

## Learning Review

### Conflict prevention strand of the Linking Preparedness Response and Resilience (LPRR)

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#### Executive Summary

The Linking Preparedness, Resilience and Response project (LPRR) was a consortium initiative, running from 2015 to 2018, funded by DFID through Disasters and Emergencies Preparedness Programme (DEPP). It was implemented by the START Network, under the management of Christian Aid. The project developed an 'Integrated Conflict Prevention and Resilience' (ICPR), methodology drawing on best practice of conflict sensitivity and resilience strengthening. The methodology was tested in ten communities across two contexts; Northern Kenya and North-West Pakistan.

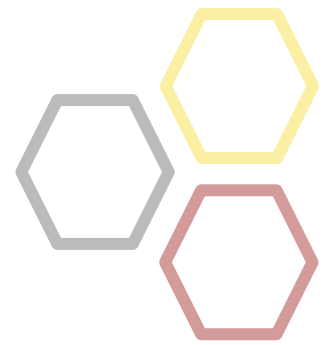
The aim of this paper is to describe the process of implementing these pilots and to gather learning about what worked well and what did not, in order to inform the design and implementation of future humanitarian and development initiatives in conflict-affected contexts.

Overall, the pilots contributed to a number of positive impacts, both at the community level and for the staff implementing the pilots. For example, it has contributed to:

- *Improved knowledge and understanding of core concepts and practice of conflict sensitivity for project implementers*
- *The integration of broader contextual perspectives into programming:* conflict analyses helped partners identify, and explicitly target groups that they had not previously engaged with, leading to more effective and comprehensive programming
- *Facilitating new relationships and cross-consortium learning*
- *Wider institutional buy-in by Christian Aid:* including a commitment to roll out the approach in other countries.

Not all aspects of the pilot resulted in a change in the operating practices that were hoped for. For example:

- *The methodology and approach could have been better tailored to different contexts*
- *It resulted in limited progress in promoting gender equality:* impressive rates of women's participation did not necessarily result in empowerment.
- *Accompaniment support could have been more clearly defined and resourced*
- *The timeframe was too short:* more time may have allowed teams to learn-by-doing and adapt accordingly.
- *Stronger local staff involvement at the design phase may have helped improve institutional buy-in from country programmes.*



The experience and learning generated by this pilot point to some general lessons of relevance to humanitarian and development practitioners engaged in resilience strengthening programmes in conflict affected contexts:

1. Adopting conflict-sensitive approaches *can* lead to more holistic and effective resilience programming. However, doing so requires more than conducting analysis; translating analysis into action requires particular skills and support. The ability and institutional willingness to adapt guidelines, toolkits and programming approaches in line with the findings of analysis is at the core of conflict sensitivity.
2. Adopting ‘good enough’ analysis and building on existing practices within organisations can be an effective way of encouraging buy-in and up-take of new practices. However, this approach cannot be assumed to be effective or sufficient in all contexts.
3. Encouraging women’s participation in programme activities is important, but not sufficient in supporting gender equality in highly patriarchal societies. Ultimately, it is the quality and consistency of participation that matters.
4. It takes time to build trust with communities to engage on sensitive topics. Staff being asked to adopt new practices also need to have sufficient time and support to allow them to become comfortable with a new language and concepts.
5. Consortium working can bring many benefits *if* sufficiently resourced and planned.

## Introduction

This paper draws on the experiences generated by a pilot project that tested an integrated conflict sensitivity and resilience strengthening methodology in 10 communities across two contexts; Northern Kenya and North-West Pakistan. The objective of this paper is to describe the process of implementing these pilots and to gather learning about what worked well and what did not, with the ultimate objective of informing the design and implementation of future humanitarian and development initiatives in conflict-affected contexts.

### The Linking Preparedness, Resilience and Response project

The Linking Preparedness, Resilience and Response project (LPRR) was a consortium run initiative funded by DFID through the Disasters and Emergencies Preparedness Programme (DEPP). The project, which ran from January 2015 until March 2018, was managed by the START Network. It brought together the experience of Christian Aid, Action Aid, Concern, Help Age, Muslim Aid, OXFAM, World Vision, Saferworld and King’s College London. All but two of the partners<sup>1</sup> have experience in implementing projects focused on strengthening community resilience to natural disasters. Each of these organisations had recognised the need for greater research and experience on how to build resilience in settings characterised by the dual-threats of conflict and natural disaster. LPRR sought to respond to this by adopting three work strands:

<sup>1</sup> Saferworld, a specialist peacebuilding organisation, and Kings College London, an academic institution.



- *The Humanitarian Strand:* This strand focused on capturing lessons about how humanitarian response activities have contributed to, or undermined longer-term resilience strengthening. It gathered learning from eight case studies and consolidated key lessons into a research report.<sup>2</sup>
- *The Conflict Prevention Strand:* This strand developed and tested a conflict-sensitive resilience strengthening methodology - the basis for this paper.
- *The Learning Strand:* Capturing and disseminating learning, with the help of an academic partner, was a critical component across all aspects of the project.

This paper draws upon knowledge and understanding gained through the implementation of the ‘Conflict Prevention Strand’ of the project. It seeks to capture and promote learning for the wider humanitarian and development community working in conflict-affected contexts.

### The ‘Conflict Prevention Strand’

The ‘Conflict Prevention Strand’ sought to integrate best practice and learning from the field of conflict sensitivity,<sup>3</sup> -drawing on the expertise of Saferworld, a leading conflict specialist organisation, and combine this with consortium member’s resilience approaches. This consolidated learning was used to develop a new, combined approach to building community resilience in situations at risk of both natural hazards and conflict-related insecurity. This new methodology became known as the ‘Integrated Conflict Prevention and Resilience’ (ICPR) Methodology.

#### Box 1: The Integrated Conflict Prevention and Resilience (ICPR) methodology and handbook

This ICPR methodology (captured in the ICPR handbook) sought to build on learning and best practice from eight international NGOs working on resilience strengthening, combined with conflict-sensitivity tools and knowledge. It consists of an integrated methodology that can be used to inform the design and implementation of resilience strengthening programmes in conflict-affected contexts.

The methodology is not intended to act as a stand-alone initiative. The handbook for example provides guidance on ways in which a range of pre-existing, and commonly applies resilience-strengthening methodologies can be adapted to make them more readily applicable in conflict-affected contexts. It seeks to supplement these ‘base methodologies’, by suggesting specific approaches, additional steps or specific issues that should be considered at key stages across a typical project cycle.

The ICPR handbook included guidance to be applied at the following stages of the project cycle:

- **Pre-inception:** guidance on the development of higher-level contextual analysis, including use of conflict analysis tools, and how these can inform strategic level decisions (such as site or partner selection).
- **Inception:** includes considerations that should be included during preparation and planning phases for local-level activities.
- **Local-level analysis:** a process for integrating conflict analysis into local level participatory vulnerability and capacity assessments.

<sup>2</sup> See Murphy, R. (2017) *Community Resilience Building in Humanitarian Response; Insights from Crises Survivors and First Responders*, START Network, Kings College London and Christian Aid.

<sup>3</sup> Defined by the Conflict Sensitivity Consortium as “the ability of an organisation to understand the context it operates in, understand the interaction between its intervention and that context, and act upon this understanding in order to minimise negative impacts and maximise positive impacts on conflict”. CSC (2012) *How to Guide to Conflict Sensitivity*.



- **Implementation:** guidance aimed at ensuring that action planning and implementation are conflict sensitive.
- **Advocacy and M&E:** guidance that seeks to support the integration of conflict sensitive approaches into advocacy and M&E activities (cross-cutting across the project cycle).

The ICPR handbook includes chapters introducing the core concepts addressed by the methodology (conflict, violence, resilience, conflict-sensitivity and inclusion). A complementary 'Field Guide', summarizing key components of the methodology was also produced and disseminated to field staff.

The full guide can be accessed at <https://www.christianaid.org.uk/resources/about-us/integrated-conflict-prevention-and-resilience-handbook>

Over the course of the project, the ICPR methodology was piloted in five communities in Nowshera District, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province (KPK) of Pakistan (led by World Vision Pakistan working with RAHBAR); and in Marsabit County, Kenya (led by Christian Aid together with PACIDA and World Vision Kenya). The focus countries were selected based on their risk profile (both recurrence of natural hazards and significant conflict risks) and the presence of multiple consortium agencies with programmatic presence in country. Site selection was based on the existence of longstanding civil unrest and ethnic conflict; and the lead agency's history of operating within the area. This accessibility to project locations was also essential to ensure a learning-focused approach to implementation.

The ICPR methodology was developed by Saferworld, working in close collaboration with representatives from each of the consortium members in London, and with inputs from field-based staff in Pakistan and Kenya. The process for implementing the methodology was captured in the ICPR Handbook, and training materials developed for roll out in Kenya and Pakistan. The trainings were co-facilitated by a team of Saferworld and Christian Aid staff members in the summer of 2015.

The pilots then moved to field implementation at village level. This ran until January 2017 in Pakistan and January 2018 in Kenya. The steps taken to field test the methodology were: macro-conflict analysis (at Marsabit County and KPK Provincial level), Knowledge Attitude and Behaviour (KAP) survey, local conflict analysis (at village level), PVCA/COVACA (Participatory Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment/ Community Owned Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment) and implementation of village action plans and final evaluations.

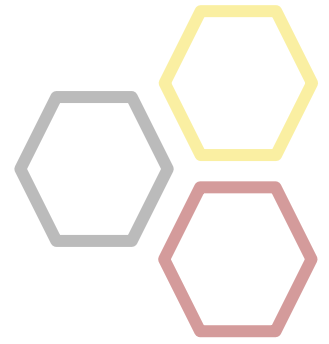
After hearing about the ICPR methodology, Christian Aid offices in Myanmar and Honduras also began implementing the approach. The ICPR methodology was translated into Spanish and training delivered to staff in Honduras in October 2016, as well as in Yangon in July 2016.

### Different places, very different outcomes

It is notable that despite similar levels of financial and human resources<sup>4</sup> to support the process of piloting the methodology in the two countries, the results differed greatly. In Kenya, this strand of the project could be considered broadly successful. There were significant levels of buy-in to the approach, with observable change in participant's understanding of core concepts around conflict. There is also evidence of changes in behaviour, resulting in more conflict-sensitive programming. Ultimately, there is some evidence to suggest that, at least in some instances, projects supported by the pilot resulted in stronger and more resilient communities, able to manage conflict-related stress factors more effectively.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>4</sup> Overall budget in Kenya as £237,000 (budgeted and spent). In Pakistan, £230,624 was budgeted, of which £203,000 was spent.

<sup>5</sup> For more detail, see Nyandiko, N.O. (2018) *LPRR End of the Project Evaluation Report: Marsabit County, Kenya, 2016 – 2018*. START Network and Christian Aid.



In Pakistan, however, there is little evidence to suggest that the pilot resulted in the type of change initially anticipated. It is clear that the project supported worthwhile initiatives that contributed to improved community resilience to natural hazards. However, despite that fact that the steps of the ICPR methodology appear to have been followed, it was not possible to discern any significant ‘peace positive’ impact resulting from the subsequent activities.<sup>6</sup> Much of the analysis included in this paper therefore seeks to unpack the factors that contributed to the different results in the two pilot countries.

### Structure of this paper

This paper first aims to identify positive examples and evidence of ‘what worked’ flowing out of the pilot activities. The following section seeks to identify those aspects of the project that did not work as well as was expected and asks what lessons we can learn from this. The final section pulls together key lessons for humanitarian and development practitioners working in contexts affected by conflict. A small number of short case studies are also included, as an illustration of the project impacts.

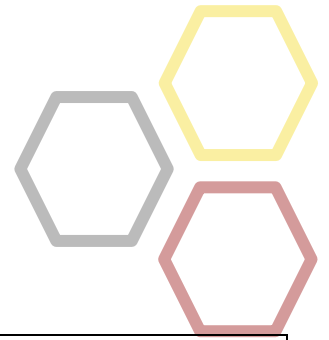
### Methodology and caveats

This paper is based on a review of core LPRR project documents, including evaluation reports and associated data-syntheses for the two pilot countries, as well as the overall project evaluation and reports. It also draws upon learning papers and case studies developed in Kenya and Pakistan, and project monitoring data. Relevant project documents from Honduras were also reviewed, as was the ICPR methodology itself. The findings from the literature review were complemented with Key Informant Interviews with seven staff from Christian Aid, World Vision, Saferworld and PACIDA, each of whom were engaged in the design and/ or implementation of the project.

Certain caveats and limitations should be noted. Whilst all efforts were made to triangulate findings, community consultations were not possible, so any biases included in project documents, or emanating from staff engaged in the project may be replicated here. Secondly, no-one from the implementing partners in Pakistan were available for interview. It is possible that important perspectives and nuances therefore have been missed. Finally, the majority of learning comes from use of ICPR methodology in concert with Christian Aid’s PVCA and World Vision’s COVACA tools. The pilots did not use the other resilience strengthening methodologies that the ICPR was designed to complement.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>6</sup> It is important to note that there is no evidence of a significant ‘peace negative’ impact either.

<sup>7</sup> The ICPR Methodology was designed to complement the following resilience strengthening methodologies: Christian Aid’s Participatory Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment (PVCA), Action Aid’s Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA), Concern Worldwide’s Risk Analysis Guidelines, the ECB’s Participatory Disaster Risk Assessment Training Pack and Assessment Tools, and World Vision’s DRR Toolkit, Gestão de Risco a Nível da Comunidade (GERANDO) and Community-Owned Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment (COVACA).



**Case Study 1: Agreeing of Pastoralist Resource Sharing Agreements to promote conflict-sensitive disaster preparedness activities**

Marsabit County in Northern Kenya has been affected by repeated cycles of inter-communal conflict and extreme drought for many years. These have grown in frequency and severity in recent years. The LPRR project has been working with local communities in Marsabit to identify the ways in which local responses to droughts, as well as other hazards, impact upon conflict dynamics.

A local-level conflict analysis conducted in April 2016 identified specific ‘buffer zones’, or contested grazing grounds lying along migration routes commonly used by Gabra and Borana pastoralist communities in during periods of drought. Tensions between these communities often resolve around access to water and grazing lands during periods of scarcity, with frequently clashes centered around these ‘buffer zones’.

The LPRR project engaged pre-existing community peace communities and worked with them to develop cross-community Resource Sharing Agreements centered around the ‘buffer zones’. By collaboratively agreeing clear livestock migratory routes and negotiated use of resources, neither community has been denied access to the grazing lands, whilst there have been no reports of violent clashes between the communities in the targeted areas. There are thought to be over 500,000 livestock surviving in these lands. It is hoped that the targeted provision of relief supplies to these areas will allow a larger number of livestock to survive the drought, serving as future breeding stock for communities, thereby contributing to longer-term resilience.

*“It is very difficult to use or access dry reserves (grazing areas) located in contending communities in a situation where there is no peace - whatever the intensity of the drought might be. The peace building meetings within our area have improved community interaction and helped us to access these resources even far beyond Funan Qumbi, as far as 350KM away saving thousands of our livestock.”*  
Jillo Godana of Funan Qumbi village



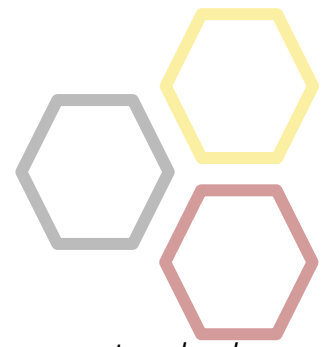
**Key strengths: what worked well and why?**

This section identifies and seeks to unpack aspects of the Conflict Prevention Strand of the LPRR project that appear to have generated positive results.

**Improved knowledge and understanding of core concepts and practice of conflict sensitivity for project implementers**

The LPRR project appears to have improved understanding of the core principles and practices of conflict-sensitive resilience strengthening for project participants.<sup>8</sup> The final evaluation notes that, although the concepts of conflict sensitivity and resilience were not new to many participants, “*framing resilience*

<sup>8</sup> The Final Project Evaluation for example notes that 90% of respondents report improved understanding of the core concepts and practices of resilience championed by the project. Dunlop, K & Ellina, M (2018) LPRR Project Final evaluation.



*through the lens of response and conflict-sensitive programming helped reinforce these concepts and make them applicable to response and early recovery”* (pg. 6). Over 90% of respondents to the final evaluation survey reported that the core products developed ‘adds value to their work’.<sup>9</sup> Significantly, 58% of respondents reported that they intended to apply the ICPR methodology in new projects following the end of the current project.<sup>10</sup>

This conclusion was reinforced by participants interviewed for this study. Several noted that they found the ICPR methodology (and the subsequent trainings) to be helpful, practical and accessible. The approach of providing guidance that complements, rather than replaces, existing tools used by the participating agencies, was cited as a particular strength of the methodology. The emphasis on developing ‘good enough’ (rather than comprehensive) analysis as a basis for programming may also have helped to engage implementers, especially those from a humanitarian background. The strong emphasis on participatory tools was also appreciated by implementing partners.

**Supported the integration of broader contextual perspectives into programming:** There is evidence that the ICPR methodology contributed to more conflict-sensitive, and ultimately more effective programming choices in at least some instances. Implementing partners in Kenya noted that the conflict analyses helped them to identify, and explicitly target, groups that they had not previously engaged. For example, ‘youth herders’ from the Boran and Gabra communities were identified as important actors, with significant influence over inter-communal conflict. Specific conflict hot spots, such as the fertile ‘buffer zones’ used by both communities for grazing during droughts, were also identified. This led to specific targeting of LPRR activities in these areas as a means of promoting conflict prevention as a key component of resilience strengthening (see Case Study 1).

The LPRR project also appears to have encouraged higher-level engagement at pilot sites than was the norm for ‘traditional’ methodologies. The inclusion of macro-level conflict analysis for example seems to have had benefits beyond the immediate pilot project objectives. One interviewee noted that this analysis ‘forces teams to think about the wider context’, which in turn helps to shape wider strategic objectives for country programmes. Another noted that it provided staff and partners with ‘a platform for engagement at the policy level’. In Kenya for example, one partner made use of the analysis to inform the composition and focus of a multi-sector platform that sought to increase coordination and access of humanitarian local actors to the wider government and UN system.<sup>11</sup>

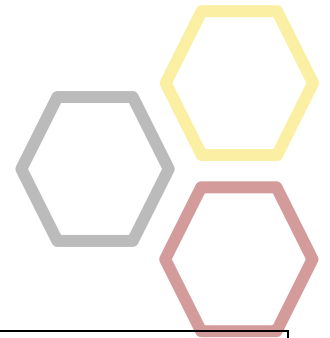
This platform later enhanced the coordination and effectiveness of the drought response in 2017. Another partner meanwhile reported that the findings of the conflict analysis were used to inform the delivery of humanitarian aid during the drought, leading to a greater awareness of the dangers of inadvertently ‘sending implicit messages that can affect the conflict negatively’.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>9</sup> This consists of two products, the ICPR Handbook and Community Resilience Building in Humanitarian Response: Insights from crisis survivors and first responders.

<sup>10</sup> Not all respondents to the final evaluation survey were engaged in the Conflict Prevention Strand. Figures for the number of people engaged in that strand specifically who intended to continue using the ICPR Handbook are not available.

<sup>11</sup> This was part of a separate DEPP funded initiative implemented in Kenya, the Shifting the Power project.

<sup>12</sup> LPRR Kenya final evaluation: Case Studies, pg.5.



*“the project contributed to enhancing resilience in Marsabit County. The numerous and consistent inter-clan/ethnic peace dialogues diminished episodes of conflict; the prolonged drought (2016/17) and the 2017 electioneering period did not lead to serious conflict, unlike previously (under similar or near-similar scenarios).”*

LPRR Kenya Evaluation Report: KII Synthesis Document, pg.

A review of Christian Aid supported resilience programmes in Marsabit meanwhile, encompassing both those that used the ‘traditional’ PVCA approach as well as LPRR supported interventions, also found that *“communities that followed up on their action plans tended to be those where conflict-sensitive PVCAs were carried out. This indicated stronger community leadership and institutions and ownership of the plans in areas in which the community has had to organise itself to resolve conflict.”*<sup>13</sup> It is not clear exactly why the adapted methodology seems to have generated stronger community buy-in than the ‘traditional’ approach. However, this may stem from the fact that a wider range of community stakeholders were included in the LPRR supported approach, including ‘non-traditional’ actors such as formal and informal security providers.

*“During the LPRR micro-conflict analysis as well as CSPVCA trainings, we were able to come up with an action plan for Funan Qumbi village; our community action plan has been an advocacy and lobbying tool. And without a doubt, the existence of all the above, fosters peaceful co-existence and helps us to cope with the drought,”*

Guyo Barako a community leader at Funan Qumbi, Marsabit Country

Whilst the peace-positive impacts of the ICPR in Pakistan<sup>14</sup> were less easily perceptible, the evaluation report notes that the project *“has been very successful at consolidating different actors and vulnerable groups in coming together to address these threats”* (pg. 33). In doing so, it can be assumed that the project activities have made a contribution to intra-community cohesion.

**Facilitated new relationships and cross consortium learning:** The LPRR final evaluation notes that 73% of respondents felt that working with organisations from other sectors was amongst the most valuable aspects of the programme.<sup>15</sup> The Conflict Prevention Strand specifically brought together seven humanitarian and multi-mandated international NGOs, an academic organisation and a conflict-specialist organisation, and allowed for the sharing of experience and learning.

At the HQ-level, this included exposing organisations to methodologies commonly employed in other sectors. The process of developing the ICPR for example allowed Saferworld to conduct an in-depth review of all of these methodologies, identify areas of commonality and entry points for integrating conflict sensitive approaches. Several of the relationships developed by the project meanwhile have continued to develop, for example through the submission of further joint concept notes between consortium members.

<sup>13</sup> Abraham, Fazal, Kinyua, Mohamed, Njuki and Omungo (2017) [Marsabit County Resilience Study Does investment in resilience work?](#) Christian Aid.

<sup>14</sup> It is important however not detract from the positive impacts that the project had on community resilience within the pilot communities there. There is evidence for example that the project helped to increase community capacity to respond to disease outbreaks, empowered local groups to engage with senior decision makers and improved basic communal infrastructure.

<sup>15</sup> LPRR final evaluation, pg.15





At the field level, interviewees also reported feeling that the project has provided opportunities for cross-sectoral and cross-organisational learning. In Kenya, participants from Saferworld, PACIDA and Christian Aid all noted the cross-sectoral nature of the project as a key strength. However, it is also notable that, despite encouraging early signs, cross-sectoral collaboration in both Kenya and Pakistan was not as extensive as it could have been. Some reasons for this are discussed in the following section

**Strong organisational buy-in by Christian Aid:** The ICPR methodology has been especially well-received by Christian Aid and is being rolled out in a number of countries and programmes beyond the LPRR focus countries. Christian Aid Ireland for example is currently supporting a programme that seeks to test the methodology in a further four country programmes (Burundi, South Sudan, DRC and Myanmar) as part of an Irish Aid funded humanitarian programme.<sup>16</sup> The methodology has also been translated into Spanish and training on its use provided to staff working in Honduras, as well as being delivered in Myanmar.

This is clear evidence therefore that the ICPR methodology speaks to a clear and recognised need, at least within Christian Aid. Feedback from interviewees within Christian Aid indicates that the flexible and adaptive approach employed by the ICPR, which seeks to complement existing methodologies, is a major attraction of this methodology (when compared to other methodologies that have been tested previously). Probably of equal or greater significance is the fact that the LPRR programme manager, in his capacity as a Resilience Advisor, was also tasked to lead a review and refresh of Christian Aid’s approach to resilience in 2016.

It is important to note that similar levels of interest and internal buy-in have not been witnessed in other organisations engaged in the project (although Concern did use the ICPR tools in Chad). Some of the possible reasons for this are included in the following section.

**Case Study 2: Promoting equitable access to water points**

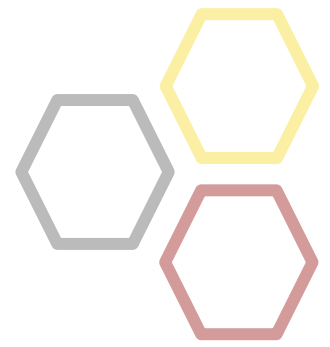


Fair, equitable and sustainable use of community water points was a major focus of almost all community action plans developed with the support of the LPRR project in Northern Kenya. In times of drought, those water points that still hold water can attract an influx of people and livestock from surrounding areas. This is a frequent source of tension and can result in violent clashes. At each of the major water points across all five LPRR focus communities, the action plans have resulted in commonly agreed schedules for people and livestock

from different locations to access water points, with specific provisions for newer arrivals to the communities. This has helped in orderly watering patterns, reducing tensions and encouraging fair access to all. These community action plans are also being used to inform the water trucking and other relief supplies into these communities.



<sup>16</sup> Learning from implementation in these contexts is being captured by Queens College Dublin and will complement the finds from this review.



## Challenges and barriers: what worked less well, and why?

This section identifies and seeks to unpack aspects of the conflict prevention strand of the LPRR project that did not work as well as they could have done. It does not seek to apportion blame to any organisation or individual, but rather aims to provide an honest account of where project activities could have been improved.

### Contextual factors

Pakistan was a particularly challenging context in which to pilot this initiative. Recent years have seen a significant shrinking of operating space for civil society, including the introduction of legislation that severely limits agencies' ability to access communities.<sup>17</sup> This has largely been justified by the government as being necessary to counter the threats posed by 'terrorist groups' in the region. The real and perceived role of international actors, including western countries, as conflict actors in Pakistan has also contributed to a widespread sense of distrust over the activities of INGOs in the country. This distrust has been further entrenched by the increasingly strained relations between Pakistan and several major donor governments during the same timeframe of the LPRR project.<sup>18</sup>

These factors make it both especially important for agencies to adopt a conflict sensitive approach, but also more difficult. Government can be suspicious of organisations that seek to engage on sensitive topics. Strong bonds of trust are also needed with local communities before they can be expected to 'open up' about what are often deeply political factors driving conflict. Recently introduced rules and processes limiting the ability of agencies to travel to communities makes it harder to establish those bonds of trust. The downsizing of the World Vision programme that took place during the implementation of this project was, in significant part driven by these dynamics.

Whilst the project in Kenya also faced significant challenges related to the broader political context including a major drought and a disputed presidential election, partners there appeared to be better able to engage on conflict prevention activities. In part, this may be due to the comparatively benign operating environment for civil society working on conflict issues.<sup>19</sup> These observations raise questions about the processes for selecting pilot countries, the degree to which the methodology was sufficiently well contextualised, and crucially whether sufficient levels of support were provided to account for the level of pre-existing capacity and operating challenges faced by implementing partners in the two countries.

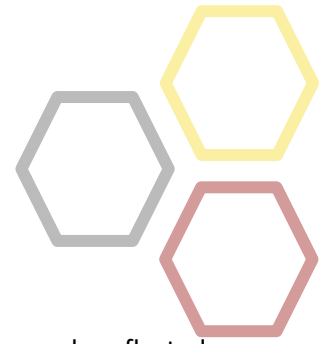
### Doing too much at once?

A short coming in the roll-out of the 'Conflict Prevention Strand' in Pakistan appears to be that the implementing team in-country did not have significant current experience with the 'base' resilience strengthening methodology. They did not, for example have a pre-existing resilience strengthening programme, nor did they have in-house experience of adopting conflict sensitive approaches in Pakistan. Expecting newly hired staff to adopt the conflict sensitive version of an unfamiliar methodology, with insufficient additional support (see below) may have been asking for too much in one go. By contrast, in Kenya implementing partners were already comfortable with the 'base' methodology, and consequently were better able to adapt it in line with the ICPR Handbook.

<sup>17</sup> E.g. see Shah, Z (2016) [Shrinking civic space in Pakistan](#), in Dossier: Squeezed – Space for Civil Society; Heinrich Boll Stiftung; Toppa, S. (2018) [As Pakistan cracks down on NGOs, civil society questions next steps](#), IRIN and DevEx Inside Development series.

<sup>18</sup> E.g. see Gul, I. (2018) [What Should Pakistan Do?](#), 4 January 2018, CRSS; JI (2018) [Pak-US Timeline: A Chronology of Disconnect](#), Jinnah Institute.

<sup>19</sup> This statement does not negate or belittle the very real challenges faced by civil society organisations working in Kenya.



A similar (although less severe) pattern was observed in Kenya. One interviewee for example reflected on the inability of the pilot to adopt a sufficiently strong gender-transformational approach, despite a strong emphasis within both the methodology and their organisational objectives. When quizzed on this, they reported feeling that “*people felt overwhelmed by the conflict and drought response. They didn’t get to the other important aspects*”<sup>20</sup>. This talks to the challenges of ‘integration fatigue’ inherent within the humanitarian and development community.

These challenges were exacerbated by high levels of staff transitions, in both Kenya and Pakistan (and to a lesser degree London). In Pakistan, project implementation coincided with a major restructuring of the country office, which resulted in a drastic reduction of the number of staff. This resulted in significant gaps in support available to the project manager, and some confusion over management processes and timelines. In Kenya meanwhile, changes in staff overseeing the project in both the lead agency, and the agency providing technical support resulted in significant gaps, undermined consistency and slowed down project implementation.

Whilst staff transitions are unavoidable, and a frequent challenge for humanitarian and development agencies, better planning and stronger institutional knowledge management processes may have helped mitigate some of these effects.

#### **Limited progress in promoting gender equality**

In Pakistan, the project was able to achieve impressive rates of women’s participation, given the highly conservative and patriarchal context in which it was implemented. The final evaluation for Pakistan for example notes that more women participated in the Village Development Committee (VDC) meetings, and attended more frequently, than men did.<sup>21</sup> However, the same evaluation goes on to note that often the “*concerns of women that were counter to the decisions discussed by the male members of VDCs were set aside and not entirely addressed. Thus, the men were informed of the needs and concerns of women but chose not to address them.*” (pg. 30).

In Kenya meanwhile, several respondents noted that the project failed to take sufficient account of the gendered dimensions of vulnerability in focus communities. At one point during project implementation, the majority of men migrated, with the cattle, to grazing lands outside of the project area (a common coping mechanism in these communities). Partners were not however prepared for this eventuality. They failed to make the most of the opportunities this created to work with the remaining women and children, and implementation slowed significantly until the men returned.

*“We live in conservative male dominant society where we go out of houses in rare cases to participate in any social gathering and mostly involved in domestic activities. This project enhances our capacities through knowledge transformation sessions mainly focused on adaptation of resilient practices to withstand against future emergency outbreak.”*

Shabeena Gul a local resident in Village Kurvi in Northwest Pakistan

<sup>20</sup> Interview with Kenyan staff member.

<sup>21</sup> This is important to recognise that in this context, this can be considered an important achievement, and one that may help to lay the foundations for more equitable gender relations in the future.



### Poorly defined accompaniment role for conflict experts

In both Pakistan and Kenya, a relatively modest budget was earmarked for the provision of technical support to implementation teams by Saferworld. However, the limited time and resources available meant that it was not feasible for them to be directly being involved in the day-to-day implementation of the project. A decision was therefore taken at inception to keep the support available purely reactive in nature; a certain number of days' technical support would be available upon request from implementing agencies. However, in both countries this support could have been better planned and defined.

In Pakistan, this arrangement seemed to work moderately well during the first year of the project. However, following the departure of Saferworld's main interlocutor, the level of engagement dropped away, indicating that the arrangement was too heavily dependent on the personal relationships, and insufficiently institutionalised. In Kenya, engagement was more sustained throughout the life of the project, although Saferworld's staff reported feeling that more could have been done.

*"An oversight at the design phase inadvertently 'disabled' Saferworld from walking the entire distance of the project with the communities as would have been desirable." (KII synthesis document)*

### Limited funding and timeframe

Several respondents noted that the funding structure of the consortium, and the project's relatively short timeframe, made it difficult for it to fully achieve its objectives.<sup>22</sup> It was, for example noted that the lack of funding available for most consortium partners operational in the context meant that there was no financial incentive for them to remain actively engaged beyond the initial trainings. Subsequently, despite strong interest at HQ level, there does not appear to have been any significant pick-up of the ICPR methodology, or associated concepts, outside of the agencies actively engaged in implementation of the pilot.

Funding constraints were also noted by local partners in Kenya. One partner for example reported not being able to cover staff time for implementation of the pilot through project resources. Another noted that there were insufficient resources available to implement as many of the community action plans as they had wanted. Consequently, there was *"much emphasis was on preparedness, but little implementation took place due to inadequate resources (funds)."*<sup>23</sup>

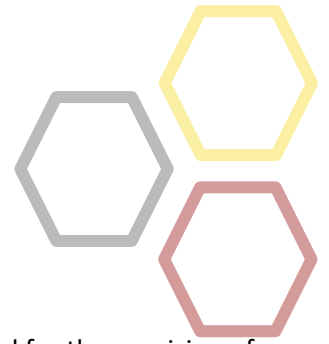
The relatively short timeframe available for project implementation was cited as a challenge. There was only time for partners to implement one cycle of the community analyses and action planning process. Consequently, they did not have the opportunity to apply learning from one cycle to the next. In Pakistan, it seems feasible that there was insufficient time for partners to develop the confidence needed to allow them to proactively, and effectively engage on highly sensitive topics with communities. Meanwhile, communities may have been (understandably) reluctant to share information related to conflict dynamics with implementing partners.

### Site selection and focus of action plans

When communities in Pakistan were asked to identify conflict issues, participants exclusively identified factors external to the community, such as criminal gangs from neighbouring villages entering at night. Participants did not identify significant issues leading to social tension or unrest within their own

<sup>22</sup> These findings are consistent with challenges identified in the final evaluation report, Kenya and Pakistan evaluations and Collodi, J., Di Vicenz, S., Murphy, R., Visman, E. (2018) *How can the process of co-production support learning? Experiences from within a consortium project to build humanitarian capacity in preparedness and resilience*, START Network and Christian Aid.

<sup>23</sup> Kenya Evaluation: KII synthesis report, pg. 7



communities. The action plans in these communities furthermore focused on the need for the provision of physical infrastructure (solar lighting, water filtration units etc). None of the interventions supported sought to facilitate links between communities, or engage with higher-level, inter-communal conflict issues identified in the macro-level conflict analysis.

Conversely, in Kenya the project was implemented in an area that has been the site of significant inter-communal clashes in recent years. Communities may have been more aware of the nature of conflict, whilst almost all interventions supported were focused exclusively on facilitating links between communities (supporting peace committees, inter-communal sports events etc.).

### **Top-down design process**

Several respondents reported that the project teams could have done more to include local offices and partners in the design and roll out of the methodology. This is echoed in the Pakistan Case Study report which concludes that there was *“Inadequate Project conceptualization: This was exclusively done at London level, with the national partners only being brought on board when all critical decisions (regarding plans, budgets and approaches) had already been concluded in London.”*<sup>24</sup>

Whilst staff from Saferworld’s country programmes in Kenya and Pakistan were included in the design of the methodology, staff from implementing partner country offices were not. This may have contributed to a lack of buy-in to aspects of the project in-country.

### **Case Study 3: Facilitating cross-border movement in Kenya and Ethiopia**

The resilience of pastoralist communities in Northern Kenya and Ethiopia is largely dependent on their ability to continuously move livestock in search of pasture and water, including across the border. This movement has been facilitated by an agreement brokered by a cross-border peace committee established and supported by the LPRR project. If it were not for this agreement, it seems likely that movement would have been severely restricted, likely resulting in increased loss of livestock, and quite possibly increased conflict.

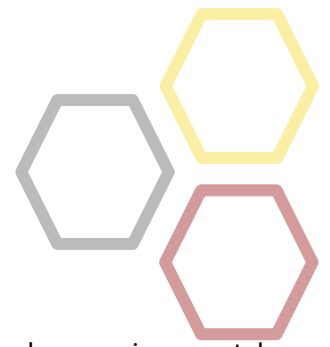
### **Reflections and lessons learned**

This section draws upon the findings outlined above and summarises key lessons. These relate to both the ICPR methodology itself, as well as the programmatic approaches and processes employed to pilot the approach in Kenya and Pakistan. It is hoped that these lessons will be used to inform the design and implementation of future resilience-strengthening initiatives in conflict-affected communities.

#### **The ICPR Methodology**

By adopting a conflict-sensitive approach, the ICPR methodology has helped at least some staff to identify both previously neglected groups to engage, and important entry points for pursuing more effective and holistic resilience-strengthening initiatives. Broadening the range of actor groups engaged in community consultations and action planning for example may have helped to increase local ownership of the analysis and action plans. The inclusion of macro-level conflict analysis encouraged implementing agencies to consider how the projects fit into the broader context, potentially leading to more integrated and coherent

<sup>24</sup> Inventure Private Limited (2017) *LPRR Pakistan: Learning Report*, START Network and Christian Aid



responses across projects and sectors. This analysis also identified conflict ‘hot spots’ where environmental hazards were likely to increase tension between groups, whilst community-level analysis and action plans helped to identify locally appropriate peacebuilding solutions.

The fact that similar patterns were not reflected across all pilot sites illustrates the need to avoid ‘one-size fits all’ solutions to complex problems. It also underlines the need to ensure that any methodology is applied flexibly and can be easily adapted to diverse contexts. The ICPR methodology seems to have been well suited to the context in Kenya. The context in Pakistan however was very different. The nature of conflict, the ability of communities to openly discuss it and the capacities of the implementing partners there all made Pakistan a more challenging environment in which to pilot this approach. Perhaps more could have been done to adapt the methodology to these challenges, for example by finding more locally appropriate ways of discussing conflict, building in more time for building relationships with communities, or ensuring more support was available to implementing partners throughout the piloting of the approach.

The ICPR methodology intentionally sought to build on and complement existing practice within organisations, whilst integrating ‘good enough’ rather than comprehensive analysis of conflict issues. This appears to have been an important factor in helping generate buy-in and pick-up beyond the original pilot locations, in Christian Aid and PACIDA at least. This same approach however seemed to inhibit uptake even within the pilot in Pakistan, since it required staff there to engage with two methodologies, both of which were comparatively new to them. Adopting such a ‘complementary approach’ is only logical if it is applied in a context in which existing practice is already well established. It may have been that a stand-alone methodology would have been better suited to the context in this instance.

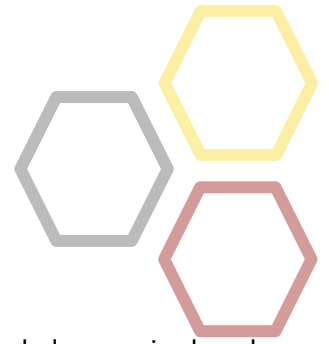
Finally, it is worth noting that the strong focus of inclusion within the ICPR methodology may have contributed to high rates of women’s inclusion in the LPRR consultations and action planning processes in Pakistan. However, the prevailing power structures and social norms meant that the majority of decisions were still taken by and reflected the priorities and interests of men. It is possible that with more time, these high rates of women’s participation may have translated into perceptible changes in women’s roles and status within communities. However, it is important not to assume that participation of marginalised groups in project activities will automatically lead to empowerment. Ultimately, it is the quality of participation, and the impact that this has on prevailing social norms and power-structures, that matters.

### **Programmatic and institutional factors that can help or hinder implementation**

A longer timeframe, and potentially a larger budget for piloting the approach may have helped overcome some of the challenges faced during implementation. Working with communities to identify and begin to address highly sensitive issues (such as those related to social tension and conflict) requires longer-term engagement, and repeated cycles of support. It also takes time and repeated engagement with the concepts and language of conflict-sensitivity to build staff capacity and confidence in this area. It may have been that only having time for one cycle of the methodology limited the ability of teams to ‘learn by doing’.

Learning from this strand of the LPRR project also underlines the importance of inclusive project design and efficient staff transition and knowledge management systems. The personalised nature of many of the key relationships necessary to ensure the implementers had access to sufficient support, and the ‘top-down’ nature of the project design contributed to a lack of strong in-country ownership.<sup>25</sup> Subsequently, when

<sup>25</sup> It is important to include the caveat that genuine co-creation between multiple offices, in different countries and across different agencies, requires significantly greater investment in time and resources, and the adoption of new processes and (in many cases) a different mind-set on the part of implementing agencies. There are questions about the



staff managing or supporting the project left, and new staff came in, much of the knowledge acquired, and relationships built were lost. The small financial value attached this project for most partners may also have meant that new staff had stronger incentives to prioritise the big projects over small, experimental initiatives such as this one.

Relatedly, whilst the LPRR project overall had a strong emphasis on learning and capacity development, there may have been insufficient attention paid to the different capacity needs of project staff and partners in the two contexts. Given that implementing partners in Kenya appeared to have stronger pre-existing capacities in both conflict analysis and resilience programming, it may have been prudent to ensure a stronger focus on accompaniment for Pakistani partners.

This pilot also highlights some of the challenges inherent in consortium work. The inclusion of a large number of partners, coupled with a limited budget and ambitious scope, may have undermined the project's ability to make the most of the opportunities afforded by the consortium. The lack of funding available to some partners made it difficult to maintain buy-in, whilst the use of consortia presence as a determining factor for country selection, may have narrowed options of where pilots were implemented. Whilst a consortium approach was clearly necessary for the development of the methodology, it may have been better to limit the scope and ambition of different agencies engagement during implementation phase.

**For further information:**

<https://www.christianaid.org.uk/about-us/programmes/linking-preparedness-resilience-and-response-lprr>

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degree to which agencies and donors are willing to invest in this way of working, and an honest conversation needed about the barriers to doing so.