

Challenges of Resource Mobilization Among The Turkana Pastoralist Community of Kenya.

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ABSTRACT: Natural resources form an integral part of society all over the world as sources of income, industry, and identity. Developing countries tend to be more dependent on natural resources as their primary source of income, and many individuals depend on these resources for their livelihoods. It is estimated that half of the world's population remains directly tied to local natural resources; many rural communities depend upon agriculture, fisheries, minerals, and timber as their main sources of income. Apart from being key drivers of sustainable livelihoods, resources can also be a remarked source of conflict both within and without of the communities who have been known to co-exist peacefully. This paper is focused on identifying the types of resources found in Turkana land, how they can be mobilized and managed in order to improve the Turkana community's pastoralist livelihoods and also the papers seeks to analyze the cause or the source of conflict faced in their mobilization and how they can be resolved. The paper targets the Turkana pastoralist community living in Turkana central sub-county. The study used the descriptive research design using mixed methods to collect and analyze data which was obtained using data collection instruments such as questionnaires, FGDs, key informers interview schedules and researcher's observation. The study used stratified random sampling to get the representative data. The study was based on resource mobilization theory that explains social movements by viewing individuals as rational actors that are engaged in instrumental actions that use formal organizations to secure resources and fostering mobilization. The study found out the following resources are found in Turkana, Livestock (Pastoral economy), water masses (Lake& Rivers), Land (Forests, crops), minerals (gold, Oil), Solar Energy, Funds (Money), Human Capital, Natural resources (Rivers, Forests and Mountains), the study also found that challenges affecting resource mobilization as; Illiteracy among the pastoralists, drought, poverty, climate change, banditry, resource based conflict i.e Oil, community boundaries for this problem there is need to revisit the colonial maps so that the original boundaries could be traced and be remarked, water, grazing land, political incitement. The study concluded that there is need to embrace dialogue between intergovernments, inter-communities, more schools to be started, joint peace meetings to be initiated by leaders from either sides, the governments should also bring the NGOs and Civil society to come and compliment what is needed so as the communities are able to identify, mobilize and utilize their God given resources.

KEYWORDS: Resources, Resource Managements, Turkana , Pastoralists, Communities, Resource management, Resource utilization .

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I. INTRODUCTION

A **resource** is seen as anything that is used to satisfy human needs. Typically resources include; materials, energy, services, staff, knowledge, or other assets that are transformed to produce benefit and in the process may be consumed or made unavailable. Benefits of resource mobilization may include increased wealth, meeting needs or wants, proper functioning of a system, or enhanced well being. Resources have three main characteristics: utility, limited availability, and potential for depletion or consumption. Resources have been variously categorized as biotic versus abiotic, renewable versus non – renewable. The World Bank defines natural resources as “materials that occur in nature and are essential or useful to humans, such as water, air, land, forests, fish and wildlife, topsoil, and minerals.”These resources can be classified as renewable or nonrenewable. In most cases, renewable resources such as cropland, forests, and water can be replenished over time by natural processes and—if not overused—are indefinitely sustainable. Nonrenewable resources such as diamonds, minerals, and oil are found in finite quantities, and their value increases as supplies dwindle. A nation's access to natural resources often determines its wealth and status in the world economic system.

Other resources, such as timber, minerals, and oil, are used to produce revenue. It is these revenue-producing resources that cause the most problems, sometimes called the resource curse—the paradox that countries with abundant natural resources often have less economic growth than those without natural resources. The dependence on a few sources of revenue typically discourages diversification, leads to overheating of the economy, and increases volatility of prices and revenue.

The abundance also often leads to government mismanagement and corruption. In these and other ways, competition over natural resources can lead to, intensify, or sustain violence.

Resources such as land, water, and timber (forests) usually have historical and cultural significance, serving as the home of ancient civilizations, historical artifacts, and cultural practices. These resources are part of the identity of a community or people (**United States of Institute of Peace, 2014**).

The ability of parties to a conflict to exploit natural resources depends on their access to external markets. Take away the ability to profit from resource extraction and they can no longer exacerbate or sustain conflict. Although it is now universally accepted that revenue from natural resources provided the logistics for war in countries such as Angola, Cambodia, Liberia and Sierra Leone, the international community has yet to address this problem effectively and systematically. The international community needs to address resource-related conflicts in a way that tackles their particular character: in other words, by proactively addressing the trade that underlies the war, as well as the war itself.

Global Witness believes that the international community, led by the Security Council, should put a comprehensive deterrent strategy in place with an authoritative mandate to stop conflict resources from contributing to human rights violations and to remove them from international trade. The first step towards such a strategy is to clearly define what a conflict resource is (**Garett Hardin and John Baden, 1997**).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Resource Utilization in Traditional Situation

Before colonization took firm roots in Africa, the indigenous rulers occupied a unique position in the management of natural resources. They were accepted by their subjects as the religious, political, judicial and the spiritual embodiment of their communities and therefore took responsibility in the management of community resources. Fairhead and Leach (2004) are of the view that for the African, natural resources were not only important as a source of food and other domestic products, but it was the very basis of their religion and cultural beliefs, therefore, certain areas such as woodlands, water points, mountains etc. were considered sacred and were not to be abused.

There was context-specific local knowledge and institutional mechanisms such as cooperation and collective action; intergenerational transmission of knowledge, skills and strategies; concern for well-being of future generations; reliance on local resources; restraint in resource exploitation; an attitude of gratitude and respect for nature; management, conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity outside formal protected areas; and, transfer of useful species among the households, villages and larger landscape. These are some of the useful attributes of local knowledge systems (Pandey, 2002).

Natural Resources Utilization in the Colonial Period

Most African countries experienced colonial rule late 19th century. Colonialism had the general effect of removing large tracts of land from peoples' control, without taking into account that commonly owned land was part of an effective integrated resource management system. This in turn led to a decreasing sense of trusteeship towards future generations and a reduction in the sense of equity that had previously constituted a basis for interpersonal relations among members of families and communities. The motives of colonization of the African continent included increased access to natural resources for industrial development in Europe. Colonial administrators were also concerned with making colonies self sufficient economic units that would not be economically dependent on the metro poles. Colonial laws and policies relating to natural resource management were thus chiefly concerned with facilitating the extraction of raw materials from colonies for the metro poles and exploitation for local economic development (**Sorrenson N.P.K., 1968**).

Overall colonial rule emphasized state control and private ownership as the most effective means of fostering resource extraction and utilization. The assumption was that the assignment of private property rights was necessary precondition for economic development, for the minimization of and use conflicts and for reducing the over exploitation of resources (**John Quiggin, 1984**).

Privatization was viewed as a means to resolve the problem of shared responsibilities over resources. Apportioning the resources among private owners was supposed to give them economic incentives to preserve and maintain the resource base. It was also geared towards helping the poor and landless gain secure rights to resources. This process undermined the mechanism for preservation that existed at community level and transferred more resources to the already better-off households. Even where the poor obtained private rights to

resources, it is doubtful whether their loss of access to common property resources was compensated (**John Quiggin, 1984**)

Colonization in Africa was a major cause in Africa's departure in their mode of natural resource management. They further argued that decades of colonization in Africa alienated its people from their traditional ways of managing and utilization of natural resources. Significantly, the cultural norms and traditional systems that sustained Africans prior to colonization have deemed useful. Colonial rule empowered the local governance structures and took away the resource from the natives. Bromley (1991) has argued that, with the advent of colonialism and markets, "the spread of private land—and the attendant individualization of village life—has undermined traditional collective management regimes over natural resources.

Natural Resource Management in Current Situation

The impact of colonial rule in the field of natural resource management in colonized countries did not stop at independence. Many post colonial governments continued along development paths charted out by their colonial masters, and retained the legal framework established under colonialism as the pervasive influence of governments in natural resource management. This has tended to aggravate the social and environmental impacts created by colonial laws. Continued emphasis on cash crop production for foreign exchange, has, for instance, subjected African countries to the vagaries of international community price fluctuation (**Garett**

Hardin and John Baden,1997).

At the local community level, independence did not entail involvement of communities into the development process and the role of the local people in the regulation of natural resources continues to be overlooked to date. Local people have therefore often come to know natural resources as government property .This tends to create antagonistic relations between potential users and government officials and in many cases leads to the former encroaching on gazette public land and forests to which they view their access as unjustifiably denied.(**Turibo**

Habwe,1996).

Naturally, rural communities found it very difficult to openly and readily accept that post independence policies in NRM were for their good especially as these still ignored the importance of Traditional Institutions and indigenous knowledge system. Even though trends in development acknowledge the virtues and capabilities of Traditional Institutions in sustainable Natural Resource Management, traditional institutions are still significantly faced with constraints as far as NRM issues are concerned (ibid).

The introduction of commercial production systems by the colonial economic and political race saw the resettlement of some Africans away from their religious and cultural systems (ibid). This destroyed indigenous knowledge systems and undermined traditional institutions. Unfortunately, these oppressive circumstances crossed over into the post independence era. Post colonial state thus perceived the Traditional Institutions (TI) as collaborating with the colonial oppressors and for that matter was not given major roles to play in the new nation state. This phenomenon relegated Traditional Institutions to the status of mere custodians of their subjects. Their role in the socio-economic development of their community has been minimal since the nation state has taken this role upon itself (**Bonye and Millar, 2004**).

African governments have made efforts to strengthen oppressed Traditional Institutions to manage natural resources by involving them in the formulation of laws in NRM, but these laws are slow and appeared to be devolving responsibility to conserve and not so much the benefits from natural resources (**Bonye and Millar, 2004**)

Natural Resources Conflict

Natural resource based conflicts have been defined as disagreements or disputes that arise with regard to the use, access and management of natural resources. Some experts are predicting for instance that the world's supply of oil will run out in the not too distant future. And almost half of our old growth forests have been destroyed. The picture gets much more complicated when access to these natural resources become the reason for a conflict or, much more frequently, are used to fuel a conflict. Paul Collier, an expert on the economics of civil war, estimates that close to fifty armed conflicts active in 2001 had a strong link to natural resource exploitation, in which either licit or illicit exploitation helped to trigger, intensify, or sustain violence. For example, the rebel groups Revolutionary United Front (RUF) in Sierra Leone and National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) used revenues derived from diamond mining to fund their rebellions against their respective governments. (Paul Collier, 2003)

Natural resource conflicts have also been defined as situations where the allocation, management, or use of natural resources results in: violence; human rights abuses; or denial of access to natural resources to an extent that significantly diminishes human welfare. This definition offers a wider scope and understanding of

the effects of conflicts especially in relation to environmental justice.(United States Agency for International Development (USAID,2006). These conflicts often arise from the different uses for such resources such as forests, water, pastures and land, or the desire to manage them in different ways. It has been observed that environmental factors are rarely, if ever, the sole cause of violent conflict. However, the exploitation of natural resources and related environmental stresses can be implicated in all phases of the conflict cycle, from contributing to the outbreak and perpetuation of violence to undermining prospects for peace. Disagreements also arise when these interests and needs are incompatible, or when the priorities of some user groups are not considered in policies, programmes and projects. Such conflicts of interest are often inevitable feature in most societies. It has been posited that four important conditions influence how access to resources could become contested. These are: the scarcity of a natural resource; the extent to which two or more groups share the supply; the relative power of those groups; the degree of dependence on this particular resource, or the ease of access to alternative sources. (Antonia Engel and Benedikt Korf, 2005)

Conflict resources are natural resources whose systematic exploitation and trade in a context of conflict contribute to, benefit from or result in the commission of serious violations of human rights, violations of international humanitarian law or violations amounting to crimes under international law. Such a definition would assist the international community in differentiating between cases where natural resources are legitimately used to pay the costs of conflict and in cases where the extraction and trade of such resources is funding illegitimate activity. An internationally-agreed definition of conflict resources would also prove to be a crucial preventive tool, as it would help identify those situations in which natural resources - as potential conflict drivers - are likely to become conflict resources. It could also play an important role in actually deterring the trade in these resources, and consequent human rights abuses, by providing a clear behavioral red flag for businesses and individuals operating in conflict zones. (Paul Collier, 2003).

Conflict over natural resources is often part of, and exacerbates, a larger struggle over political, economic, cultural, or religious issues in the society. Less dramatic, and less well covered by the media, is the role natural resources can play in resolving and managing conflict and in preventing the reoccurrence of violence in the post-conflict environment. In the *Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: Our Common Future*, the World Commission on Environment and Development observed that environmental scarcity is a possible cause of conflicts. Natural resource abundance however is also a known catalyst for conflicts. It has been found that oil-based activities have brought with them the politics of oil and that this has ignited and exacerbated oil based conflicts in the oil-bearing areas. These conflicts are multi-dimensional, with the communal conflicts taking the form of conflict within a community, conflict between communities, and conflict between host communities and the oil companies (Abosede Babatunde, 2010).

Types of Natural Resource Based Conflicts

Water-Based Conflicts

Fresh water is deemed to be an essential resource, central to all ecological and societal activities, including food and energy production, transportation, waste disposal, industrial development and human health. However, those fresh water resources are unevenly and irregularly distributed, and some regions of the world are extremely water-short (Gleick, P.H., 2006).

Drinkable Water scarcity causes and sustains conflict in many parts of the globe; violent conflict over water resources has broken out in countries as diverse as China (Shandong and Guangdong Provinces 2000), Ethiopia (2006), India (2004), Kenya (2005), and Yemen (1999). (Peter Gleick,2006). Bodies of water such as oceans, seas, lakes, and rivers can also be linked to conflict due to their roles in transportation, development, and culture. A population's dependence on sources of income within bodies of water, such as fisheries and offshore oil fields, can lead to conflict. In addition, neither fish nor water follow country borders, nor both must often be shared among countries. In fact, however, most conflicts over water are resolved peacefully, perhaps because water is so important. There are more than 3,800 declarations or conventions on water. That so large a number of agreements exist for water clearly shows the potential for negotiated settlements in disputes over natural resources rather than violent conflict. (Dirk Bryant, et al, 1997).

Biodiversity Conservation and Conflict

Biological diversity refers to the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part: this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems. Most of the conflicts involving biodiversity and communities rotate around forests and their resources. Poor management of forest resources and the absence of an established set of equitable sharing principles among contending parties lead to shifts in resource access and control. Resulting tensions and grievances can lead to armed conflict and even war. Many governments have contributed to conflict by nationalizing their forests, so that traditional forest inhabitants have been disenfranchised while national governments sell trees to concessionaires to earn foreign exchange. A good

example in Kenya is the recent Mau Forest evictions in Rift Valley that generated major political and social impacts in the country. (United Nations Environment Programme, 2014).

Population growth and industrialization are destroying rainforests causing environmental degradation. As a commodity that is easily accessible, easy to transport, versatile, lucrative, and necessary for reconstruction and development, timber can play an important role in all stages of peace and conflict. Examples of conflict over timber can be found in Burma, Cambodia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Liberia. On the other hand, there are also examples of benefit sharing plans in Indonesia and community forest management enterprises in Latin America. Michael T. Klare, 2006).

Land Based Conflicts

Because of population growth and environmental degradation, land that can be used for personal, industrial, or agricultural purposes is becoming increasingly scarce. Possession of land means access to many other resources, such as minerals, timber, and animals. Land therefore often holds a high economic value. In addition, communities often have strong emotional and symbolic attachments to land and the resources on it. It is easy to see why competition for control of valuable land, including issues of government authority and regulation, can cause or sustain conflict. Traditionally, most wars have been fought over control of land (along with other issues); for example, Ecuador and Peru have fought several wars over their disputed border. More recently, violent conflict over land has occurred in China, East Timor, Kosovo, Rwanda, and Tajikistan, to name only a few examples. Most of the land based conflicts often arise from tenure challenges. In Kenya, it has been noted that a number of regions, land ownership and land use rights are often in dispute resulting into land disputes whose negative effects are on the certainty of land markets, tenure and food security, economic production and reduction of poverty (Kalande, W., 2008).

According to the National Land Policy 2009, one of the contemporary manifestations and impacts of the land question in Kenya is inadequate environmental management and conflicts over land and land based resources.

Turkana community, Dasanach and Dongiro fight over the Elemi Triangle, a piece of land that is shared by three countries, I.e Kenya, Ethiopia and Southern Sudan,

The most serious recent example – in the Tana River region of eastern Kenya –led to at least 100 deaths between early August and September 2012. Mombasa has also experienced growing tension between coastal Muslim communities, local political/religious groups and the state.

Minerals, Oil and Gas Conflicts

The two primary sources of fuel are oil (petroleum)—a flammable liquid that can be refined into gasoline—and natural gas, a combustible gas used for fuel and lighting. Fuel scarcity, or at least access to fuel, is one of the greatest concerns for developing and developed countries, given their dependence on energy sources. With a greater global rate of industrialization, many countries have invested in and paid particular attention to alternative types of energy such as nuclear, electrical, wind, and solar energy. U.S. Department of Energy estimates that by 2020, two thirds of the world's known petroleum reserves will be consumed (Michael

T.

Klare, 2006).

Many of the world's largest petroleum reserves are located in areas suffering from political instability or conflict, such as Iran, Iraq, Nigeria, Venezuela, and Sudan. Thus the value and demand for fuel, especially petroleum, allows conflicts in these areas to have an impact on the global economy. On the other hand, the developed world's increasing demand for oil, and its search for "supply security," can exacerbate existing conflicts.

Minerals are naturally occurring substances obtained usually from the ground. According to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), "valuable minerals become conflict minerals when their control, exploitation, trade, taxation or protection contributes to, or benefits from, armed conflict." (Paul Collier, 2003). Conflict minerals have varied commodity values and occur in many geographical locations: for example, diamonds in Western Africa, amber in Russia, and gold in Indonesia. While minerals such as gold and diamonds hold significant value as gems, all minerals generate revenue and power for governments, rebel groups, or whoever owns the land or has the ability legally or illegally to extract them.

Conflicts over minerals do not necessarily stay within boundaries; neighboring countries sometimes compete for resource wealth and thus exacerbate conflict or prevent peace building. Diamonds are the conflict minerals that have received the most attention. They have been used by several rebel groups in Africa as a source of income, including groups in Angola and Sierra Leone. Other examples of conflict minerals include coltan (tantalite, used in cell phones, computers, and game consoles) in the Democratic Republic of Congo and copper in Papua New Guinea (Paul Collier, 2003).

Kenya is endowed with deposits of minerals like gold, diamond, fluor spar, titanium, gemstones and iron ore. Coal, gas and oil deposits have also been recently discovered in the region and people have high expectations that they will play a major role in the region's development. For example, the oil discoveries in Turkana could be a source of conflict among communities and between communities and government arising from feelings of entitlement and equitable access to the proceeds of the exploitation. (Kalande, W., 2008)

According to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), "valuable minerals become conflict minerals when their control, exploitation, trade, taxation or protection contributes to, or benefits from, armed conflict." For instance, the Mui basin coal exploration project in Kitui Kenya has had problems in the past with the local leaders accusing the National Government of impropriety and corruption in tendering process. This slowed the whole process as even the locals are interested in knowing how they will benefit from the coal exploitation. It has been observed that conflicts over minerals do not necessarily stay within boundaries; neighboring countries sometimes compete for resource wealth and thus exacerbate conflict or prevent peace building (Heinrich Boll Stiftung, 2014)

Turkana community and the Pokot community from East Pokot from Baringo County fight over Kapedo Division which is at Turkana East Sub-County under Turkana County, the issue is the oil rich fields,

Water

The main sources of water in rural parts Turkana County are unprotected dug wells, streams, boreholes and boreholes. More than half (61%) of rural households in Turkana County (n= 103,827) use unimproved water sources with majority relying on unprotected wells and streams. However the majority of these households are found in Turkana North district where 60% (n= 43,792) of rural households rely on unimproved water sources (GOK/ UNICEF WASH PROGRAMME, 2013)

Water resources potential for the county is not yet established as no proper monitoring installations exist in permanent rivers. The presumed availability of groundwater along river lines is the key reason for shallow wells and boreholes across the county. Access to water greatly affects food security as clearly observed through levels of livestock production, crop production, sanitation, health and nutrition, and therefore hampering human productivity. The county has rich aquifers at Lotikipi, Nakalale and Napuu, with the latter having been established as a reliable source of water for the growing population in Lodwar. Surface water from the seasonal rivers is accessed by the community during the rainy season, and also accessed by digging holes in the sandy areas of riverbed to access water during the dry season. This water is not portable and hence the communities as exposed to water borne diseases. Despite the dry nature of the county in most parts of the year, there are a few permanent rivers including the Turkwel River, Kerio River, Elelea irrigation canal, Nabwanyang River, Nawoyowoi River. Turkana County presents several springs running from cold to warm to hot springs. The warm springs include; Eliye Springs, also known as Ille Springs. This is a remote village on the western shore of Lake Turkana in Kenya, near the mouth of River Turkwel. Nearby the spring is the Eliye Spring Resort. It is located 50 kilometres east of Lodwar and 40 kilometres south of Kalokol. Koyasa warm spring is found in the North in Kibish ward. The hot springs include; Lomonakipi spring hot spring in Kibish, Muruatapa hot spring, Lobiritit hot spring and Kachapo hot spring in Latea and the Kapedo hot springs. The county also presents a number of cold springs, for example one in Nakurio in Kerio Delta.

Minerals

Turkana County shares almost similar geological formations and structure with the neighbouring countries: Uganda, Ethiopia and Sudan. This is so because the structural evolution, tectonics and volcanism which culminated in the present rock types and structures took place almost at the same span of time. The county is traversed by the extensive Eastern African Rift System, which equally traverses through Tanzania and Ethiopia on the east and through Uganda on the west. It is no wonder then that it is within this structure and deep basins of sedimentary deposits outside it that some prospects of oil and gas deposits are manifested. The cratonic masses bordered by this huge rift structure take the share of many types of metallic and non-metallic mineral deposits and materials.

Turkana County Resource Maps

The table below gives a snapshot of the minerals available, their location of occurrence and their typical uses:

No	Mineral	Location	Typical use	Level of Exploitation
1	Asbestos	Southern part of Lokichar	Insulated boiler covers, roofing sheets, fire proof paints	Untapped
2	Barytes	Lokichar	Manufacture of paints,	Untapped

			drilling muds, as filler; and as an ingredient in glass making	
3	Bentonite	Occurrence fairly spread: needs further exploration	Drilling mud, binder(e,f foundry-sand bond, and iron ore pelletizer), purifier, absorbent (e.g. pet litter). And as a groundwater barrier	Untapped
4	Beryl	Loichangamatak hills	Gemstones, emerald (gree), aquamarine (greenish blue to blue), morganite (pink to orange). Red beryl (red). Heliodor (yello to greenish yellow). Maxixe (deep blue). Goshenite (colorless) and green beryl (light green)	Untapped
5	Bornite/Copper	Kaakelai at Kaaleng-kaikor border, Lokichar;karasuk	Basis of numerous industrial alloys such as brass, gunmetal, speculum, bronze and bell metal	untapped
6	Calcite	Kaeris, kalapata, Turkwel, Emuroy and kirikinie	Ornamental stone and lime products	untapped
7	Chromite	Lokichar	Manufacture of corrosion-resistant alloys	untapped
8	Corundum	Loima, Naadunga, Kanukurudio	Grinding media, polishing compounds, sand papers, grinding wheels and other cutting applications	untapped except for a few people that collect the gemstones after the rains.
9	Galena	Occurrence fairly spread, needs further exploration	manufacture of storage batteries, water pipes, roofing sheets, solders and coverings of electric cables	untapped.
10	Gold	Karasuk, Nakalale, Kaputir, Loima and Sasame	Industry, medicine, computers, electronics, jewelery, dentistry, coins, space art and more	There is quite some artisanal activities and not large scale venture in the entire county.
11	Graphite	Epeiyelal area of Karasuk	Foundry facings and moulds, graphite crucibles, lubricants, paints, dry batteries, brushes for electric motors an generators, stove polishes, electrodes, explosives and pencils.	untapped
12	Garnet	Occurrence fairly spread: needs further exploration	gemstones and use in industry as abrasives	untapped
13	Gypsum	Kapua in Kalokol, Nakaale in Kalapata and Napusmoru in lokichar	Cement industry, in fertilizers as filler in various materials suh as paper and paint, and in the manufacture of plaster of paris.	There is near artisanal activity. The potential is huge for local and regional cement manufacturers
14	Iron Ore	Lokichar, Kaaleng, Kaeris and Lapur	Castings, wire, rod, sheet	untapped
15	Magnesite	Occurrence fairly spread: needs further exploration	Refractory bricks, furnace linings and crucibles	untapped

16	Oil	Lokichar Basin.	Petroleum ether, Petroleum spirit, kerosene or paraffin, diesel oil, lubricating oil and fuel oil.	untapped
17	Silver	Kaeris, Songot and Lokichar	Electrical engineering, electronics, chemical plant and certain brazing alloys	untapped
18	Talc	Occurrence fairly spread: needs further exploration	manufacture of paint, roofing felts, rubber and ceramics.	Untapped
19	Geothermal	Koyasa, Eliye, Lomonakipi, Marua taaba, Lobiritit and kapedo	Generation of green energy	There are a few companies that have expressed interest and discussions with the county government is on going.

Forests

The Forest tree cover in Turkana County is estimated at 4.06%. There exist forests in high altitude ranges or mountain (montane forests) and along river courses (riverine forests). Forests known to exist are found on Loima hills, Mogila hills, Songot hills, Pelekech Hills, Lorionotum, and Lokwanamur.

Wildlife

Lake Turkana is an important site for water birds with up to 220,000 congregants having been recorded at one time and 84 water bird species, including 34 Palearctic migrants, known from the lake according to Nature Kenya. Other aquatic animals in the ecoregion include Hippopotamus amphibius, Crocodylus spp., and an endemic freshwater turtle, the recently discovered and imperiled Turkana mud turtle (*Pelusios broadleyi*). Wildlife in Turkana County is managed under the Western conservation area with head offices are in Kitale. Role of KWS is to carry out Problem Animal Control (PAC) and Human Wildlife Conflict resolution (HWC). The South Turkana National Reserve is under the county Government but currently managed by the KWS. Plans are underway to hand it over to the county government in Kainuk. Turkana County government is making every effort to address the issues of banditry and cattle rustling that have previously portrayed the county as unsafe and insecure. In order to attract meaningful investment and the resultant socio-economic development in the area, the County government must work with the national government to address the perennial security problem. Leopards and Hyenas can be found on the Murueiris Hills, whereas Lions, Ostriches, gazelles elephants are found in Kibish Sub-county. Tortoises are found in Todonyang area. Survey done in Loima identified 87 species of avifauna, 48 in Aminit forest above 2,050 m and the rest in Acacia wetland at 800 – 2,050 m. The only herbivores identified are bushbucks, troops of Olive baboons and bush pigs. Elephants and buffaloes were absent but are known to have existed here in the past.

Renewable Energy

Solar Energy

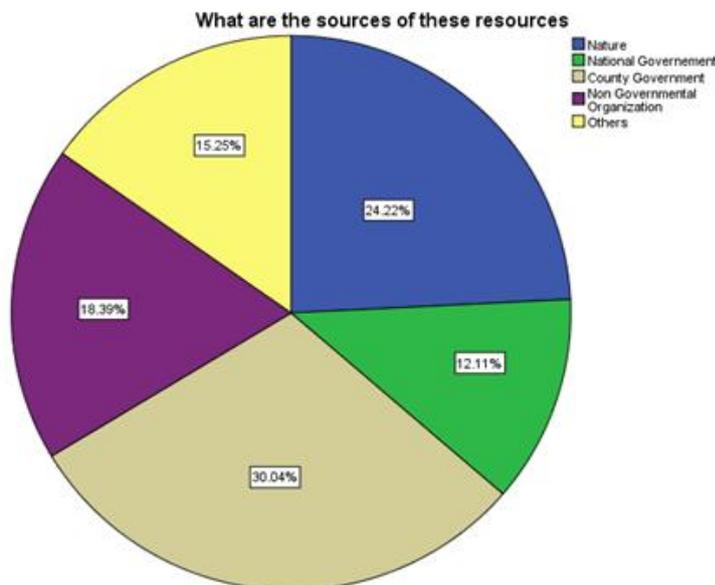
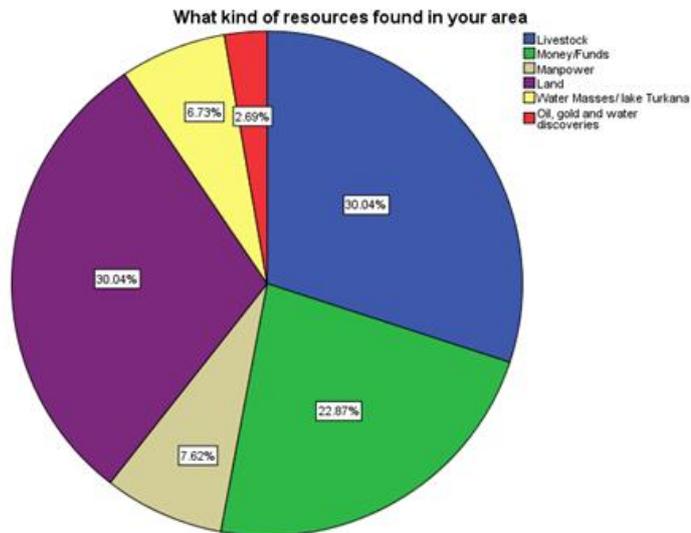
Turkana County enjoys sunlight for an average of 10 hours daily. This is an opportunity that is already being tapped into, albeit on a relatively small scale. The radiant heat and light has been harnessed from the sun as both electrical and thermal form. Electricity generated can be used directly or can be stored in batteries for future use. In the case of storing the power, a charge controller is necessary to protect the battery from damage as a result of overcharging or undercharging. Global Horizontal Irradiance (GHI) and Daily Normal Irradiance (DNI) data acquired from 34 metrological stations over a period of 3 years was used to develop a solar atlas for the country. GHI is more relevant when assessing PV potential and an average value that exceeds 5kWh/m² indicates good solar potential. It is evident from the national atlas that Turkana County receives between 4 - 6kwh/m² of daily solar radiation and therefore has a vast potential for solar energy production.

Wind Energy

Wind energy is extracted from air flow and can either be mechanical or electrical. A wind atlas developed alongside the solar atlas by SWERA in May 2008 based on data collected between 2000 and 2002 from about 34 synoptic ground stations spread across the country at heights of 10m and 50m. Wind speeds above 3.5m/s are enough to spin wind turbines, with speeds above 6m/s being the most ideal for firm electricity generation. Most parts of Turkana County can be categorized as moderate wind energy zones since wind speeds are between 3-5m/s. Northern parts of the county and some parts bordering the lake to the south, are good energy zones since wind speeds experienced are in excess of 5m/s. From a survey done by Economic

Consulting Associates for the kfW project in 2014, the following 7 sites within Turkana County: Naduat, Kokuro, Kalokol, Oropoi, Kataboi, Longtech Island and Lowarengak. Short listing was based on criteria such as absence of the national grid in the area, sufficient electricity demand, economic activities, potential for expansion and synergy with existing projects.

i. To find the types of resource found in Turkana



- i. To examine how these resources can be mobilized
- ii. To analyze the cause of conflict
- iii. To find out how it can be resolved.

Resource Mobilization theory RMT explains social movements by viewing individuals as rational actors that are engaged in instrumental actions that use formal organizations to secure resources and fostering mobilization (McCarthy and Zald 1987)

Resource Mobilization Theory can be broken into two parts.

- i. Attempting to explain people joining social movements with rational actor theory
- ii. Attempting to explain the actions of the Social Movement Organizations (SMO) that are formerly these rational actors by viewing the SMO.

Rational Actor theory states that people will join social movements when the benefit of joining these groups outweigh the cost of the individual. This benefit cannot just be the possibility of achieving the social movement's purported goal. (McCarthy and Zald, 1987)

Resource Mobilization Theory also discounts the necessity of the formation of a collective identity. For a Social Movement organization to form and be effective the individuals within it need to form some sort of collective identity so that they can act with some degree of social cohesion (Beuchler, 1993)

Approaches to Management of Natural Resource-Based Conflicts

Disputes and conflicts, if not well addressed or resolved early, at times degenerate to pose a threat to national security, peace and stability, which are the basic parameters to measure the development of a nation. Conflicts and disputes are inevitable in the use, access and management of natural resources due to the differing needs and values of various persons and/or groups of persons in society in the wake of dwindling resources. The extraction of natural resources has in some instances triggered or fuelled violent conflict in some of the regions. Inter-country disputes may also arise with regard to shared natural resources in terms of who has access and control over the trans-boundary natural resources, for instance, the Migingo Island dispute between Kenya and Uganda. The conflicts, if unaddressed, can spiral into violence, cause environmental degradation, disrupt development projects and undermine livelihoods. Conflict, and more so the resource-based one, has caused tremendous harm to civilians in Kenya particularly women and children and increased the numbers of internally displaced persons in the country. In areas where the conflicts prevail, development programmes have been interrupted. Deterioration in the quality of life and the weakening of political and economic institutions are also likely outcomes (Mohamud, Adan. et al, 2006).

There are basically two main approaches to natural resources conflict management which are formal and informal mechanisms. Formal approaches include the judicial approaches while informal mechanisms include the non-judicial forms of conflict management such as negotiation, conciliation, mediation and diplomatic initiatives and the traditional justice systems, which are either coercive or non-coercive respectively.

At the international level, **Article 33** of the Charter of the United Nations outlines the conflict management mechanisms to include **negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resorting to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of people's own choice**. The national legal systems are usually grounded on Constitutions, legislation or policy statements which may include judicial and regulatory frameworks. This approach majorly uses the adjudication and arbitration processes to settle arising conflicts. The use of alternative mechanisms of conflict management as an approach to conflict management aims to incorporate community members and all the involved parties in finding a lasting solution as well as empowering them to handle any future conflicts through community peace building. To some, this approach is seen as an alternative to the formal judicial systems and hence the name alternative. The other approach under informal mechanisms is the use of customary systems which relies on the traditional belief systems and/or values of the particular community where the conflict arises. This approach incorporates mediation and negotiation to resolve conflicts in an attempt to find a lasting solution to the disputes and conflicts (United Nations, 1945).

Conflict prevention forms an implicit and often unspoken part of natural resource management practices. Traditions, norms, common rules, laws, institutions and policies in natural resource management are ideally all basic elements of conflict prevention, which essentially aims to clarify rights and uses and to bring coexistence to situations of potential resource competition and conflicts of interest (UNEP 2009).

Conflict analysis typically operates with three overall types of conflict **prevention measures** namely

- (i) early warning;
- (ii) direct conflict prevention and
- (iii) structural conflict prevention. Early warning or early response systems seek to monitor and undertake risk analysis in order to provide information for early action to avoid conflicts from arising e.g. participatory monitoring of natural resources and management agreement. Direct conflict prevention focus on short term actions and interventions aimed at preventing conflict at specific situations where the conflict risk is considered high e.g. erection of fences to prevent human-wild life conflict. Structural conflict prevention aims at addressing the root causes of conflicts in order to remove the basis of conflicts to develop in the first place e.g. land forms and recognition of customary rights. (Brockhaus et al. 2003).

According to Castro (2005), conflict *management* measures seek to contain, limit and mitigate ongoing conflicts, and conflict *resolution measures* seek to end conflicts by resolving the underlying incompatibilities. To him, Conflict management/resolution approaches may take the following forms: Negotiation, Mediation, Arbitration, Adjudication, Coalition building, Conciliation, Facilitation and Fact-Finding.

Addressing Trans-boundary Resource Management Challenges

Despite the woes highlighted by the violence surrounding competition for natural resources such as conflict diamonds, natural resources can play a positive role in conflict resolution. Indicators of successful management of natural resources that have contributed to peace include establishment of standards and agreements and efforts at cooperation, co-management, and conservation. Such cooperative actions by parties in conflict can be stepping-stones to continued diplomatic engagement that is necessary to alleviate conflict and build peace. Outside actors have used many techniques in conflict and post-conflict situations to shape natural resource management. International demand drives the value of many natural resources, and thus outsiders participate in the natural resource market. International organizations, foreign investors, and trade-partner countries that are part of this market can influence the local market and governance. In conflict situations, cooperation from these key actors is necessary for the alleviation of improper natural resource use that can escalate and sustain conflict. For example, outside parties have helped with negotiations and agreements, suggested solutions such as eco-parks or sustainable development and conservation mechanisms, pushed for adherence to international standards, and provided the necessary aid and economic incentives to make changes a possibility and help resolve conflicts. **(Edossa et al. 2005).**

The United Nations, for example, passes resolutions and organizes arms embargos or sanctions to help the natural resource business curb illicit economies and move toward transparency. UN peacekeepers and outside security forces can establish peaceful zones and barriers around disputed land, pipelines, oilfields, and other resource-related structures, to help prevent the return of violence. International financial institutions such as the World Bank Group can help with advice on revenue transparency and management, economic stability, and financing resource-driven debts. International businesses and their affiliates can recognize illicit economies and require certification of legal import, export, and trade.

NGOs are often present in post-conflict situations to deliver humanitarian relief, help resettle refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have often been forcefully removed from resource-rich areas, and monitor human rights violations. These NGOs also advocate for enforcement of international standards and other methods of natural resource wealth management. For example, after witnessing brutal crimes and human rights violations associated with diamond extraction in Sierra Leone and Angola in the 1990s, prominent actors (NGOs, governments, and the diamond industry) began negotiations to improve the management of diamond wealth. The result was the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme, a voluntary self-regulation mechanism to promote international standards on the import, export, and sale of diamonds. Put into effect in 2003, the Kimberley Process requires signatories to pass legislation on the legal trade of diamonds, certifying that each gem is a product of legitimate extraction before leaving the country, and to trade only with other signatory countries. With seventy-one signatories, the Kimberley Process has undercut funding sources for rebel groups and as a result the number of wars in Africa has diminished compared to 1990. However, the blood diamond trade still remains an issue in Ivory Coast, where rebels manage to certify diamonds through Ghana and Mali, and with transnational terrorist organizations such as al Qaeda, which has used illicit diamond sales to finance terrorist operations. **(Colin H. Kahl, 2006).**

Other international negotiations and agreements have provided ways to mediate natural resource conflicts and build peace. North and South Korea have recently engaged in talks to negotiate a joint fishing area to prevent dangerous military standoffs that regularly occur on disputed waters on the western sea border, which was not clearly divided at the end of the Korean War conflict. Due to the significant economic impact of marine activities such as fishing and oil extraction, oceans and their boundaries can be a cause of conflict even among developed nations. For example, the dispute over the Kuril Islands between Japan and Russia has prevented the countries from signing a peace treaty to formally end World War II, and this dispute hinders their political and trade relations. In 2002, the World Council on Sustainable Development established the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative, a global effort to ensure that revenues from extractive industries contribute to sustainable growth and development. More than twenty countries have signed on so far, and Nigeria became the first one to pass enabling legislation, which it did in May 2007. The act provides for comprehensive annual audits of the oil, gas, and mining industries and closer oversight of Nigeria's extractive sector.

Environmental organizations at all levels attempt to coordinate international laws and regulations on exclusive economic zones (EEZ), boundaries in international waters, fisheries management, and conservation and sustainability efforts, among other issues. Such efforts attempt to establish agreement over use of oceans to prevent conflict, environmental degradation, and other unsustainable outcomes. Although marine competition does sometimes lead to conflict, the existence of strong standards often allows for quick dispute resolution and effective resource management. Similarly, respect for international law allows for the existence and safety of important waterways such as the Strait of Hormuz in the Persian Gulf, through which 25–40 percent of the world's petroleum output passes each day. Some nations have tried to depoliticize natural resources through a co-management approach that involves the local community, the government, and other stakeholders in the management of the resource in question. Guatemala has a long history of political conflict over the issue of land

ownership. Near the Guatemalan border with Mexico, approximately 50 percent of the forest cover has been lost over the past thirty years; commercial logging, cattle ranching, oil exploration, illegal drug plantings, roads, and agriculture have brought substantial deforestation (**Juanita Sundberg, 1998**). Guatemala chose the biosphere-reserve model to address the environmental conflict that was exacerbated by the years of political conflict the country had experienced. The biosphere-reserve model seeks to solve environmental degradation and poverty in developing countries by balancing environmental protection with the needs of a growing population that relies heavily on natural resources for subsistence. The biosphere-reserve model depoliticizes the local and regional landscapes, encouraging an institutional framework that will hold the indigenous farmers responsible for degradation and allow for conservation without perpetuating poverty in Guatemala. The project seeks the collaboration of the Guatemalan government, NGOs, international aid partners, and the local population including the indigenous people and migrants living in the region. The reserve encompasses a vast forest that carries many vital natural resources but also carries a rich cultural and ecological history as the home to the Maya civilization. (**Juanita Sundberg, 1998**)

Transboundary natural resource conflicts between nation states are rare and a significant number of transboundary agreements exists over jointly owned natural resources e.g. shared water bodies. Nevertheless, progress in developing wider regional governance mechanisms is frequently hampered by opposing national interests. Transboundary collaboration on conflict management and resolution can be enhanced through support to:

- (i) Ensuring that policy dialogues in multilateral natural resource organizations (e.g. river basin organisations) are linked to regional political and/or economic bodies (e.g. SADC, ASEAN etc.);
- (ii) Applying 'multi-track' approaches that work at several levels at once with different stakeholder groups;
- (iii) Incorporating/building on bilateral agreements, where these exist, in order to foster trust and collaborative projects between countries;
- (iv) Establishing mechanisms for local cross-border cooperation and conflict management/resolution, e.g. joint border commissions or regular exchange visits between local authorities;
- (v) Building capacity for regional cooperation and conflict resolution, e.g. training legal experts for mediation and brokerage at the regional level, and innovating economic compensation models;
- (vi) focusing on information sharing as an initial platform for collaboration, including provision of technical climate and natural resource data, and joint resource and conflict assessments, and
- (vii) supporting in-country efforts to increase internal resource use efficiency and policies, thereby reducing possible in-country stumbling blocks and constraints to regional cooperation and resource sharing (Kariuki M, 2014).

III. CONCLUSION

Growing demand for natural resources and the increasing complexity of conflicts make conflict management and resolution more difficult; however, in a world of globalization there is also more incentive for states and communities to work together to establish peace. Since natural resources are necessary for life and growth, it is not surprising that resource scarcity, environmental degradation, and unsustainable consumption sometimes contribute to or cause violent conflict. Nonetheless, there are ways to address natural resource issues that will prevent, manage, or resolve such conflicts.

If environmental justice and democracy are to be achieved, then there is need to adopt an integrated approach to both conflict resolution and dispute settlement mechanisms in order to promote peace, coexistence, justice for all and participation by all the involved parties. Environmental justice entails promotion of equitable treatment of people of all races, incomes and cultures with respect to environmental laws, regulations, policies and decisions. One of the fundamental components of environmental justice is that it seeks to tackle social injustices and environmental problems through an integrated framework of policies. There is need for increased integration of principles of sustainable development into the national legal frameworks of the East African countries and especially the principle of public participation.

Courts have played a useful role in promoting and securing the environmental rights of persons as well as in environmental conservation and are therefore useful in achievement of peace, sustainable development and environmental justice for all.

However, Alternative Dispute Resolution mechanisms such as negotiation, fact finding facilitation and mediation have the potential to enhance environmental justice since they allow parties to enjoy autonomy over the process and outcome; they are expeditious, cost-effective, and flexible and employ non-complex procedures. They greatly enhance the principle of public participation in natural resources management. They result in mutually satisfying outcomes which essentially resolves the conflict thus achieving lasting peace among the previously conflicting parties. There is a need to manage natural resource based conflicts for the sake of peace, prosperity and sustainable development (**Kariuki M., 2014**).

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