
This is the **accepted version** of the review article:

Renom, Juan Gabriel; Mwamidi, Daniel Maghanjo; Domínguez, Pablo. «Holistic ethnographies of East African customary pastoral commons needed?». *Current opinion in environmental sustainability*, Vol. 43 (April 2020), p. 83-90. DOI 10.1016/j.cosust.2020.04.002

This version is available at <https://ddd.uab.cat/record/304636>

under the terms of the  license

1 ‘Holistic ethnographies’ of East African customary pastoral 2 commons needed?

3

4 Juan Gabriel Renom¹, Daniel Maghanjo Mwamidi² and Pablo Domínguez³ (main affiliation), 1 (associate
5 affiliation) *

6 ¹ Social and Cultural Anthropology Department (AHCISP) / Institut de Ciència i Tecnologia
7 Ambients (LASEG), Autonomous University of Barcelona, Spain

8 ² Institute of Environmental Sciences and Technology (LASEG), Autonomous University of
9 Barcelona, Spain

10 ³ Laboratoire de Géographie de l'Environnement (GEODE), UMR-5602 CNRS Université
11 Toulouse 2, France

12 * Corresponding author: Pablo Dominguez, Email: eco.anthropologies3@gmail.com

13

14

15

16

17 Today, major international policies, agencies and programs consider Indigenous

18 Peoples and Community Conserved Areas (also known as ICCAs – Territories of life) to be

19 key management regimes to maintain and advance human well-being, the conservation of

20 the environment and global sustainability¹. Within this context, it is important to note that

21 systems of community-based management of natural resources in Africa could probably

22 be counted in the hundreds of thousands. Given that East Africa is one of the most

23 paradigmatic regions in the world for the study of pastoralism, and that pastoralism is one

24 of the most important natural resource uses in the study of the commons, one could

25 assume the strong importance of pastoral customary commons in the East African region,

26 which our extensive fieldwork and literature review confirm.

27 We believe that *holistic ethnography* of such systems, considered here as the global

28 understanding of the interlinkages among material needs, practices, norms, morals and

29 beliefs that have evolved over time in relation to the constraints of particular landscapes

30 and social histories (see for example Dominguez 2017 [1]), is among the best tools to

¹ <https://www.cbd.int/doc/publications/cbd-ts-64-en.pdf>, <https://www.iucn.org/content/indigenous-and-community-conserved-areas-bold-new-frontier-conservation>, <https://sgp.undp.org/about-us-157/partnerships/icca-gsi.html>, <http://www.iccaregistry.org/>.

31 unveil their indigenous conceptualizations of sustainability, the focus of this special issue.
32 Despite its aptitude as a tool, our exhaustive review of the ethnological literature also
33 confirms that fully *holistic ethnographies*, centering on East African customary pastoral
34 commons and explaining them in their completeness, including their symbolic groundings
35 and how these relate to the rest of the socio-ecological system, are rare. As we will see
36 later in the text, only a few studies have truly focused on this subject and approach. At the
37 same time, other texts touching on pastoral customary commons generally only deal with
38 the issue in passing, as ancillary to another subject. Or, they perform a partial analysis by
39 concentrating mainly on the links of commons to materialist ecology (the commons as
40 essential for sustainable land use in dry lands), or to their social basis (group membership,
41 access rights), while pretty much excluding their more intangible cultural aspects [2].

42 We like to call this the ‘East African contradiction’: a great abundance of
43 anthropological studies on pastoralism and a substantive presence of customary pastoral
44 commons, but little *holistic ethnography* centrally focused on these communal systems.
45 Given this context, our main objective is to provide the broadest overview possible of the
46 available ethnographic literature touching directly or indirectly upon Kenyan and Tanzanian
47 customary pastoral commons. Our goal is to establish a baseline from which to develop
48 the aforementioned much-needed *holistic ethnographies* focusing on these customary
49 systems, to help overcome the underlined contradiction. Moreover, Bollig and Lesogorol
50 [2], cited above concerning the scarcity of *holistic ethnographies* of these commons, also
51 point out the currently much greater scientific focus on “new pastoral commons” (most
52 often top-down based), or on new arrangements in ongoing reaction to prior policies or
53 laws, rather than on customary ones. In this context, seeking to understand customary
54 pastoral commons is rarer than one could initially expect. However, as we will see more in
55 detail in this bibliographic revision, what becomes most rare are studies that attempt to

56 explain how are they anchored in shared values and how their subjective moral standards
57 link to the rest of the socio-ecological system.

58 This lack of nuanced cultural approaches to understanding environmental
59 governance institutions may be linked to two main factors. First, the most detailed
60 ethnographies of the first half of the last century did not, in the main, have the traditional
61 management of natural resources as a specific interest and concern. Questions of
62 sustainability had not arisen with the strength they carry today, so any detailed description
63 of customary pastoral regulatory institutions was presented more as a background to
64 contextualize other aspects of more interest to the anthropology of the time, such as
65 kinship, beliefs, and intergroup relationships. Second, subsequent ethnographic works that
66 addressed pastoralism and natural resources management, from the 1980s onwards, have
67 usually been more focused on material human-ecological balances, on the analysis of the
68 disruptions suffered by those systems, or on the top-down imposed “new commons” very
69 abundant in East Africa. Neither of these approaches or sets of preoccupations are likely
70 to place much importance on the detailed and particular description of the material-
71 symbolic holism of such traditional systems, the focus that could best help explain local
72 cultural notions of sustainability.

73 Our aim, then is not to compare how many East African pastoral commons are
74 centrally dealt with in the anthropological literature in relation to other parts of the world.
75 Instead, it is to first call attention to the scarcity of holistic ethnographies fully centered on
76 customary commons with stable, consensual and long-tested institutional arrangements,
77 embedded in cultural-historical landscapes, which are based in indigenous communities
78 own moral and ethical beliefs. Second, we seek to establish an anthropological
79 bibliographic bedrock, from which to propel and urge new and more *holistic ethnographic*
80 *work* on East African pastoral customary commons.

81 At the same time, and beyond its relevance to customary pastoral commons,
82 studying the East African context is pertinent because the region is currently experiencing
83 particularly important socio-economic and cultural crises around pastoralism, such as tribal
84 and resource conflicts, reduced capacity for adaptation to environmental and political
85 changes, shifts in land tenure systems, and other adverse events that are putting these
86 customary systems increasingly at risk [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8]. This endeavor is timely, as it
87 may work in synergy with the emerging new conservation paradigm of Other Effective
88 Area-Based Conservation Measures (OECMs) which are championed through Aichi
89 Biodiversity target 11 [9].

90

91 **East Africa as a particularly fertile region for the ethnographically holistic
92 study of customary pastoral commons**

93 East Africa is a geographic area with ecological characteristics that are particularly
94 favorable for the extensive activity of pastoralism, as it is dominated by arid and semi-arid
95 savannas with important periodic droughts [5], [10]. For example, over 70% of land in Kenya
96 and over 50% of land in Tanzania is said to be occupied by pastoralist groups [11]. Even as we
97 recognize that there is need for greater accuracy in these calculations [12], we can still accept
98 that it is an activity of great economic and environmental importance for the region, and one with
99 great relevance to its food security, landscape organization, and development potential [13].

100 In the East African context, numerous studies, old and new, have characterized
101 pastoralism as a form of livelihood which is perilous to environmental sustainability [14],
102 [15] [16]. Nevertheless, in contradiction to this discourse, the region's arid and semi-arid
103 landscapes support an especially high pastoralist presence while also hosting both high
104 levels of biodiversity and a high level of endemism, in many cases even pastorally-

105 dependent. The region is thus a true biocultural diversity hotspot, which has been resilient
106 for centuries or millennia [17], [18]. In fact, studies indicate that indigenous pastoral
107 communities' socio-cultural and economic systems may have contributed considerably to
108 the shaping and reshaping of East Africa's ecosystems, leading to conservation and
109 resilience of a pastoralist-conditioned biodiversity [17], [19].

110 Furthermore, interest in the great diversity of indigenous, sustainable forms of
111 environmental governance in the region is growing [20]. This is particularly the case for
112 those areas with increasing pressure on ecosystems, where socio-environmental conflicts
113 are intensifying, and difficulties in finding a balance between biodiversity conservation and
114 economic and social development are increasing in pastoral dry lands [20], [21].

115 With the emergence during the nineteen-eighties of the perspective of new ecology
116 [22], and the new theory of resources of collective action [23], an ethnographically based
117 critical analysis of the conventional tragedy of the commons theory emerged. It
118 demonstrated that community management conservation outputs could be very similar or
119 even more efficient than private or state management [24]. Realizing the environmental
120 and social failure of applied policies, the dominant discourse against pastoralist and
121 traditional commons management began to change. Emerging discourses began to
122 emphasize the importance of local and indigenous institutions as a strategy to implement
123 sustainable conservation and development policies, adjusted to local populations' needs
124 and ways of life [25], [26].

125 In this context, recent works have confirmed the historical existence of persistent,
126 sustainable arrangements governing socio-ecological relations in the region. These have
127 drawn attention, as they offer countervailing arguments to discourses of overgrazing,
128 where these are presented as an excuse for devaluing customary systems [27]. At the

129 same time, other authors [4], working from a complexity perspective, have confirmed the
130 historical resilience of these systems in the diverse context of the Baringo-Bogoria basin.

131 Within this framework of slow re-evaluation and global recognition of indigenous
132 peoples' and local communities' conceptualizations of sustainability and practices of
133 environmental conservation, one could assume that anthropologists should have given
134 great attention to holistic research, description and analysis of local traditional communal
135 pastoral governance cases in East Africa. These systems certainly fit the model of
136 increasingly valued indigenous ways of sustainability. As noted above, this attention would
137 seem to follow logically from the growing interest in such systems, this region's
138 paradigmatic pastoralism, the centrality of pastoralism in understandings of the commons,
139 and the strong attention that East African pastoralism has received from anthropology.

140

141 **Scarcity of holistic ethnographies of East African customary pastoral**
142 **commons**

143 Despite the seemingly logical set of expectations described above, our ethnographic
144 literature review about customary community-based managements of pastoral resources
145 in East Africa has made evident the limited coverage of such systems through fully holistic
146 ethnographies. This discrepancy persists, even as the region has given birth to some of
147 the most relevant ethnographical studies on pastoralism [10], [28], [29], [11], [30], [31],
148 [32]. For example, East Africa is the source of founding concepts in the anthropology of
149 pastoralism, such as the cattle complex [33]. While common governance systems are
150 characteristic of pastoralism broadly [34] and of those in East Africa specifically [35], as we
151 ourselves have been able to attest through ethnographic fieldwork [36], [37], their
152 prevalence alone has simply not closed the literature gap .

153 In the literature prior to 1960, some ethnographic works already provide descriptions
154 that clearly suggest the existence of pastoral commons among particular Kenyan and
155 Tanzanian groups (e.g. in the Maasai: [38], Sukuma: [39] and Datoga case: [40]). There
156 are also several studies conducted over the last thirty years that, in their descriptions,
157 indicate the persistence in the region of customary pastoral management institutions. They
158 document practices of management where rights and decisions are arbitrated by
159 institutions intertwined at various levels of social organization.

160 As an example, we would like to draw the readers' attention to studies of the adaptive
161 capacity of the Maasai from Monduli and Longido districts in Northern Tanzania [41]. The
162 authors, Goldman and Riosmena, point out that the rights of access to and movement
163 within common grazing lands on Maasai territory are traditionally delimited by herders'
164 belonging to different tribal fractions. This fact, and the complexity of rights and decision-
165 making systems among the Maasai had also been previously pointed out by Galaty [42].
166 He observed that different institutional levels of social organization, from status and
167 authority held in the household (*olmerei*), belonging to a section (*olosho*), clan (*olgilata*),
168 age unity (*olporor*) and a particular settlement (*ekang*) are factors that influence rights and
169 decisions on the use of the territory and its resources. For instance, although most direct
170 decisions on livestock management depend on each head of household, such decisions
171 may also be conditioned by clan rules and decisions or even the age group. Although the
172 right of access, circulation, and use of the territory are marked by membership in a section,
173 de facto, the use of a specific territory also depends on the direct decisions taken by the
174 council of elders of that place [42].

175 At the same time, Mwilawa and colleagues [43] show the persistence of *Olopololi* or
176 *Alalili*. These are protected areas under customary rules which temporarily or totally
177 exclude grazing in certain areas. Potkanski [44], in his work on the Maasai of Ngorongoro

178 and Salei (northern Tanzania), describes a context in which customary institutions of
179 decision-making, management and sanction have been usurped by modern administrative
180 structures. Nonetheless, with his descriptions he shows that, although they have less
181 power, traditional institutions are still working, and maintain a certain legitimacy for the
182 common management of natural resources.

183 Potkanski [44] describes, for example, how belonging to the clan or to different age
184 groups continues to be very important in pastoral management. Ownership and access to
185 pastoral land and water is collective, and Maasai in the region still retain the knowledge of
186 traditional territorial divisions managed in the form that Potkansky calls "controlled access
187 collective property". Under this regime, each community has strict rules, agreed upon by
188 consensus among the group of elders. Thus, important pastoral community decisions
189 continue to be taken collectively. Potkanski concludes that the Maasai's customary
190 territorial management system relies primarily on environmental restrictions and on
191 collectively self-imposed access rights to (and access restrictions on) water and
192 grasslands. Moreover, he states, "*This system has proved to be flexible and efficient, and
193 so far has prevented land degradation in this area (p15)*" [44]. Nevertheless, drawing an
194 assessment from the above observation of Maasai customary norms in management of
195 pastoral commons implies an ethnographic gap. We contend that these studies ought to
196 have delved deeper into how these institutions govern pastoral resources such as pasture,
197 water, and biodiversity, as well as coexistence with wildlife, in relation to a full set of values
198 and beliefs that mark the system as a whole. Instead, these appear merely in passing
199 descriptions.

200 According to McCabe [45], Turkana pastoralists of Northwestern Kenya have
201 institutions led by elders who ensure environmental protection. These institutions persist or
202 simply exist, although in a more diffuse way, in a context where the difficulties and dangers

203 of the environment, such as aridity, distance to wells or the risk of robberies and diseases
204 limit the use of territory and directly influence pastoral activity. As usual in these societies,
205 kinship serves as the basis for rights to territory and access to resources. Thus, the right of
206 access to wells is directly linked to one's family ties. Section membership provides the
207 main source of rights over a particular area, and entails the obligation to fiercely defend it.
208 McCabe also points out that the constant animosity and warfare between neighboring
209 groups contributes to the preservation of areas of Turkana territory that, despite being rich
210 in pastures, are rarely used due to the high risk of incurring assault.

211 These institutions, whose deep-rooted cultural relations are not fully disclosed,
212 ensure in any case that livestock populations and the patterns of resources use do not
213 exceed the carrying capacity of their landscape. They thus limit biomass loss and land
214 degradation. In addition, these customary institutions ensure a high mobility of livestock by
215 promoting frequent migration so as to minimize the ecological footprint in one grazing area
216 [46]. Ng'asike [47], Little and Leslie [48] point out in their turn that practices such as herd-
217 and food source-diversification, periodic movement of people and livestock, and robust
218 social relationships that increase family-to-family or village-to-village support among
219 Turkana pastoralists have been key strategies to survive in this arid region with low rainfall
220 and food shortages.

221 The aforementioned survival strategies of the Turkana communities are similar to
222 those described for the Maasai in northern Tanzania. The Maasai have diversified
223 livelihoods in different climatic patterns and times, and reduce total dependency on
224 livestock when necessary to decrease the pressure on pastoral resources, helping so to
225 conserve wildlife and environment in their territory [49]. However, in our view these three
226 studies in Turkana ought to have made a deep assessment of customary institutions'

227 continuity and how this links to local conceptions of sustainability by focusing more on
228 cultural aspects. Again, we are far from the goal of a *holistic ethnography*.

229 In a study of Datoga grazing patterns in Mabulu district (near Lake Eyasi), Sieff [50] []
230 shows that the Datoga have a complex, sustainable herding cycle based on their
231 traditional environmental knowledge, concrete grazing regimes and the herds' needs
232 according to the season. During the rainy period, the majority of livestock tends to stay
233 near the household. When the dry season starts, they move to the plains. When that
234 season is advanced, the herds are moved to near the shores of Lake Eyasi and to nearby
235 hills where greater humidity is found and pasture has been left to grow. Sieff also shows
236 that, despite the dryness of some moments during the year, the Datoga maintain a daily
237 livestock watering pattern that permits continuity of the system year after year, producing
238 ecologically sustainable outcomes.

239 According to Birley [51], Sukuma agro-pastoralists have a large number of
240 cooperative traditions. The basis of their organization are age and sex groups, from which
241 collective and reciprocal actions are organized. Kamwenda [52] points out the persistence
242 among the Sukumu of traditional grazing-land exclusion systems (*Ngitili*), creating a
243 reserve for specific moments of the year. Nkonya's [53] work on Sukuma customary
244 institutions involved in water management, often related to pastoralism, shows that the
245 Sukuma own communal lands. Their resource management is governed by the main
246 Sukuma's institution, male-only community assemblies called *Dagashida*. Cooperation
247 between neighbors and between clan members is paramount. In fact, Birley reports, they
248 traditionally form corporate units that share resources and a workforce. Called *Lubili*,
249 decisions and solidarity among members of these units are regulated by a council
250 (*Nzengo*), in which, unlike the *Dagashida*, women can also participate. It is in the
251 *Dagashida*, however, where the major decisions and regulations are made, and on which

252 the responsibility to enforce the rules and decisions and to penalize offenders falls.
253 Further, although clan members are the owners of private wells, well owners are required
254 to share water with their neighbors and their clan members through *Bakaya*, the traditional
255 name of the clan unit in Kisukuma. Again, however, Birley, Kamwenda and Nkonya mainly
256 focus on exploring the niches occupied by these populations, and the technical
257 administration of those niches.

258 Coppolillo [54] mentions access to water as fundamental, since it limits grazing areas
259 also among the Sukuma, despite their living in rainier areas than other groups [54]. The
260 case studies of the Datoga and Sukuma have tried to understand sustainability from a
261 social relationship point of view. This is very encouraging, because other studies have not
262 delved into this arena in depth. However, these studies could have focused also on
263 elements inherent to culture that bind these social institutions - such as respect, religion,
264 and generosity - for us to understand their sustainability better. For instance, Coppolillo's
265 study ought to have inquired about the consequences of some herders denying others
266 access to water on a private well. Are they compelled by the community's leadership or
267 coercion of some kind? Or, is the decision to share water with your fellow herders taken
268 out of compassion to a fellow clan/kinsmen, religious considerations, ancestral respect, or
269 respect for shared humanity?

270 Stiles [55] also notes that Gabra from Marsabit district (Northern Kenya) often
271 convene clan councils (*Korra*) for decision-making related to herd management. These
272 decision councils can be called upon at any social level (clan, age group, settlement
273 neighbors or tribe) depending on the kind of issue to be addressed. Nevertheless, for herd
274 management, the main *Korra* operates at the clan level. All these councils are led by
275 prestigious male elders, and are attended by all married men. Women have no direct

276 decision-making power in them, though women elders can exert some influence on the
277 final decision.

278 In addition, there is evidence that high mobility may enhance environmental
279 sustainability and protection across the pastoral landscapes of East Africa. High mobility
280 generally implies the existence of important communal organizations and reduces
281 communities' ecological footprint [56]. However, land-use changes, including protected
282 areas creation, but also social, demographic and political changes in neighboring
283 communities, are contributing to jeopardizing these ecological mitigation strategies,
284 because they often restrict movements of livestock from one grazing area to another [3],
285 [36], [46] [57], [58].

286

287 **Studies closer to the proposed standards**

288 As pointed out above, something emerging from this literature review is the near
289 absence of works addressing descriptions and analysis of these socio-ecological systems
290 from a deeply holistic perspective that fully merges the material and the symbolic. In
291 almost all cases, to get such a perspective on a particular system requires gathering the
292 pieces from scattered data coming from various authors and, in some cases, from
293 literature addressing the management of other resources. This is the case of Nkonya's
294 theses, focused on traditional Sukuma's water resource management, or even other
295 subjects, as is the case for Bernardi [38] or Rigby [59] From fitting together these pieces,
296 one gets a more complete perspective, but it is still puzzling to encounter such gaps, and
297 hard to grasp the full panorama.

298 While for such a relevant pastoralist region a literature with more holistic descriptions
299 would be expected, the following works seem closer to providing the sought-after

300 perspectives. Their joining of material and non-material features permit a better entrée into
301 local notions of sustainability. In that sense, among the literature cited, the contributions of
302 authors as Lane [60], Robinson [61], Bollig and Lesorogol [2] Klima [62], or Mwamidi and
303 colleagues [36] should be noted.

304 Lane [60] shows that the pastoralist Barabaig of Hanang District (Tanzania) have
305 deep and sophisticated knowledge of their environment. Although he does not provide any
306 detailed description, he insinuates that they have hierarchical institutions of control of
307 access and use of the territory and its resources in a basically tripartite system of decision
308 levels: household, clan, and community. Thus, community issues are discussed in a public
309 assembly (*Getabaraku*), where decisions are made by consensus. They also form
310 committees to decide on sanctions (*Makchamed*). In general, the Barabaig have a
311 complex web of rules and knowledge, which avoid the depletion of pastoral resources. For
312 example, they practice grazing cycles established through strict regulation of access to
313 land, water and other pastoral resources. These regulations are based on deep traditional
314 knowledge of soil types, topography and groundwater in each area of their territory, and
315 the location and condition of the vegetation that these factors imply at every moment of the
316 year. This is accompanied by a cultural belief that territory is not owned, but carries a right
317 of usufruct inherited from ancestors that must be preserved for following generations [60].

318 According to Robinson and colleagues [63], special councils (*Fula gahs*) guided by
319 an elder with political prestige (*Yuba*) are convened among pasturing neighbors (*Olla*) of
320 the Gabra group. The councils create space for discussion and agreement, by consensus,
321 on issues such as access to common resources like water, collective management of
322 herds, and limiting the group grazing areas [63]. Both Stiles [55] and Robinson [61] point
323 out that the Gabra have several communal institutions for the management of trees,
324 grazing lands and water. They also establish sacred zones and special areas, under

325 specific norms governing the use of their resources [61]. However, these authors do not
326 describe or specify any of these institutions or the sanctions in case of non-compliance
327 with the communal agreements.

328 Bollig and colleagues [64] show, further, that the Pokot of Baringo County (Kenya)
329 have neighboring councils (*Kokwo*). These are customary councils for decision-making,
330 including for decisions regarding access to common resources, such as grazing lands.
331 They are located in traditional places, usually under particular large trees, and they are
332 composed of all initiated men living in the area at that moment, under the control of a few
333 prestigious elders. In reference to similar grazing exclusion areas, Mwilawa and
334 colleagues [43] cite the existence of temporary grazing exclusion reserves (*Milaga*) among
335 the Gogo agro-pastoralists of Dodoma region (Tanzania). In the manner of Sukuma *Ngitili*
336 or Maasai *Olopololi /Alalili*, these consist of reserved areas from which grazing is excluded
337 during some period of time by common agreement among the community. Madulu [65]
338 similarly points to the existence of sacred ceremonial areas excluded from use among the
339 Irangi of Kondoa district in Dodoma region.

340 Klima on his side [62] points out mostly at economic-ecological rationales underlying
341 the patterns of movement of herds among the Barabaig, at the same time as the
342 importance of elders' councils in collective decision-making, and of kinship in their mobility
343 across the territory. However, it is interesting to learn in his work that witchcraft
344 accusations play a role in the distribution and mobility of herds across the territory, in ways
345 that affect the environmental impact of grazing. Among the Barabaig, those accusations
346 have important consequences, ranging from expulsion from the settlement to ostracism.
347 For example, a Barabaig who looks at other people's cattle too much may be accused of
348 having cast a spell if one of those animals suddenly becomes ill or dies. Therefore, to

349 avoid the risk of such accusations, the shepherds tend to disperse, rather than graze their
350 flocks close to the herds of other families.

351 Mwamidi and Dominguez [66] observed that community elders in Mwanda-Marungu
352 pastoral commons in the Taita Hills (Kenya) have devised several collectively agreed-upon
353 strategies that guarantee the socio-ecological sustainability of their territories. These
354 strategies include for example herding that promotes *in situ* wildlife protection. This is
355 conducted through a customary norm that, in order to avoid transmission of illnesses
356 between wild and domestic animals, all livestock must have vacated the water and salt lick
357 points after 3 pm every day. This promotes ordered human-wildlife co-existence that
358 respects local notions of necessary cohabitation. Mwamidi and colleagues [37] also
359 reports how elders protect indigenous trees that are considered a treasure among
360 Daasanach pastoralist communities. They protect the trees by all possible means,
361 conceiving of both humans and trees as all belonging to one family—the Daasanach
362 community. A curse will fall upon anyone who destroys trees that are used to cure
363 diseases among their people. In their conception, cutting a tree is like killing a person,
364 because the medicine the trees provide saves the lives of the sick. Mwamidi, Renom and
365 Dominguez frequently document metaphors like these in their PhDs, as they constitute
366 cultural representations that feed communities' own notions of how to sustain local
367 ecosystems through a relational ethos.

368

369 **Conclusion: Paying greater holistic ethnographical attention to Pastoral
370 Indigenous and Community Conserved Areas (PICCAs) in East Africa**

371 All these data point directly or indirectly to the past existence and present persistence
372 of indigenous management systems of pastoral common resources. Many authors

373 reviewed here invoke them as institutions and practices that may often still be valid and
374 effective in promoting sustainable management, even if subject to strong disruptions (e.g.,
375 in Dasanaach or Taita communities). Nonetheless, it is clear after our review of the
376 literature that the study of pastoral commons in East Africa lacks a more holistic
377 ethnographical approach. We find this paucity despite the commons' fulfillment of an
378 immense role in the pastoralist economies at the center of a great proportion of the
379 ethnographic literature on East Africa. It seems strange to see pastoralism so
380 overwhelmingly studied while such a key component of it, its commons, remain so
381 incompletely approached. The set of studies reviewed ratifies the abundance of customary
382 pastoral commons in Kenya and Tanzania, which, as we have said, have great importance
383 for global environmental sustainability. Yet the commons are in most cases treated only
384 partially and their cultural analysis is rather slim in comparison to the more material and
385 structural parts of these systems. It is precisely these cultural analyses, however, that
386 could provide better understandings of the indigenous conceptualizations of sustainability
387 that this special issue addresses. While East Africa is still home to all sorts of pastoral
388 commons [60], [50], [59], only a very few anthropological works are dedicated to explaining
389 their functioning in terms of both materialist and non-materialist factors (e.g.
390 conceptualizations).

391 As Berkes [67] puts it, the challenge is to build linkages between different kinds of
392 knowledge, and to find synergies to produce better understandings than either could do
393 alone. And to do this, it is a prerequisite to surface and analyze these self-governance
394 systems through holistic, transcultural, in-depth ethnographies that cross the boundaries of
395 anthropology's own internal schools of thought. We know those approaches exist, and
396 have been applied to other pastoral commons around the world [68]. Therefore, while their
397 importance may be recognized and claimed in the broader scholarly literature, it is

398 impossible to confer upon these extremely human systems an appropriate assessment,
399 support, and value in the absence of more holistic approaches within anthropology.

400

401

402 ***Papers of special interest**

403 ****Papers of outstanding interest**

404 **Bibliography**

405

- [1] P. DOMINGUEZ, "Political Ecology of Shifting Cosmologies and Epistemologies among Berber Agro-Sylvo-Pastoralists in a Globalizing World," *Journal for the study of Religion, Nature & Culture*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 227-248, 2017.
- [2] M. Bollig and C. Lesorogol, "The "new pastoral commons" of Eastern and Southern Africa," *International Journal of the Commons*, vol. 10, no. 2, p. 665-687, 2016**.
- [3] K. Mkutu, "Pastoralists, politics and development projects: WORKING PAPER 7," United States International University, Nairobi, 2019.
- [4] M. A. David and B. Michael, "The Journal of Eastern African Studies," *Resilience and collapse: histories, ecologies, conflicts and identities in the Baringo-Bogoria basin, Kenya*, vol. 10, no. 1, 2016.
- [5] E. K. E. Kaye-Zwiebel, "Kenyan pastoralist societies in transition: Varying perceptions of the value of ecosystem services," *Ecology and Society*, vol. 19, no. 3, 2014.
- [6] E. A. ROTH, "Traditional Pastoral Strategies in a Modern World: An Example from Northern Kenya," *Human Organization*, vol. 55, no. 2, pp. 219-224, 1996.
- [7] J. G. Galaty, "THE COLLAPSING PLATFORM FOR PASTORALISM: LAND SALES AND LAND LOSS IN KAJIADO COUNTY, KENYA," *Nomadic Peoples*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 20-39, 2013.
- [8] E. Fratkin, "East African Pastoralism in Transition: Maasai, Boran, and Rendille Cases," *African Studies Review*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 1-25, 2001.
- [9] J. Harry, "Other Effective Area-Based Conservation Measures (Strategic plan 2011-2020)," IUCN, 2019.
- [10] K. Homewood, *Ecology of African Pastoralist Societies*, Oxford: James Currey Ltd, 2008.
- [11] E. Fratkin, K. Galvin and E. Roth, *African Pastoral Systems: an Integrated Approach*, L. Rienner, Ed., Boulder, CO, 1994*.
- [12] N. Burgess, N. J. K. I. Butynskid, M. Niamir-Fuller, A. Bensada and A. Waters-Bayer, "A case of benign neglect: Knowledge gaps about sustainability in pastoralism and rangelands," United Nations Environment Programme and GRID-Arendal, Nairobi and Arendal, 2019.

- [13] FAO., "Pastoralism in Africa's drylands," FAO, Rome, 2018.
- [14] D. K. Davis, "Desert 'Wastes' of the Maghreb: Desertification Narratives in French Colonial Environmental History of North Africa," *Cultural Geographies*, vol. 11, no. 4, p. 359–387., 2004.
- [15] F. K. Hare, "Making of the Desert: Climate, Ecology and Society," *Economic Geography*, vol. 53, pp. 332-345, 1977.
- [16] F. P. Conant, "Thorns paired, sharply recurved: Cultural controls and rangeland quality in East Africa," in *Desertification and Development. Dryland Ecology in Social Perspective*, London, Academic Press,, 1982.
- [17] P. Little, "Pastoralism, Biodiversity, and the Shaping of Savanna Landscapes in East Africa," *Africa: Journal of the International African Institute*, vol. 66, no. 1, p. 37–51, 1996.
- [18] B. Rene, "The evolution of arid ecosystems in Eastern Africa," *Journal of Arid Environments*, vol. 66, pp. 66564-584, 2006.
- [19] D. Johnson, "Nomadism and Desertification in Africa and the Middle East," *GeoJournal*, vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 51-66, 1993.
- [20] R. Katebuka, "Effective Biodiversity Conservation Challenges in Africa: A Case of East Africa," *Biology International*, vol. 52, pp. 35-47, 2012.
- [21] T. R. Kelemework, "Natural resource degradation and conflict in the East African pastoral drylands," *African Security Review*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 270-278, 2015.
- [22] I. Scoones, "New ecology and the social sciences: what prospects for a fruitful engagement?," *Annual Review of Anthropology*, vol. 28, pp. 479-507, 1999.
- [23] E. Ostrom, *Governing the Commons: The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990, p. 270.
- [24] E. Araral, "Ostrom, Hardin and the Commons: A Critical Appreciation and a Revisionist View," *Environmental Science and Policy*, vol. 13, no. 15, 2013.
- [25] L. Glowacki and K. Gönc, "Customary institutions and traditions in pastoralist societies: neglected potential for conflict resolution," 2013**.
- [26] McPeak J, "Individual and collective rationality in pastoral production: evidence from northern Kenya," *Human Ecology*, vol. 33, no. 2, pp. 171-197, 2005.
- [27] D. H. Johnson and D. M. Anderson, *The Ecology Of Survival: Case Studies From Northeast African History*, New York: Routledge, 2019, p. 339.
- [28] K. Rodgers and W. Homewood, *Maasailand Ecology: Pastoralist Development and Wildlife Conservation in Ngorongoro, Tanzania*, Cambridge University Press, 2004.
- [29] D. Anderson and V. Broch-Due, *The Poor Are Not Us: Poverty and Pastoralism in Eastern Africa (Eastern African Studies)*, Ohio University Press, 2000*.

[30] J. G. Galaty and P. Bonte, *Herders, Warriors and Traders. Pastoralism in Africa*, Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1991*.

[31] M. Herskovit, "The Cattle Complex in East Africa," *American Anthropologist*, vol. 28, p. 230–72, 1926.

[32] M. Morit, P. Scholte, I. M. Hamilton and S. Kari, "Open Access, Open Systems: Pastoral Management of Common-Pool Resources in the Chad Basin," *Human Ecology*, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 351-365, 2013.

[33] M. Herskovitz, "The cattle complex in East Africa," *American Anthropologist*, vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 230-272, 2009.

[34] K. Galvin, "Transitions: Pastoralists Living with Change," *Annu. Rev. Anthropol.*, vol. 38; p. 185–98, 2009.

[35] T. Haller, G. Fokou, G. Mbeyale and P. Meroka, "How fit turns into misfit and back: institutional transformations of pastoral commons in Africa floodplains," *Ecology and Society* ., vol. 18, no. 1, p. 34, 2013.

[36] D. M. Mwamidi, J. G. Renom, A. Fernández-Llamazares, P. Domenguez, D. Burgas and M. Cabeza, "Contemporary Pastoral Commons in East Africa as OECMs: A case study from the Daasanach Community," *International Journal of Protected Areas (PARKS)*, vol. 24, pp. 79-88, 2018**.

[37] D. M. Mwamidi, J. Renom and P. Dominguez, "Do Pastoral Commons exists in Contemporary East Africa? The case of Daasanach in Northern Kenya.," *Machakos University Journal of Science and Technology*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 8-20, 2018.

[38] B. Bernardi, The Age-System of the Masai, Pontificio Museo Missionario Etnologico: Disponible en Human Relations Area Files (eHRAF), 1955.

[39] R. E. Tanner, "Law enforcement by communal action in Sukumaland, Tanganyika territory," *Journal of African Administration*, vol. 7, pp. 159-165, 1955.

[40] M. G. Wilson, "The Tatoga of Tanganyika," *Tanganyika notes and records*, no. 33, 1952.

[41] M. Goldman and F. Riosmena, "Adaptive capacity in Tanzanian Maasailand: changing strategies to cope with drought in fragmented landscapes," *Global Environmental Change*, no. 23, pp. 588-597, 2013.

[42] J. Galaty, "Land and livestock among Kenyan Maasai," *Journal of Asia and African Studies*, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 68-88 , 981.

[43] A. Mwilawa, D. Komwihangilo and M. Kusekwa, "Conservation of forage resources for increasing livestock production in traditional forage reserves in Tanzania," *African Journal of Ecology*, vol. 1, no. 46, p. 85–89, 2008.

[44] T. Potkanski, "Property concepts, herding patterns and management of natural resources among the Ngorongoro and Salei Maasai of Tanzania," International Institute for Environment and Development, London, 1994* .

[45] J. T. McCabe, "Turkana pastoralism: A case against the Tragedy of the Commons," *Hum Ecol*, vol. 18, p. 81–103, 1990.

[46] F. Opiyo, O. Wasonga, M. Nyangito, J. Schilling and R. Munang, "Drought Adaptation and Coping Strategies Among the Turkana Pastoralists of Northern Kenya," *International Journal of Disaster Risk*

Science, vol. 6, no. 3, 2015.

- [47] J. T. Ng'asike, *Turkana Children's Sociocultural Practices of Pastoralist Lifestyles*, ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY, 2010.
- [48] M. A. Little and W. P. Leslie, Turkana herders of the dry savanna: Ecology and biobehavioural response of nomads to an uncertain environment, Oxford University Press, 2000, pp. 81-91.
- [49] J. T. McCabe, "Sustainability and Livelihood Diversification among the Maasai of Northern Tanzania," *Human Organization*, vol. Vol. 62, no. 2, pp. 100-111, 2003.
- [50] D. Sieff, "Herding strategies of the Datoga pastoralists of Tanzania. Is household labor a limiting factor," *Human Ecology*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 519-544, 1997*.
- [51] M. Birley, "Resource Management in Sukumaland, Tanzania," *Africa*, vol. 52, p. 1-30, 1982*.
- [52] G. Kamwenda, "Ngitili agrosilvipastoral systems in the United Republic of Tanzania," *Unasylva*, no. 53, pp. 46-50, 2002.
- [53] L. Nkonya, "Drinking from own cistern: customary institutions and their impacts on rural water management in Tanzania," Kansas State University, Manhattan, 2006*.
- [54] P. Coppolillo, "The landscape ecology of pastoral herding: spatial analysis of land use and livestock production in East Africa," *Human Ecology*, vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 527-560, 2000.
- [55] D. Stiles, "The Gabbra: traditional social factors in aspects of land-use management," *Nomadic Peoples*, no. 30, pp. 41-52, 1992*.
- [56] UNDP, "Pastoralism and Mobility in drylands: Global Imperative Challenge Paper," UNDP, 2003. [Online]. Available: <https://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Environment/>. [Accessed 21 08 2019].
- [57] F. U. Msocco, S. C. Kifugo, M. Said, M. Neselle, G. Van, R. Reid and J. De Leeuw, "Drivers and impacts of land-use change in the Maasai Steppe of northern Tanzania: an ecological, social and political analysis," *J Land Use Sci*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 261-281, 2011.
- [58] R. F. Graham, "The 2017 Shooting of Kuki Gallmann and the Politics of Conservation in Northern Kenya," *African Studies Reviews*, vol. 61, no. 2, pp. 210-236, 2018.
- [59] P. Rigby, *Cattle and Kinship among the Gogo: A semi-pastoral Society of Central Tanzania*, Cornell University Press, 1969.
- [60] C. Lane, Past practices, present problems, future possibilities: Natural resource management in pastoral areas of Tanzania, *Institutional Issues in Natural Resources Management. Occasional Paper* ed., vol. 9, H. S. Marcussen, Ed., International Development Studies, Roskilde University, 1993*.
- [61] L. Robinson, "A complex-systems approach to pastoral commons," *Human Ecology*, vol. 37, pp. 441-451, 2009**.
- [62] G. J. Klima, *The Barabaig; East African cattle-herders*, (Case studies in cultural anthropology), Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

[63] L. Robinson, J. Sinclair and H. Spaling, "Traditional pastoralist decision-making processes: lessons for reforms to water resources management in Kenya," *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, vol. 53, no. 7, pp. 847-862, 2010.

[64] M. Bollig, C. Greiner and M. Österle, "Inscribing identity and agency on the landscape: of pathways, places, and the transition of the public sphere in East Pokot, Kenya," *African Studies Review*, vol. 57, no. 3, pp. 55-78, 2014*.

[65] N. F. Madulu, "Impacts of population pressure and poverty alleviation strategies on common property resource availability in rural Tanzania," *African Journal of Environmental Assessment and Management*, Vols. 26-49, 2005.

[66] D. M. Mwamidi and P. Dominguez, "Pastoral Commons as Areas of Conservation: The case of Taita hills, South-west Kenya," in *ICTASS2019 Spring Symposium at UAB, Barcelona, Spain on 16th -17th May, 2019*, Barcelona, Spain, 2019.

[67] One Earth, "Learning from Indigenous Populations," Cell Press, 01 09 2019. [Online]. Available: <https://www.cell.com/action/showPdf?pii=S2590-3322%2819%2930004-1>. [Accessed 02 09 2019].

[68] P. DOMINGUEZ, A. BOURBOUZE, S. DEMAY and G. D. & K. N., "Diverse Ecological, Economic Socio-Cultural and Political Values of a Traditional Common Natural Resource Management System in the Moroccan High Atlas The Aït Ikiss Tagdalts," *Environmental Values*, vol. 21, pp. 277-296, 2012.

406

407

408

409 **Acknowledgements:**

410

411 Research was funded by a National Geographic Early Career Grant (Nº EC-221R-18), a
412 Catalan Government FI Early Career Grant (Nº 2016-FI-B-00706), an EXPLORA Spanish
413 Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness Research Grant (Nº CSO2015-72607-EXP), a
414 M. Cabeza research fellowship from the Academy of Finland, the Mistral CNRS Program
415 BioDivMeX_2016 and a CNRS Senior Researcher Contract.