive the integration (ECOWAS 2009a: 12 and 21).

Currently, the Community Development Programme (CDP) is under preparation to provide a coherent programme of action for the implementation of the Vision 2020. The preparation process is based on a series of consultations. The first axis of the CDP proposes a closer collaboration with the private sector through PPP for infrastructure and contributions of the private sector in the decision making process of organs of ECOWAS. The CDP should be implemented in consultation with a Regional Advisory Body incorporating the private sector.

The private sector strategy envisaged under the Vision 2020 was not developed yet.

A Private Sector Directorate was created when the former ECOWAS secretariat was transformed in the ECOWAS commission. The new directorate includes sectoral functions (PSD including strengthening of BMOs, SME development and trade missions), cross-sectoral functions (PPP, involvement of the private sector in other sectors) and is the liaison point for private sector representatives. Three officials are working in the PS Directorate.

### 3.4.7.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation

Poverty is a widespread phenomenon in West Africa and the Sahel (Thornton et al., 2002). It is particularly a feature of certain Sahel countries (Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger) or coastal countries with a large rural population (Guinea) and with economies that are mainly dependent on agriculture and especially on livestock. In most of these countries, it affects more than 50% of the population. Even in countries where the poverty threshold is 50% or higher, livestock rearing is an important activity, as is the case in the Sahel countries, where the livestock sector is the first or second source of export revenue. Despite the insufficient exploitation of animal production livestock rearing plays a role in reducing poverty in the region. It also reveals a contradictory and abnormal situation. In a wider perspective, poverty is a phenomenon encompassing various dimensions of destitution linked to the inability to meet such human needs as consuming and being sure of food security, being in good health, being able to learn, being able to exercise the right to make one’s voice. The role of livestock in reducing poverty should be strengthened, given its underexploited potential both in individual countries and in the SWA region as a whole.

The animal production potential discussed above plays a direct role in the process of socio-economic transformation and contributes to people’s nutritional and food security in a number of ways. Livestock rearing as a productive activity is in line with that same dynamic of bringing men and women out of the vicious cycle of poverty that affects rural people in particular but increasingly also those in urban areas – or preventing them from falling back into it. Livestock production not only improves people’s nutritional status, but above all it provides income to various groups on the fringe of African society through trade.
In general terms, livestock often constitute a reserve of wealth, steadily built up and used to counter risks of income loss and food insecurity. This savings and insurance function will remain important so long as the commercial financial system (banks and insurance companies) remains inaccessible to the majority of people. Urban livestock rearing, even on a small scale, is a supplementary source of income for people employed in jobs other than farming (traders, artisans, civil servants). Its contribution to household incomes is estimated as at least 25% (Wilson, 1995). Case studies show that livestock rearing accounts for 34% of rural household incomes, as opposed to 14% for crop production (Zonon, 2004; CAPES, 2003). A survey of a number of mixed farmer-herders on the Mossi Plateau of Burkina Faso indicates the importance of income from livestock in rural people’s lives (see Box 2). A survey of household budgets and consumption in Niger shows that the livestock sector contributes more than 15% to household budgets, while its contribution to meeting food needs is 25% (MRA, 2004). In the Sahelian zone of Senegal, Kelly et al. (1993) showed that the majority of poor rural households depend essentially on livestock for their income.

However, the role of animal products in reducing poverty, especially monetary poverty, varies from country to country. For example, poultry’s contribution to livestock income is assessed at 49% in Benin and Senegal, and 56% in Côte d’Ivoire (UEMOA, 2002), while the contribution of milk is particularly high in the Sahel countries: 40% in Niger, 38% in Mali and 32% in Burkina Faso.

3.4.7.6 Equity
The lack of effective and context-specific strategies for addressing gender and equity issues has led to a neglect of a large proportion of potential economic players, including women and the youth while marginalizing whole populations. This is despite the presence of gender strategies on paper that have failed to translate to impacts on women and other marginalized groups. The rationale for considering gender in agricultural research and innovation relates to agricultural productivity, food security, nutrition, poverty reduction and empowerment (Meinzen-Dick et al, 2010). In all of these cases, women play a critical role but often an unrecognized role and face greater constraints than men. Although two thirds of the world’s 600 million poor livestock keepers are rural women (Thornton et al 2003), little research has been conducted in recent years on rural women’s roles in livestock keeping and the opportunities livestock-related interventions could offer them. This is in contrast to considerable research on the roles of women in small-scale crop farming, where their importance is widely recognized and lessons are emerging about how best to reach and support women through interventions and policies (e.g. Quisumbing and Pandolfelli 2010, Gladwin et al 2001). To address these issues, good practice has been identified in many areas such as systematic characterization and targeting (Herrero et al 2010; Hyman et al 2008, Quiros et al 2009), involving beneficiaries in R&D processes including M&E (Sanginga et al, 2009; Kristjanson et al, 2009), and in moving beyond anecdotal success stories to evaluate impact using counterfactuals (Walker et al 2008) and, where appropriate, controls (Maredia 2009). Additionally, there have been tools, and approaches developed for integrating gender in agricultural research and development. Tools for gendered value chain analysis tools (Rubin et al, 2009; Mayoux and Mackie, 2007) and approaches for integrating gender in research (Kaaria et al, 2009; Ashby, et al 2000; Njuki et al, 2009) are available for adaptation.

3.4.7.7 Climate change and Resilience
Rural people in the Sahelian part of Africa rely mainly on crop–livestock activities and natural resources for their livelihood and food security, and to provide food for urban populations. For centuries, these activities have been adapted to the changing environment, as spatial and time variability (seasonal and inter-annual) of rainfall have always been specific traits of this agro-ecological zone (especially in the last four decades). This zone is defined as the southern border of the Sahara desert, characterized by low and
unreliable annual rainfall, usually between 200 and 600 mm/year, along a positive gradient southward and occurring mainly between June and October, defining two main climatic zones, arid and semi-arid. Apart from a few secondary towns and major cities (such as Dakar and Bamako), the majority of the population (more than 70 percent [FAOSTAT, 2010]) live in rural areas where they practise agriculture. Livestock farming in the Sahel has been a traditional activity for centuries based on common use of resources (water, rangelands) and regulations. Societies have built their organizations and interactions on herd, pasture and water management (Bonfiglioli, 1988; Ancey et al., 2009) and various exchanges with the “outside world” (Khazanov, 1984). Grazing systems traditionally fulfil various functions through diversified and accurate use of livestock capital (sales, gifts, loans, distribution, inheritance and even thefts): organization of resource management, social recognition, collective risk management, collective food security management and social reproduction. To secure their families’ livelihoods, these populations have been adapting their production systems and way of life to cope with uncertainties. Nowadays, they are faced with new challenges such as high demographic growth (4 percent on average), climate change, environmental concerns and global market changes, which have had major local impacts on their production system organization, dynamics and viability. We shall discuss here how livestock production systems in the Sahel, associated with cropping activities or not, have been shaped by this highly variable environment, and what can be said about their ability to cope with the new challenges and maintain their production systems and way of life (i.e. resilience).

3.4.8 Divergences and Gaps
The Policy Gap Analysis has identified significant impediments to trade within ECOWAS in the areas of transport and free movement of goods. In the category of transport, the package of trade facilitation measures introduced by the ISRT Conventions, including the customs bond and logbook system, is not speeding up the flow of trade in the way that it should. The stakeholders in West Africa (particularly transport operators) can utilize the findings of the Gap Analysis to work with individual Member States on better implementation of these important measures. In the category of free movement of goods, both tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade between Member States still persist. While some progress has certainly been made in reducing tariffs, both public and private sector respondents confirmed that they have not been fully eliminated. Progress towards removing non-tariff barriers, such as seasonal import and export bans, has been slower. Both problems require advocacy by the private sector and ECOWAS, as well as other partner programmes/projects, because these barriers have constituencies that want to see them maintained. Domestic industries that benefit from the protection that trade barriers provide and customs agencies that generate revenues (formal and informal) from tariffs and fees are both likely obstacles to change. The lack of a functioning preferred trader scheme is further hindering the free flow of processed goods in the region. This is an area where the ECOWAS Commission and donors can support Member States in establishing the systems for registering preferred traders, maintaining up-to-date lists of firms participating in the scheme, and publicizing the benefits of becoming a preferred trader amongst firms in their jurisdictions.

3.4.9 Bridging the Policy Gaps in ECOWAS
Many policy gaps need to be bridged. Among the more instrumental, are those related to the formal and traditional market as far as ECOWAS common market is concerned. A related issue is the dominance in the key value chains of local markets, where products reach end consumers in raw or traditionally processed form, with little or no implementation of cold chain or modern supply chain processes. These are also the markets that most poor producers and poor consumers depend on. Because these are likely to remain the dominants markets in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) for years to come, development strategies that work with
and through these important markets are likely to be able to capture larger market share for foreseeable future. Market strategies focusing solely on formal, mostly urban, markets may be limited by demand for some time to come. Recognizing nevertheless that the trend is toward more formal markets, there are working models of interventions that enable traditional market players to improve product quality and standards to better compete and bridge the gap to formal markets, and possibly link to regional markets. Policies that regulate products and standards may have to be addressed simultaneously.

3.5 IGAD

3.5.1 Establishment of IGAD

The recurring and severe droughts and other natural disasters that occurred between 1974 and 1984 caused widespread famine, ecological degradation and economic hardships in the HoA region. Although the individual countries made substantial efforts to cope with the situation and received generous support from the international community, the magnitude and extent of the problem argued strongly for a regional approach to supplement national efforts.

Between 1983 and 1984, six countries in the HoA - Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda - took action through the United Nations to establish an intergovernmental body for development and drought control in their region. The Assembly of Heads of State and Government met in Djibouti in January 1986 to sign the Agreement which officially launched the Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Development (IGADD) with Headquarters in Djibouti. The State of Eritrea became the seventh member after attaining independence in 1993.

In April 1995 in Addis Ababa, the Assembly of Heads of State and Government made a Declaration to revitalise IGADD and expand cooperation among Member States. On 21st March 1996 in Nairobi, the Assembly of Heads of State and Government signed a ‘Letter of Instrument to Amend the IGADD Charter / Agreement” establishing the revitalised IGADD with a new name” The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)”. The Revitalised IGAD, with expanded areas of regional cooperation and a new organisational structure, was launched by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government on 25 November 1996 in Djibouti, the Republic of Djibouti.

Articles 7 of the agreement establishing IGAD aims at promoting joint development and harmonization of policies that relate to environment, agriculture, trade, food security, infrastructure, research, resource mobilization among others.

3.5.2 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in IGAD

3.5.3 IGAD Level Agriculture and Livestock Related Policies and Legislations

3.5.3.1 IGAD CAADP

The CAADP is the top most policy document for improving agricultural production and productivity in the continent. However, based on the identified livestock priorities by AU-IBAR and the fact that IGAD can play an important role in addressing the current underinvestment in the arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL) areas (both financially and policy-wise), and considering that approximately 70% of the IGAD region is ASAL’s and which is home to a similar percentage of livestock in the region, a regional CAADP compact was considered critical and therefore had to be developed. The compact was based on the IGAD Member States identified regional priorities which are categorized in four components namely:

a. Sustainable Natural resources use and management
b. Improving infrastructure and trade related capacities for market access
c. Increased agricultural production and food and nutrition security
d. Research, Technology dissemination and institutional building.

The details of the IGAD CAADP compact agreement are shown in Annex 1.

3.5.3.2 IGAD Regional Policy Framework on Animal Health in the Context of Trade and Vulnerability
Cognizant of the fact that the HoA has the fastest-growing livestock sector on the African continent; the sector is constrained by a number of factors among them including limited public-sector investment, poorly coordinated support services; and lack of a regional strategy, the Ministers responsible for animal resources in the IGAD Member States met in Djibouti on 10th December 2009 and endorsed a Regional Policy Framework on Animal Health in the Context of Trade and Vulnerability to mitigate disease control in the livestock sector of the region. The framework has five articles on:

a. Transboundary Animal Diseases (TADs), diseases of production, animal welfare and livestock-related emergencies;
b. IGAD representation and participation in international standards setting institutions;
c. Regional and national capacity building and provision of livestock services;
d. Intra-regional trade in livestock and livestock related products, inputs and services; and
e. Institutional Provision.

3.5.3.3 IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI)
A decision to end drought emergences was taken by IGAD and EAC Heads of State and Government at a Summit convened in Nairobi on 9th September 2011, following the severe drought that devastated the region in 2010/2011. The IDDRSI Strategy aims at addressing the effects of drought and related shocks in the IGAD region in a sustainable and holistic manner. The Strategy has 7 priority intervention (PI) areas for investment. Figure 6 shows the Priority intervention areas and the strategic objectives.

![Figure 3: IDDRSI Priority Intervention areas and Strategic Objectives](image-url)
3.5.3.4 IGAD Protocol on Free Movement of Persons

An IGAD protocol on free movement of persons is anchored on Article 13 A (iv) of the Agreement establishing IGAD that mandates the IGAD to facilitate the free movement of persons and right of establishment and residence of their respective nationals in the IGAD region. This also comes in the wake of the adoption by the IGAD Summit of Heads of States and Government in February 2012 of the IGAD Minimum Integration Plan (MIP) that aims at fast tracking the regional integration process. With the current efforts to strengthen inter-regional connectivity through the HoA Infrastructure project part of the MIP, the IGAD protocol on free movement of persons will certainly accelerate the integration process and impact on livestock production and trade in the region.

3.5.3.5 Protocol on the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism for IGAD MSs

Article 18A of the Agreement to Establish IGAD was the foundation for establishment of the Conflict Early Warning and Response Network (CEWARN) protocol. CEWARN’s functions in Article 5 in relation to livestock include recommending mechanisms for regional responses to cross-border and trans-border conflicts; and establishing collaborative relationships, including information sharing, with similar international, regional and sub-regional mechanisms in Africa. The CEWARN protocol may come in handy in implementing issues on livestock movement, identification and traceability.

3.5.3.6 Protocol for the establishment of the ICPALD

The ICPALD was founded in July 2013 as an IGAD specialized institution mandated to “promote and facilitate sustainable and equitable drylands and livestock development in the IGAD region”. To fulfill its mandate ICPALD provides a platform for regional cooperation and coordination in drylands, fisheries and livestock development. The improvement of animal health, production and marketing, enhanced dryland agriculture and value added alternative livelihood products including non-wood forest products (NWFP) and artisanal minerals in areas of production will have net positive consequences for food and economic security and especially in rural pastoral populations. Regional cooperation and coordination of actions based on the scientific assessment of risks to shared water (underground and surface) resources and natural resources (NR) especially pastures and NWFP, climate change and adaptation, animal and public health and the scientific evaluation of other factors of production and consumption remain the principal means of achieving these benefits.

The 45th IGAD Council meeting of July 2012 that approved the establishment of ICPALD directed that the new institution works with and through Centres of excellence in Member States (MS) while borrowing from IGAD Secretariat’s long experience in the management of economic development and drought related issues. In line with this directive ICPALD has undertaken a number of projects/interventions with other implementing partners including divisions of IGAD, ICPAC, CEWARN, MS, FAO, AU-IBAR and Terra Nuova (TN) in fish and animal health production and marketing, alternative livelihoods including NWFP and artisanal minerals, mapping regional underground and surface shared water resources and dryland agriculture, research and training.

3.5.3.7 IGAD Regional Water Resources Policy

Endorsed in Addis Ababa on January 21, 2015, Policy seeks to address common challenges and opportunities in the region to sustainably manage the water resources in support of socio-economic development, peace building, and regional integration. Undoubtedly, the policy is key to promotion of food crops and livestock production in the face of extremely dire projections for a region that is so dependent on rain-fed agriculture. It is projected that by 2025, 21 % of the IGAD population will be in water stressed and 62 %
in water scarcity conditions. According to the Falkenmark Water Stress Indicator, a country or a region is said to experience ‘water stress’ when annual water supplies drop below 1,700 m$^3$/yr. This means almost all parts of the HoA region can generally be termed as a water stressed region or facing water insecurity.

3.5.4 Transposition Status of IGAD Regional Level Livestock Policies in the IGAD Member States

3.5.4.1 Transposition of the Regional Policy Framework on Animal Health in the context of trade and vulnerability

Little progress has been made on domestication of Articles 1, 3 and 4 which empower the Members States to develop regional emergency and contingency plans for livestock diseases; regional capacity building for provision of livestock services, and promotion of intra-regional trade in livestock and livestock related products, inputs and services respectively. However, significant progress has been made in pursing the objectives of Articles 2 and 5. IGAD has now obtained observer status at OIE, Codex Alimentarius, IPPC and WTO and has established an institution the IGAD Centre for Pastoral Areas and Livestock Development (ICPALD) dedicated to livestock issues in the region.

3.5.4.2 Transposition of the IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI)

The IGAD Member States are at various stages of developing Country Programme Papers through consultative mechanisms with stakeholders; establishing national coordination mechanisms; development of the medium term plans and resource mobilization strategies; development of the common programming frameworks. They have developed proposals all of which are in different stages for funding.

3.5.5 Overview of IGAD MSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations

The IGAD member states livestock policy landscape reveals a diverse range of positions. Countries such as Djibouti, Ethiopia and Eritrea have developed and utilize national level livestock development policies and strategies. While these countries also have elaborate animal health/veterinary legislations although some date many years back, they have hardly developed animal health/veterinary policies and strategies. On the converse, previously unstable countries such as South Sudan and the breakaway Somalia republics are struggling to develop or improve specific livestock development and animal health/veterinary policies and strategies.

3.5.6 Livestock Policy Directions in IGAD

It is well known that livestock greatly contributes to the livelihoods of the majority of the resource-poor populations in the IGAD, especially those in the Arid and Semi-Arid areas. It is therefore imperative that that these development initiatives in the regions should be inclusive and address livestock issues. Agricultural and livestock related policies should therefore endeavour to support the building on the skills and resources of the livestock keepers in order contribute to accelerated poverty reduction and faster economic growth. The agricultural and livestock sectors should ensure that policies, programmes and projects allow women and men to take full advantages of the many livestock services provided by livestock and to contribute to economic development, requires three major changes. Top most to be addressed should be in the area of production and market access, adhering to OIE standards, for promotion on internal and external trade. The policy development should embrace inclusiveness in the participatory process of policy development, and with sufficient coordination by ICPALD working together with its partners such as AU-IBAR and in conjunction with other EAC and COMESA under the tripartite agreement.

3.5.6.1 Poverty reduction / Wealth creation

The national Strategic Development Plans, Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers, the Livestock Sector
Strategies, Marketing and Agro-Processing Polices in most IGAD countries tend to focus on poverty reduction. These livestock related policies however, need to be mainstreamed in the CAADP Pillars. To this end, it is important that for meaningful contribution to poverty reduction and wealth creation, the IGAD Members States should endeavour to use the AU-IBAR Framework for Mainstreaming Livestock in the CAADP Pillars. This Framework openly appreciates the many contributions of livestock to people’s livelihoods and acknowledges that livestock sector interventions, in many instances, can lead to poverty reduction and wealth creation.

3.5.6.2 Food and nutrition security

Nearly all CAADP compacts in the IGAD countries are strong on securing food and nutrition security. They propose to achieve this by promoting the production of different crop commodities. In most instances, however, livestock is considered as one commodity and this disadvantages investment in the sector. There is therefore a need to consider livestock products as commodities, separate from livestock, in order to receive adequate attention for the investment and promotion of their production to enhance food security.

3.5.6.3 Public sector role

Following the collapse of Strategic Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) many governments in the IGAD region are resorting to controlling extension services, investments in infrastructure, research funding, and management of resources in the agricultural sector. In all these fields, interventions are funded by the state budgets which in most cases inadequate. While the SAPs brought reduced growth in the agricultural and especially in the livestock sector, there is need for exploration of other alternative policies that would provide a paradigm shift in the production and management of livestock resources. In all this, the government’s roles should be more of supervisory oversight in tandem with current global trends.

3.5.6.4 Public Private Partnerships

While livestock is known to significantly contribute to the regional agricultural GDP, there is hardly major investment in the sector by the private sector apart from dairy, pig and poultry production in the East African countries that are members of the IGAD. Livestock production, processing and marketing in most IGAD countries is constrained by inappropriate funding mechanisms and inadequate financing. According to the available data, public sector investment in livestock sector does not reflect the sector’s contribution to GDP. Also, private commercial investments in the livestock sector are low compared to other sectors in the economy. Where credit is available, it is on short-term basis with high interest rate. The challenge is to avail public finance and long term affordable credit to the livestock sector that will increase accessibility to financial resources for investment in the livestock sector. There is need for governments in the region to therefore support policy frameworks and environments that would be attractive to private sector to invest in all livestock sectors.

3.5.6.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation

The GDP of most IGAD countries is agriculturally based. This means that both crop and livestock production requires enhanced investment in order to create wealth and reduce poverty. In this regard, policies that would promote resource-poor farmers, residing outside the arid and semi-arid areas, to invest equally in livestock and crops would significantly contribute to wealth creation. In any case, crop production in these production systems are intertwined with livestock production. It is also known that investment in livestock gives greater returns to farmers if the rural financial systems are strengthened so that future funding is available on a continuous basis for adequate herd management. It is therefore imperative that governments ought to identify gaps in policies in their financial statements in State owned banks to
support livestock production.

### 3.5.6.6 Equity
Current policies in the agricultural and livestock sector should consider human capital as equity in acquisition of financial resources. In order to promote gender inclusiveness, the policies should perhaps consider affirmative action for the marginalized genders to attract higher equity when investing in livestock. Such human capital should therefore play a much bigger role when borrowing for projects on livestock development.

### 3.5.6.7 Climate change and Resilience
The current IDDRSI Strategy with its seven priority intervention (PI) areas for investment is the right direction to address climate change and resilience. IGAD Member States, currently at various stages of the IDDRSI, should be encouraged to fast-track the process in order to access funding to address climate change and resilience.

### 3.5.7 Policy Divergences and Gaps in IGAD
There are several policy divergences and gaps in many IGAD Member States. Top most among these is the lack for cross-border harmonization as predominant livestock keepers in the region in are extremely mobile. One of the reasons as to why there are policy divergences among and between the member States is related to the outdated nature of the policies in some countries which still rely on colonial policies, lack of adequate funding in the livestock sector; and varied or non-existence of involvement of the non-state actors in the policy formulation and the embracing private and public sector partnerships (PPP). There is therefore a need for a deliberate effort to harmonize the various national policies under regional frameworks in order to reduce divergences.

### 3.5.8 Bridging the Policy Gaps
In order to bridge the policy gaps in the region, there is a need to support the National Livestock Policy Hubs (NLPH) to work in tandem with each other and with overall coordination through the Regional Livestock Policy Hub (RLPH). To achieve this, there is need for political goodwill and appropriation of adequate funding to support the Policy Hubs. Such funding may be used to support policy reviews, involvement of non-state actors in the policy formulation, and embracing private and public sector partnerships (PPP). With the establishment of ICPALD as the institution mandated to “promote and facilitate sustainable and equitable drylands and livestock development in the IGAD region” the coordination of this process will be well managed.

### 3.6 SADC
#### 3.6.1 Establishment of SADC
The Southern African Development Community (SADC) is an inter-governmental organization whose headquarters is based in Gaborone, Botswana. Its goal is to further socio-economic cooperation and integration as well as political and security cooperation among 15 southern African states. Currently SADC, like other RECs complements the role of the African Union.

The SADC 15 member states include: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.
The origins of SADC date back to the 1960s and 1970s, when the leaders of majority-ruled countries and national liberation movements coordinated their political, diplomatic and military struggles to bring an end to colonial and white-minority rule in southern Africa. The immediate forerunner of the political and security cooperation wing of today’s SADC was the informal Frontline States (FLS) grouping which was formed in 1980.

The Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) was the forerunner of the socio-economic cooperation wing of today’s SADC. The adoption by nine majority-ruled southern African countries of the Lusaka Declaration on 1 April 1980 paved the way for the formal establishment of SADCC in April 1980. Subsequently, SADCC was transformed into SADC on 17 August 1992, with the adoption by the founding members of SADCC and newly independent Namibia of the Windhoek Declaration and treaty establishing SADC.

### 3.6.2 SADC Level Livestock Policies and Legislations

#### 3.6.2.1 SADC Regional Agricultural Policy (2013)

The purpose of the SADC Regional Agricultural Policy (SADC-RAP) is to define common agreed objectives and measures to guide, promote and support actions at regional and national levels in the agricultural sector of the SADC Member States in contribution to regional integration and the attainment of the SADC Common Agenda (SADC, 2013).

Agriculture remains central to poverty reduction, growth, food and nutrition security in the Region. It provides a livelihood including subsistence, employment, income and wealth creation for nearly 61% of the Region’s 277 million people (2010). Furthermore, it contributes 8% of the SADC region’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which rises above 28% when all middle income countries are excluded.

Malnutrition and food insecure population remains high with child underweight above 26% in nearly all countries in the region. Challenges remain as:

- Low labour productivity in agriculture which is 30 times lower than in developed countries though labour productivity in commercial agriculture is comparable to international standards;
- Low land productivity which has grown by a mere 1% per annum from the 1990s;
- Low cereal yields which have remained between 1.5 and 1.7 mt/ha on average since 2000. This is below the Africa average of 2 mt/ha and 8 mt/ha for developed countries;
- Whilst intra-regional agricultural trade has performed better than other sectors, overall intra-regional trade remains, at 10% of total trade, compared to 30% in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) region.

**Goal**

The goal of the Policy is to contribute towards the attainment of the SADC Common Agenda which promotes sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development.

**Objectives**

The overall objective of the Policy is to contribute to sustainable agricultural growth and socio-economic development.

The Policy specific objectives are to:

- Enhance sustainable agricultural production, productivity and competitiveness;
• Improve regional and international trade and access to markets of agricultural products;
• Improve private and public sector engagement and investment in the agricultural value-chains; and
• Reduce social and economic vulnerability of the region’s population in the context of food and nutrition security and the changing economic and climatic environment.

Policy Statement: SADC shall complement national interventions by promoting and supporting measures to improve farmer access to improved plant and animal genetic material and the adoption of biotechnology in crop and livestock development

Few farmers are able to access improved and adequate levels of supply of technologically improved plant and animal genetic material. This situation seriously impedes agricultural production and productivity. On the other hand, the loss of indigenous plant and animal genetic material that is well adapted to regional conditions, including tolerance to climatic stresses, has aggravated the situation. Coupled with suboptimal production practices such as inadequate and inappropriate husbandry, nutrition and rangeland management, agricultural productivity in the region has deteriorated.

Worldwide modern biotechnology including genetic modification technology has been in use for more than two decades. However debate about the food safety, environmental safety and socio-economic impacts of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) is still vigorous. Whilst biotechnology can contribute to solving agricultural productivity and environmental degradation challenges, the lack of capacity to regulate GMOs is a potential deterrent to embracing and adequately harnessing its potential.

Therefore, the proposed interventions will include:
• Facilitating private/public sector initiatives that promote economies of scale in production and distribution of improved seeds, as well as other plant and animal genetic materials;
• Promoting forage research and the establishment of viable forage seed industry;
• Promoting regional value-chain partnerships in stock-feed production;
• Facilitating agreement on a harmonized approach to the safe use of modern biotechnology and clarifying how to deal with GMOs;
• Promoting national capacity and regional collaboration for research in biotechnology and biosafety; and
• Facilitating the implementation of the SADC Harmonized Seed Regulatory System.

Policy Statement: SADC shall complement national interventions by promoting and supporting measures for conservation and sustainable use of plant and animal genetic resources for food and agriculture

Plant and animal genetic resources are crucial for sustainable production, providing the biological basis for food security and supporting economic livelihoods of people. They are the breeders’ most important raw material and the farmers’ most essential input for improving the quality and quantity of farm produce. Indigenous knowledge and practices form the basis for ensuring food security, and they often play important roles in the conservation of local agricultural biodiversity.

The SADC region is endowed with a wealth of plant and animal genetic resources and indigenous innovations with the potential to contribute significantly to economic growth and people’s wellbeing. However, these genetic resources are rapidly being lost thereby threatening the well-being of the population by affecting ecological processes that provide the ingredients for food, medicine, shelter and livelihoods. The Region
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

has made efforts to conserve plant and animal genetic resources for food and agriculture.

Therefore, the proposed interventions will include:

- Promoting ex-situ and in-situ/on-farm conservation of genetic resources for food and agriculture;
- Strengthening national and regional capacity to conserve genetic resources;
- Promoting the development of crop varieties and animal breeds that are adaptable to climate change and variability;
- Promoting the access and benefit sharing of plant and animal genetic resources for food and agriculture; and
- Promoting collection and dissemination of information on genetic resources to enhance utilization of conserved material.

**Policy Statement:** SADC shall complement and support national interventions to improve the management of trans-boundary threats including pests and diseases

The prevalence of migratory pests including quelea birds, locusts and armyworm, results in significant crop losses every year. The control of migratory pests including cross border movement through trade are of particular regional relevance. Similarly, the surveillance and control of trans-boundary animal diseases (TAD) such as Contagious Bovine Pleuropneumonia (CBPP), foot-and-mouth disease (FMD) as a result of wildlife-livestock interaction, Peste des Petits Ruminants (PPR) and African Swine Fever (ASF) and other trans-boundary threats such as fires and theft is critical to livestock production.

Therefore, the proposed interventions will include:

- Harmonizing Sanitary and Phytosanitary regulations in Member States in line with the Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) Annex of the SADC Protocol on Trade;
- Harmonizing national veterinary service systems to international standards;
- Harmonizing national and regional early warning and response systems for Transboundary Animal Diseases (TADs), zoonoses and crop pests;
- Strengthening surveillance and control of major crop pests and diseases in the region;
- Building Member States’ national capacities to manage transboundary pests and diseases of crops and comply with International Plant Protection Convention (IPPC) standards; and
- Informing and promoting coordinated action to address cross-border theft, in particular for livestock.

**Policy Statement:** SADC shall complement and support Member States’ measures designed to promote agricultural research and development in crops, livestock, fisheries and forestry

The low uptake of known improved technologies by farmers is partly the cause for low productivity and therefore higher incidence of rural poverty and food insecurity in the region. Improvements in technology not only lead to gains in productivity but also assist in addressing emerging challenges such as climate change. The uptake and enhanced utilisation of improved farming technologies including breeding materials and other yield-enhancing inputs can only be achieved with improved market environment and increased access to credit, financial and institutional support at affordable and sustainable levels that improve returns on farming investments. This is also addressed under the specific objectives on trade, and finance and investment respectively.

Therefore, the proposed interventions will include:

- Providing policy guidance for the region’s agricultural R&D;
- Promoting innovation for strategic and demand-driven R&D;
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

African Union - Inter-African Bureau for Animal Resources

• Promoting private, public and international partnerships in R&D;
• Harmonizing policy frameworks on protection of intellectual and property rights including indigenous knowledge systems; and
• Informing strategies and instruments to effectively promote increased adoption rates of appropriate technologies by farmers, such as through research, capacity building and exchanges and dissemination of experiences.

3.6.3 Transposition Status of SADC Regional Level Livestock Policies

The main SADC regional policy document is the RAP. Member States acknowledge the key success factors in the implementation of RAP as: a. Recognition of the high potential of SADC to be a leading agricultural producer and commitment to unleashing this potential; b. Member States agree to focus on a few actions with the most rapid impact on agricultural growth and within those specific objectives, focus on a few selected strategic interventions and commodities at a time; c. Strong political will and commitment to the Policy by all Member States and key stakeholders through its alignment with and domestication into national policies, strategies and programmes; d. Establishment of an Agricultural Development Fund (ADF) to provide funding under the Policy’s Regional Agricultural Investment Plan (RAIP) that corresponds to interventions under Member States’ own CAADP National Agricultural Investment Plans (NAIPs); e. Establishment of a strong monitoring and evaluation system involving both, SADC Secretariat, Member States and key stakeholders; f. Creation, partly through adaptation of existing arrangements, of a mechanism for full engagement of private sector organisations, e.g. through public, private partnerships (PPP), in the implementation of accelerated agricultural development programmes promoted under the Policy; g. Confidence built among financial partners regarding the effectiveness of the policy agenda and its governance; h. Progressive elimination of barriers to trade and investment in compliance with the SADC Trade Protocol and Annexes. i. Establishment of the requisite infrastructure to support agricultural development; and j. Actual mainstreaming of Gender, youth, HIV/AIDS, environment including climate change and variability and other cross cutting issues into the Policy interventions at both regional and national levels.

This Policy is implemented in cycles reviewable every 5 years in line with the principles of responsiveness to change and progressivity and as capacity and systems are further developed and strengthened.

The respective Policy-related national plans/programmes are encapsulated into National Agricultural Investment Plans (NAIP) that provide the basis for formal agreements between SADC and individual Member States for the disbursement of resources under the RAP.

The levels of funding and types of resources are defined in the Regional Agricultural Investment Plan (RAIP). The RAIP and NAIPs are mutually aligned. The cost of Policy programmes are outlined in the RAIP, and the cost of Policy administration is funded under an Agricultural Development Fund (ADF).

The process of Monitoring and Evaluating the Policy is based on Results Based Management (RBM) a principle that focuses on the achievement of results that contribute effectively towards achieving goals or outcomes; improving institutional and stakeholders’ knowledge on the Policy and its impacts; improving decision making; and promoting an accountability culture towards results. Policy monitoring and evaluation systems will also be critical. Monitoring and evaluation of the Policy is therefore based on manageable processes, measurable and verifiable indicators and conform to basic rules of simplicity, timeliness and cost effectiveness and is aligned with the CAADP and national M&E systems.
3.6.4 **Overview of SADC MSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations**
The SADC livestock policy landscape shows major variations among member states. A key feature is that only a handful of countries have developed livestock development policies and strategies. It is however noteworthy that there are several on-going initiatives to address this aspect among the member states. At the same, many of the member states are yet to develop animal health/veterinary policies and/or strategies. Nonetheless, all the member states have elaborate animal health/veterinary legislations despite the fact that a number of them are outdated and need revision.

3.6.5 **Policy Directions**
The agriculture and livestock policies in all SADC MSs embrace the following directions in one way or the other: Poverty reduction / Wealth creation, Food and nutrition security, Public sector role, Public Private Partnerships, Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation, Equity and Climate change and Resilience.

3.6.5.1 **Poverty reduction / Wealth creation**
Agricultural growth through the livestock sector is more effective in alleviating rural poverty and even more effective than industrial growth in reducing urban poverty. The importance and contribution of livestock to rural livelihoods is very diverse across the MSs. Livestock raising involves several roles and functions culminating the practice, being a source of food, income labour and productive inputs of the system and way of life.

A combination of small scale cropping of stable and some commercial crops, livestock rearing makes the basis of livelihoods of the majority of the rural population in most MSs. Linked to this is the traditional belief that livestock is mostly considered as the safety net of the poor and the bridge to exiting from poverty trap.

3.6.5.2 **Food and nutrition security**
Food security has become a dominant aim of agricultural policy in most countries of the world. Using the late 1970s definition of food security which emphasized a nation’s aggregate food production but since then they have stressed the ability of poor households to gain access to food in the necessary amounts. In lower-income countries, the context are one in which, for many families, food expenditures occupy the lion’s share of the take home income.

The nutrition levels are not a concern about total national food self-sufficiency, but rather the food security of poor families. It is therefore important to note that to achieve improved levels of nutrition in the rural households, cropping patterns should be allowed to follow comparative advantage, and the public sector should refrain from giving artificial incentives to farmers to grow basic foods. The surest way of to enhance family food security is through generating increases in their incomes.

Livestock is an important contributor to food and nutrition security in many MSs in form of meat, milk and eggs. The economic role of livestock sector and its contribution to food and nutrition security of the populations are well recognized in the policies and development strategies of countries on the continent.

A further food security issue is the need for management of food loss and waste. The food produced from both livestock and crop resources must be managed from storage losses and unwarranted wastage. This is the surest way of food security safety.
3.6.5.3 Public sector role
Many governments are still in control of public good services which among others include extension services, investments, research funding, urban biased policies, subsidies and water resources management in the agricultural sector. In all these fields, interventions are funded by the state budgets which in most cases are dwindling and are unsustainable. The donor contribution has also plunged to its lowest ebb, fatigue.

Governments have now realized that policies of political appeasement will not take their counties anywhere, hence the scaling down in their involvement. In some agricultural strategies the vision for the future is quantified, in terms of numbers of livestock kept, cultivated areas, irrigated fields and pastures and the list goes on. The bottom line whether or not numerical projections are made, the vision should define the anticipated directions of change in the future. One of the best guides to the directions of change is the sector’s comparative advantage, meaning that, the lines of production in which it can most effectively compete on world markets in the long run. This is a wakeup call of change.

3.6.5.4 Public Private Partnerships
The public-private partnership (PPP) is the direction to go in this era. There are a lot of synergies arising from several types of linkages and arrangements involving the public and private sectors working together. The boundaries and limits based on subsidiarity are very well defined to both parties. Agricultural goods and services in our MSs are bound to thrive positively once this direction is adopted by multiple players.

3.6.5.5 Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation
Investment in livestock gives greater returns to farmers if the rural financial systems are strengthened so that future funding is available on a continuous basis for adequate herd management. It is on record that generally, the past performances of State or donor-sponsored rural finance operations have fallen substantially short of expectations. These supported institutions have never developed into self-sustained rural finance institutions. State-owned banks that masked their administrative shortcomings with repeated infusion of capital from government coffers have found out that they can no longer count on funds from the national treasury indefinitely. The resultant effect has been folding of these banks leaving farmers stranded. On the other hand, rural credit organisations that depended on the donor funding have invariably folded after their programmes come to their end. Therefore, investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation requires approaches that are sustainable as well as ensuring that sufficient volumes of credit are available.

3.6.5.6 Equity
Investment capital takes the form of equity and debt. In agriculture human capital can be converted into physical capital by on-farm efforts, as in constructing a plunge dipping tank and making paddock fences by hand. However, many forms of productive capital cannot be created in an artisanal way, and rural families in our MSs typically do not have much financial equity (savings deposits) that can be put into major investments, although they have the capacity to save. It is evident that in all sectors in almost all economies, including more industrial countries, equity capital plays a much less important role than borrowing in the financing of investments. Institutions and mechanisms for mobilising for financial savings are also essential in the financing of agriculture and rural development. They contribute to the sustainability of rural financial intermediation and provide the needed financial services to the rural population.
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

3.6.5.7 Climate change and Resilience
Smallholder agriculture [livestock and or cropping] practiced on over 70% of farming land and rangelands in Southern Africa, is an indispensable livelihood source for about 70% of the region’s population. The sector provides incomes, employment and nutrition to 277 million people, reducing their vulnerability to climate change among other multiple stressors. However, the sector also contributes extensively to climate change through the release of emissions into the atmosphere across its value chains. If Southern Africa is to participate effectively towards climate change mitigation and get maximum benefit from it, the smallholder farming sector has to play a clear, yet important role in reducing its emissions across its main value chains. Many natural resources and infrastructures are under threats of climatic risks in the region.

This participation depends on plausible emission reduction pathways that can be adopted by smallholder farmers without compromising on their access to productive resources including land, incomes, food security and nutrition among others. Developing these scenarios will assist in building specific flexible emission reduction plans, actions and strategies including nationally/regionally appropriate mitigation actions and or nationally determined contributions, policy reforms, among others. These interventions should be molded in a way that each individual smallholder farmer can implement whilst improving his/her livelihood, with governments and the region at large attracting multilateral and bilateral financing from international players, and or allowing participation in global market based platforms.

3.6.6 Divergences and Gaps
Many divergences and gaps have been identified in the regional legislation and development plans. These broadly include the following:

i. Appropriation of adequate funding to the livestock sector is dismal due to lack appropriate resource mobilization policies. The Maputo declaration will take long to fulfill.

ii. Policies in most MS are linked to the colonial past where some influence is still traceable e.g. the Commonwealth countries (former British colonies, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, & Zimbabwe); Portuguese former colonies (Angola & Mozambique) South Africa and Namibia.

iii. Varied or non-existence of involvement of the non-state actors in the policy formulation and the embracing the private and private public sector partnerships (PPP). There is always this fear of the unknown by most governments of the day.

iv. The natural resources policies are managed in a silo fashion for the fear of loss of individual powers and influence (wildlife, rangelands, water, forestry, fisheries, apiaries, animal health animal production and land use etc...).

v. Climate change is a new phenomenon to the continent hence the policies to mitigate the associated changes are at different levels of development.

vi. Inadequate political will support from the legislators. Enforcement and implementation of certain legislation actors are not well defined, eventually the bug stops on the police who in most instances are not part of the legislation process. Coordinating policy actions between different state and non-state actors is very difficult to achieve.

vii. Political interference and meddling in Agricultural policies where they little knowledge of the subject matter at hand (appointments if ministers with little knowledge).

viii. Livestock census is mostly extrapolated from the past after taking into account the happenings of the previous year or years. For the livestock sector to have a formidable data bank, a leaf should be borrowed from colleagues dealing with demographic studies.
3.6.7 Bridging the Policy Gaps in SADC

Bridging Policy Gaps is a daunting and mammoth task and requires total commitment of each MS. A stepwise approach would be the partial solution. This approach involves confronting the following issues through concerted efforts along suggested lines.

a. **Appropriation of adequate funding to the livestock sector:**
   - Policy Decision Makers need to be made aware of the contribution of the livestock to their economies through conducting Cost-benefit studies/analysis on livestock development.
   - Promote polices on investment in livestock and promote livestock as a business.
   - Creation of stand-alone livestock lending institution.

b. **Policies are outdated need review:**
   - Review and update the legislations and repeal the obsolete ones altogether.
   - Development of legislation and regulations to support policy implementation.
   - Create a cadre of policy formulators and analysts through capacity building.
   - Involve non-state actors and stakeholders in the formulation process.

c. **Involvement of non-state actors in policy formulation and embracing the private and private public sector partnerships (PPP):**
   - Create an all-inclusive platform for the livestock related key players for proper advocacy and which should not to be in conflict with the policies of the government of the day.
   - Promote the delivery of livestock services through the public/private partnership arrangement.

d. **The natural resources policies management:**
   - Policies should be broadened not only to cover the conventional livestock domain but others as well (wildlife, rangelands, water, forestry, fisheries, apiaries, animal health, animal production, and land use).
   - Creation of a networking arrangement among policy analysts and formulators across the board is important.

e. **Political interference and meddling in Agricultural policies:**
   - Training of the political leadership on basic policies is essential.
   - Understanding of the three arms of government functions by the political leadership is important.

3.7 UMA/Egypt

3.7.1 Establishment of UMA

UMA region started in 1980 and the founding members were Algeria, Morocco, Libya, Mauritania, and Tunisia. The major objectives were coordination, harmonization of development plans of the member countries, as well as inter-regional trade and relations with the EU. Since 1990, the countries had signed more than 30 multilateral agreements covering diverse economic, social, and cultural areas. Only 5 from these agreements were on trade, and tariffs, covering all industrial products including agriculture and trade products, investment guarantees, avoidance of double taxation and phyto-sanitary.

3.7.2 Key Articles of UMA/Egypt relating to Livestock

Currently, there are no UMA/Egypt regional level policies on livestock. Though there exists a veterinary committee for the region, it works under Director of food safety but its role is mainly to discuss common issues related to animal health. There are no policy frameworks to support the implementation of the outcomes of the committee.
North Africa has large areas of desert and a diversity of highly fragile environments. The challenges facing agriculture in North Africa include lack of renewable water resources, highly variable rainfall, biotic and abiotic stresses, poor soil fertility, and overgrazing of pastures and rangelands. Additional problems include climate change, high prices of food and feed, and falling public expenditure on agricultural research. Insufficient recruitment of young researchers also hampers efforts to rejuvenate research institutions throughout the region.

3.7.3 Overview of the Livestock Sub-sector in UMA
Livestock in the (UMA/Egypt) countries constitute a vital resource for poor rural populations and local economies. Livestock and livestock products provide these people with an important source of income. In North Africa, livestock contributes on average about 40 to 80% of the Agricultural GDP. However, despite the importance of the sector, on-farm productivity remains low and cross-border trade between the countries of the region quite limited.

Several socio-economic, administrative or technical constraints are impeding the development and full performance of livestock sector in the sub-region. Trans-boundary animal diseases are identified as one of the major constraints to the economic development of the sector. They, along with zoonosis (diseases common to animals and humans), constitute a threat to countries of the sub-region as well as to the entire region of the Mediterranean.

Livestock production systems in the region are characterized by extensive management, in some cases by nomadic or transhumance systems, which exacerbate the spread of these diseases. Disease spread also stems from uncontrolled movements of cattle due to trade, in particular imports from infected countries. All trans-boundary diseases are economically important both for Maghreb and most of the Mediterranean countries with some of these diseases being a constant threat to the region.

3.7.4 Overview of UMA MSs National Level Livestock Policies and Legislations
Agriculture policy in the region focuses mainly on the strategies against poverty, animal health, rural development, food security, environment protection, resilience, food safety, livestock development and animal production policies.

All member states of UMA/Egypt have their own strategy on poverty. However, the role of livestock in these poverty alleviation Strategies remains unclear. In all the member states, livestock policy falls under agriculture policies with exception of Mauritania where a recent ministry of livestock was established and has developed its own policy. Without an elaborate policy and regulations on livestock, it is difficult to implement sectoral issues. One of the reasons for lack of livestock policies is the heavy dependence on oil by some member states resulting in the neglect of the agricultural sector. Besides, the countries are mainly desert and there is little land for pasture or grazing. This limits the role of the livestock sector in promoting rural development despite such a policy.

The poverty strategy in all member states focus on food security, economic growth, trade, environmental protection, resilience to shocks, self-sufficiency and finally poverty alleviation. However, the poverty strategies do not explicitly include the livestock sector.
All member states have animal health policies that cover a diverse range of issues including animal disease surveillance, control of TADs, safety of animal and animal products, hygiene of products of animal origin, animal health standards and quality. The policies rely on the state to control veterinary medicines. However, most of the policies are old dating back to 1964 and in some countries missed out veterinary drugs regulations. Nonetheless, there have been efforts to review and update these policies to match current global trends and demands.

The annual rate of population increase in the area range from 1% to 3% while in some places increased urbanization and demand for land for development has resulted in the reduction of the size of pasture land and grazing areas.

Trans-boundary diseases are identified as major constraints for the development of the livestock sector. Trans-boundary diseases are a major threat for the North Africa and the Mediterranean region (FAO). Ovine rinderpest or Peste des petits ruminants (PPR), is a viral disease of goats and sheep. The disease broke out in North Africa for the first time in Morocco in 2008.

The traditional livestock systems based on nomadism and transhumance in some countries of the region helped the quick spread of trans-boundary diseases like, PPR, FMD, Blue tongue and Newcastle. The rapid spread of these diseases has had negative effects on the livestock economy with reduced income for livestock producers especially the poor.

The following regional initiatives to control trans-boundary animal diseases are going on within the collaboration indicative between UMA, FAO and OIE. UMA has signed cooperation agreements with the two organizations to support national programmes in the five UMA countries to prevent and control trans-boundary animal diseases in the region through the following field projects:

- Support for the prevention and the control of pest des petits ruminants (PPR) in the Maghreb (TCP/RAB/3302)
- Capacity building of the Maghreb countries to eradicate the Rift Valley Fever (GCP/SNE/001/FRA)
- Control of Rift Valley Fever in Mauritania (OSRO/MAU/204/CHA)
- Strengthening prevention and control systems of trans-boundary animal diseases in the Maghreb and Egypt through the Mediterranean Animal Health Network (REMESA) (GCP/RAB/010/SPA) established by the Heads of Veterinary Services (CVO) of 10 Mediterranean countries: Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Mauritania and Tunisia from North Africa, Egypt from the Middle East, Spain, France, Italy and Portugal from Mediterranean Europe. Cyprus, Greece and Malta joined the network in 2013.

Based on the preliminary results of these initiatives, new collaborative programmes in animal health are being launched by FAO to support the veterinary services of the Libyan government through two new projects.

- Capacity building of Veterinary Services for the prevention and the eradication of transboundary animal diseases;
- Development and upgrading of veterinary laboratories.

3.7.5 Livestock Policy directions in UMA/Egypt

3.7.5.1 Resilience

Livestock responses to climate change include (i) adaptation, to reduce the vulnerability of people and ecosystems to climatic changes, and (ii) mitigation, to reduce the magnitude of climate change impact in
the long term. However, neither adaptation nor mitigation alone can offset all climate change impacts. To respond to this threat it will be necessary to focus both on mitigation to reduce the level of emission of gases contributing to global warming and adaptation to support local communities in dealing with the impact (IFAD, 2010).

Examples of adaptive coping strategies to climate change by North Africa and Near East livestock Producers (Sidahmed et al, 2007) include:

- Identification of most appropriate livestock species and breed for future climates, and breeding of higher heat tolerance into existing livestock species
- Making adjustments in livestock management practices such as livestock composition, grazing management, rangeland management, production strategies, etc
- Diversifying income and employment and withstand climate shocks and seasonal effects
- Strengthening or developing extension system that responds to the changes
- Improving forecasting mechanisms or early warning systems
- Institutional strengthening and improved decision-making capacities of the region
- Drought mitigation practices such as insurances for rain failure and price incentives

Some of the above adaptive strategies are detailed below:

**Rescuing endangered specialized breeds:**
In Tunisia a shift towards a thin-tailed sheep at the expense of fat-tailed Barbari sheep by crossing them with thin-tailed ones was noticed in recent years. Thin-tailed sheep are leaner than the fat-tailed sheep while the fat-tail is an adaptive attribute for dry environment where feed availability fluctuates seasonally. A joint ICARDA-NARS study (Bedhiaf-Romdhani et al., 2008) revealed that this was mainly dictated by butchers and not by consumers. The reason was the difficulty faced by butchers to sell the fat of the carcass, which is estimated to constitute 15% of the carcass. Consequently, the butchers were reluctant to buy fat-tailed animals. The study revealed that the consumers still prefer the meat of Barbari breed but farmers admitted that butcher’s preference influenced their income because they are paying favourably for thin-tailed sheep. Sensory tests revealed that the fat-tailed breed lambs are superior in tenderness, flavour and smell. ICARDA in collaboration with NARS in Tunisia could show this trend, which helps to undertake rescuing mission or policy by concerned parties. Among the breeds adapted to dry environments of North Africa, Sicilo-sarde sheep of Tunisia is the only specialized dairy sheep. This breed is being rescued by adding value to their products such as improving yoghurt and cheese quality, shelf life and marketability.

**Capacity development:**
For successful adaptation and mitigation of the effects of climate change, providing an appropriate institutional framework to enable people to adapt is a critical issue. Such institutions may include effective governance systems, civil and political rights, and literacy. Examples of some options to help build resilience include establishing institutes for national or regional livestock in-situ or ex-situ conservation, weather insurance, large-scale irrigation schemes, feed price subsidies, cash transfers, school feeding schemes, micro-financing and social welfare grants. Building of capacity of people on managing risks and mitigating the effects of climate change in the form of training, workshops, and informal meetings with local communities is an important step. Synthesizing indigenous or traditional copying strategies helps to enhance knowledge exchange among and within communities, policy makers, and regional governments.
Improving milk product processing:
In the face of global warming, improving quality, shelf life and marketability of dairy products is critical for farmers in the region. Extension workers in these countries were supported through workshops and training by the scientists (on milk hygiene, improved yoghurt processing and culture management) to adopt measures to improve the quality of their products and enable them to benefit from the widening but competitive market. For example, the use of industrial starters in making yoghurt improved firmness, which allowed farmers to transport without collapsing (ICARDA, Hilali 2005). Participatory approach helped farmers to improve their processing skills and marketing of dairy products. Such simple capacity building activities would improve competitiveness of smallholders in the market and help them to mitigate the effect of climate change through improved income and better shelf life of their products.

Research issues in relation to climate change for ICARDA and the Research institutions in the member countries include:
- Characterization (phenotypic and molecular genetic), improvement and conservation of adapted local sheep and goat breeds
- Setting up selection programs for specific adaptive and production traits
- Incentive schemes to communities for conserving the breeds
- Linking up disadvantaged breeds to markets, adding value to their products
- Improving sheep and goat health (e.g. focus on diseases that limit livestock trade, Trans-boundary and zoonotic diseases)
- Sustainable rangeland improvement and management
- Livestock marketing constraints and access, and policy research
- Water harvesting and distribution of water delivery points in rangelands
- Improving participation of livestock owners
- Revisiting the research on by-products, straw treatment, feed blocks, etc...
- Biotechnological interventions to developing drought-tolerant cereal and forage species and varieties
- Develop fodder banks (e.g. for cactus, and shrubs)

Analysis of the vulnerable sectors in the region and possible impacts of climate change has previously been conducted. The information was extracted from Implications for FAO RNEA Cairo 2008 Conference on the Impact of the Climate Change on Agriculture in the Near East. Following an assessment of the natural resources, the analysis provides projections of the expected change in agricultural production for 2070-2099 in comparison with the baseline years from 1961-1990. Significant decline (30 to 50%) is expected in all countries except Egypt where projected change is expected to be positive and in the range of 28%!!

Natural resources and infrastructure are under threat of climatic risks mainly in the region. Climate variations are increasing risks of land degradation, desertification in different places including in oasis, recurrent droughts, inundations, locust invasions are which have been major threats or causes of fear during the last 50 years. An increasing human and animal pressure on the already fragile natural environment exacerbated the desertification process mainly through:
- Mechanization of agriculture in fragile zones,
- Overgrazing of rangelands through an overstocking rates estimated 1.5 to 3 times higher than optimal.
- Salinization of arable lands by misuse of water and irrigation techniques when using brackish water.

3.7.5.2 Livelihood
Livestock are central to the livelihoods of the poor, playing a pivotal role in raising land productivity
and providing a steady stream of food and revenues for households (FAO 2009). Livestock contribute to the sustainable livelihoods and security of more than 600 million poor smallholders as Natural Capital (meat, milk, wool, hide, rangeland, and pasture); as Financial Capital (cash, saving, credit, insurance, gifts, remittance) and as Social Capital (traditions, wealth, prestige, identity, respect, friendship, marriage dowry, festivity) (Sidahmed and Rota 2010 http://www.ifad.org/lrkm/factsheet/LivestockPaper.pdf). Livestock offer poor households sources of high quality nutrition especially for the pregnant women and for improving the cognitive skills and mental growth of the children. In marginal rural areas, where poverty is rampant, livestock represents an important hinge for local cultural and socio-economic systems, and allows the effective use of otherwise unutilizable resources.

Exhaustive documented research has proven the role of livestock as employment provider, wealth storage, a form of insurance and a significant contributor to gender equality by generating opportunities for women. Livestock plays an important role in; recycling waste products and residues from cropping or agro-industries, improving the structure and fertility of soil and as an energy source for cooking, contributing to food security. The non-tradable roles played by livestock commonly vary between different parts of a country, and almost certainly among countries, and are also likely to change over time as economic conditions of livestock owners evolve. Data in the FAO RIGA database (FAO, 2009a), which compiles information from nationally representative household surveys from 14 countries, indicate that 60 percent of rural households keep livestock. A significant share of the livestock outputs of rural households is sold, making a sizeable contribution to household cash income. Data from the survey countries also show that livestock keeping is pervasive among all income brackets of rural households. In about one-third of the countries in the sample, poorer households are more likely to be engaged in livestock activities than are wealthier households.

3.7.5.3 Food security/ nutrition

Livestock is an important contributor to food security in the Near East and North Africa (NENA) Region countries (which include all of the seven countries targeted in this assessment). For example, investment in livestock production has contributed significantly to meeting the hunger component of MDG1 in Algeria by halving the proportion of their population experiencing chronic hunger (FAO Regional Conference for NENA, starting 24 February 2014). However, in spite of that the proportion of those below poverty line and those undernourished remain high at 43.7 million people in the whole NENA region as indicated by the low rate of annual per capita consumption statistics for the seven countries between 2002 and 2007, and in the modest growth rate of consumption of Animal Source Foods during the same period (Table 3a) which was about 50% lower than the increase in supply (Table 4). In general the increase of meat, milk and eggs consumption by 5% and 4% for meat and milk and eggs in the region are similar to consumption levels for developing countries as reported by FAO 2011.

The economic role of livestock sector and its contribution to food security of the populations are well recognized in the policies and development strategies of the seven countries.

The challenges to achieve food security in the NA region are caused by many factors. A major issue is water scarcity. For example most of the water scarce countries in the region use substantive amounts of fresh water in agriculture triggering FAO to launch in 2013, the Regional Initiative on Water Scarcity in the Near East and North Africa. According to FAO, in the previous 40 years, the per capita freshwater availability in the NENA countries has dropped down by two thirds. This fact imposes pressure on all of the countries to find alternative water sources for agriculture and livestock production.
A further food security issue is the need for management of food loss and waste. Food production from both livestock and crop resources is limited, mainly due to a scarce natural resource base. There are several countries among those studied in this assessment, e.g. Egypt, Libya that depend on food imports to meet the needs of the fast growing human population. Under such condition, it is strategically important to avoid food loss and waste. According to FAO (2014) food losses vary among commodities but reach an average that ranges from 30 to 40 percent. Of this loss and waste of animal source foods (ASFs) is significant and was recorded in the NENA region to be reaching 13.2 % for meat and 18 % for milk (Table 8) (Sidahmed in Kader (Ed) 2012).

3.7.5.4 Poverty alleviation
The livestock sector is broad and covers highly diverse agro-ecological, social and political dimensions across continents, regions and countries. About 900 million of the world’s 1.2 billion are extremely poor people who live in rural areas, most of them relying on agricultural activities for their food and income. The relevance and contribution of livestock to rural livelihoods changes according to the agro-ecological zones and availability and source of animal feed. Livestock keeping involves several roles within keepers’ households, being a source of food, income labour and productive inputs. Under extreme environmental conditions, such as those characterizing drylands or mountainous areas, mobile livestock production systems may be the only sustainable land use, as the human-livestock interaction has proved to be the only way to produce food while protecting the natural resource base. In less extreme ecological areas, livestock helps in diversifying the livelihood system, and in increasing the overall productivity and risk-bearing capacities of the farming system. In areas where crop production is feasible, mixed farming systems show a greater capacity to sustain local livelihoods while providing for effective resource management, flexibility and resilience

The livelihoods of the majority of the rural population in the seven UMA countries is based on small scale cropping of staple and some commercial crops, and on livestock rearing. In most countries, the poor have traditional and historic access to land and variation between poor and non-poor was non-significant. However, recent economic growth and wealth accumulation amongst few businesses or political groups is threatening a major part of the rural populations with landlessness and internal displacement. On the other hand, livestock is owned by significant numbers of the rural households. For example, in Sudan (the largest livestock producer in the region) cattle and sheep are owned by 20% and 22% of the rural households respectively. Goats had a wider ownership averaging 50%, a situation likely aligned with poverty and apparent by a higher percentage of the poor (44%) owning goats than that of the non-poor (31%) -IFAD COSOP 2013.

Livestock is mostly considered as the safety net of the poor and the bridge to exiting from poverty trap. However, this role is increasingly being subjected to uncertainties such as climate change, droughts, spread of diseases, unfavorable price policies and lack of legislations needed to assure food safety and hygiene (e.g. dominance of rudimentary and inhygienic slaughtering facilities). Other major constraints are inadequate technical knowledge and poor skills in production and marketing, making it difficult for herders to break out of the cycle of low productivity and poor incomes. Conflicts have high contribution, especially to herd depletion through rustling and mortality as a result of impaired mobility to grazing and watering points. Poor marketing infrastructure (access roads, information, secure gathering areas) has greatly jeopardized the livelihoods of the mobile and sedentary livestock producers.
3.7.5.5 Livestock Trade
There are more than 7 agreements between and among the UMA members states since 1994 concerning free trade on veterinary drugs, customs, tariffs and animal health cooperation but these have not been properly or wholly implemented.

Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia (Maghreb) form a homogeneous entity, in which livestock production plays a leading role and makes a major contribution to agricultural GDP. More than 43 million sheep and 5 million cattle are raised in this region, which also has an extensive modern poultry industry with an estimated annual production of nearly 600 million broiler chicks. These national livestock populations have naturally led to the development of the veterinary drug market, a market that was worth 91 million Euros in 2006 and is steadily growing. Given the size of this market, in terms of both local production and imports, the authorities in these three countries have rapidly introduced specific legislation and the market is now highly regulated. Thus, procedures now exist for the registration, distribution and control of these highly sensitive products.

While these procedures are globally very similar from one country to another, there are specific features of different production systems that define interventions.

Some specific features: The regulatory aspects are constantly evolving in response to technical and technological changes affecting livestock farming. Livestock production in the Maghreb is basically extensive for small ruminants, whilst dairy and meat cattle are found in the high plateau regions and around the large towns and cities in the north.

Large poultry units and modern hatcheries are also found in the north and around urban centres where poultry consumption is high. This activity can only grow, given the development of mass retailing and fast food chains. As a result, we expect to see greater use of medicinal products in this sector, which is already reflected in rising turnover in recent years.

The market for veterinary medicinal products is worth around 91 million euros (excluding the Premix market). Over the past 10 years, this market has grown steadily at an estimated 5% a year. This growth is driven by:

- Greater use of veterinary medicinal products, with increasing numbers of practitioners in rural areas.
- Major development of poultry production.
- Growing demand from dairy farmers for regular medical care.
- Tighter veterinary control for sheep production.

The products used are mainly for ruminants (43 million sheep, 10 million goats and more than 5 million cattle) and poultry (almost 600 million chickens).

3.7.5.6 Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)
Many governments are turning to the private sector to design, build, finance, and operate infrastructure facilities hitherto provided by the public sector including major drivers of livestock production and trade. PPPs offer policy makers an opportunity to improve the delivery of services and the management of facilities. The other benefit is that of mobilizing private capital: the estimated demand for investment in public services shows that government and even donor resources fall far short of the amount required. For this reason, access to private capital can speed up the delivery of public infrastructure. Governments
are also turning to partnerships with the private sector as a means to improving the procurement of public services. The PPP process usually requires information about the true long-term cost of service delivery, which generates a more realistic debate on project selection. By improving the identification of a project’s long-term risks and the allocation of those risks between the public and private sectors, the PPP process enables a more efficient use of resources.

The term public-private partnership (PPP) does not have a legal meaning and can be used to describe a wide variety of arrangements involving the public and private sectors working together in some way. Policy makers have invented an ingenious array of terms to summarize what they are trying to achieve. It is therefore necessary for them to be very clear about why they are looking to partner with the private sector, what forms of PPP they in have in mind, and how they should articulate this complex concept.

3.7.5.7 Types of Public-Private Partnerships
While PPPs come in a variety of forms, this guide focuses primarily on those that arrange for a private party to provide public infrastructure under a long-term contract with a public sector body. Under such an arrangement, the private sector party usually agrees to undertake the following:
- Design and build or upgrade the public sector infrastructure
- Assume substantial financial, technical, and operational risks
- Receive a financial return through payments over the life of the contract from users, from the public sector, or from a combination of the two
- Return the infrastructure to public sector ownership at the end of the contract (in some cases the private party may retain ownership of the asset)

3.7.6 Divergences and Gaps in UMA/Egypt Livestock policies
1. Lack of policy on equity
2. Inadequate policy on adjustment to climate change
3. Weak policy implementation
4. Inadequate policy on private/public sector partnerships
5. Poor regulation and legislation in support of policies
6. Public policies focus mainly on animal health excluding production and productivity, water, feed, land use
7. No policies on funds allocation and resource mobilization on livestock
8. Little political will to enforce policies
9. Lack of policy coordination between different actors.
10. Deficiencies in the information databases especially in Livestock.
11. No separate policy and legislation for veterinary products
12. No policies on management of natural resources (rangelands, forestry, fisheries).
13. Inadequate policies supporting smallholder producers

3.7.7 Bridging the Policy Gaps – Suggestions
To bridge the policy divergences and gaps the following options are suggested on the areas identified:

On policies on prioritization of disease surveillance and management
- Conduct socio-economic impact analysis of TADs at the national and regional level
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

On policies on value chains and value addition
• Initiate policies to support value addition and value chain development.

On policies application
• Undertake capacity building of human resources to promote participation in policy formulation.
• Involve stakeholders
• Develop legislation and regulations to support implementation
• Create policies on standards and specifications

On Public/Private partnerships
• Initiate the dialog between public and private stakeholder in policy formulation
• Enhancement of public/private partnership in the delivery of livestock services.
• Advocacy and information sharing on PPP
• Encourage empowerment of producers and farmers organization on sustainable use of livestock resources

On regulation and legislation in support of policies
• Review and update the legislations
• Development of legislation and regulations to support policy implementation

On public policies focus
• Policy review and reform to include non-animal health policies
• Creating policies on standards and standard specifications

On policies for funds allocation and resource mobilization for livestock
• Cost-benefit studies/analysis of interventions on livestock development
• Promote polices on investment in livestock

On political will to enforce policies
• Enhancing ranking livestock as high priority within the government agenda
• Encourage empowerment of producer and farmers organization and NSA to sustainable use of livestock resources

On policy coordination between different actors
• Initiate policies to create forum for interaction and coordination among line ministries and stakeholders
• Find an effective process for the coordination and cooperation.

On deficiencies in the information databases especially in Livestock
• Enhance the use of new technologies and e-platforms

On development of separate legislation for veterinary products
• Review and update the legislations in field of animal production
• Enhance policies on standards and specifications on veterinary products

On policies management of natural resources (rangelands, forestry, fisheries)
• Advocacy for policy reform to include policies on all natural resources
On policies supporting smallholder producers

- Enhance policies on small holders empowerment
- Enhance credit availability
4.0 Synthesis of Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa

4.1 Regional Level Livestock Policy Landscape
Many of the RECs have developed guiding agriculture sector wide policy frameworks and corresponding strategies or action plans. However, the same has not been extended to the livestock sub-sector. Consequently, few of the RECs have fully developed livestock policies and/or Strategies. This implies that many national livestock policies and strategies are not streamlined and require harmonization.

4.2 National level Livestock Development and Animal health/Veterinary Policies and Strategies
The livestock policy landscape at the national level shows a wide variation in view of policies and strategies. There are countries that have fully developed and functional livestock policies and strategies, there are those that are in the process of developing them and there are those that are yet to begin the process. This status hampers the process of harmonization at the regional level and requires significant attention.

4.3 Animal health/Veterinary Legislation
Many countries in the continent have elaborate animal health/veterinary legislations to the extent that it considered critical that some form of consolidation is conducted. It is also clear that the many pieces of animal health/veterinary legislation are either obsolete or require some form of review to be consistent with the current requirements.

4.4 Policy Directions
The predominant policy livestock directions include:
• Poverty reduction / Wealth creation
• Food and nutrition security
• Public sector role
• Public Private Partnerships
• Investment in livestock as a means to wealth creation
• Equity
• Climate change and Resilience

4.5 Bridging the Gaps in Livestock Policies and Legislation in Africa
To bridge the livestock policy gaps and divergences, it is critical that concerted efforts are made in developing the capacity of stakeholders in policy formulation and implementation. This include developing institutions such as Livestock Policy Hubs right from the national level, regional and continental levels as well as improving the technical capacity of key players.
5.0 Conclusions

The current rise in human population with attendant urbanisation, increasing consumers income and rising standard of living, cum changing consumers’ taste and preferences have spurred trade (domestic and international) in high-value livestock commodities in the last decade. Similarly, advances in production, transportation, information and communication technologies; and growth of integrated international supply chains have provided opportunities for African livestock producers to target particular market segments for their commodities.

Unfortunately however, and except for a few, many African countries have not been able to exploit the advantages inherent in these opportunities. Africa has therefore remained a net importer of livestock commodities mainly because its inability to increase production and productivity and ensure efficiency of stakeholders in the livestock industry.

A significant amount of literature exists on the reasons why Africa remains a net importer of livestock commodities, in spite of the market opportunities and abundant animal resources available on the continent. The reasons are many and complex but can be summarized to include the following:- low productivity of African livestock production systems; inability of smallholder producers to address a host of technical, physical and financial constraints that impinge on productivity; high incidence of trans-boundary animal diseases (TADs) and inability to effectively control/eradicate them; inability to fully meet international market standards, notably the sanitary and phyto-sanitary (SPS) requirements; lack of competitiveness of African livestock production systems due to high costs of production, limited value addition and stiff competition from imported livestock products.

Other identified constraints include high levels of domestic and export subsidies provided by developed countries to their domestic livestock producers who then dump products in African markets at low prices; elimination of tariff and quantitative restrictions under GATT and the opening up of African markets without reciprocal opening up of markets in developed countries; high marketing costs due to poor transport and market infrastructure, poor processing and storage facilities and inadequate market information; consumer tastes and preferences for imported meat and dairy products.

However, the most pressing constraint contributing to many African countries’ inability to exploit the opportunities presented by the growing demand for livestock and livestock products and one that is often overlooked is the dearth of appropriate policies, strategies and legislations. This review has shown that many countries in Africa have either downplayed the significance of the livestock sector in their policies and strategies or have completely omitted them with the resultant effect that the sector’s contribution to the economy has remained minimal or even declined. It is further disconcerting that the country phenomenon has also been reflected at the regional and continental levels where it has taken concerted efforts to effect corrective measures to shore up the livestock components in many regional and continental initiatives. While efforts have been made to develop and formulate new policies, it is clear that many countries suffer the burden of old and obsolete policies, strategies and legislations as revealed by this review. It is however reassuring to note that there has been a reawakening at the continental in view of livestock policy related initiatives that is expected to rekindle interest and consequently action in not only developing relevant livestock policies but also assuring effective implantation that positively impact livestock producers’ welfare and the African economies.
Livestock Policy Landscape in Africa: A Review

It is certain that African countries need to adhere to the Continental initiatives that provide the frameworks along which livestock country and regional level policies, strategies and legislations can be formulated or revised to change the fortunes of the Livestock in the continent.
6.0 Recommendations

In order to exploit the opportunities in the Livestock sector, appropriate policies, strategies and legislations are needed if smallholder livestock producers are to be connected to high value markets and remain globally competitive. Against this backdrop, the following recommendations are made to foster desired growth and development in this all important sector.

• Adoption of Stakeholder Driven Development (SDD) approaches in the formulation of livestock policies at the national, regional and continental level
• Evolvement of comprehensive infrastructural audit of livestock value chains from the community level through to the continental
• Identification of skill gaps in the livestock value chains across countries and regions
• Development and strengthening of specific policies in the areas of massive infrastructural provision; capacity building; innovative financing of livestock investment; public-private partnership in livestock investment and risk management (insurance); climate resilience in the livestock sector
• Development of stand-alone policy on adaptable research in all the facet of livestock production, processing and marketing,
• Development of sound monitoring and evaluation framework for policies, programmes and projects associated with investment in the livestock sub-sector for effective feedback.
• Promotion of value addition activities in the livestock industry through adequate infrastructural provision, capacity building and funding.
• Market development for composite livestock products and creation of platform for stakeholders to interact and share useful market information
7.0 Bibliography

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