Review Paper

Uptake of knowledge and technologies for adaptation to climate change in crop production systems in Uganda: A review

4 ABSTRACT

1

Aim and place: The aim of this study was to appraise the status of uptake of
innovations (knowledge and technologies) of climate change adaptation in crop-based
systems in Uganda, and propose viable interventions for enhancing the process of
uptake to obviate the escalating effects of climate change and its associated variability.
The study was conducted in Uganda during June to December 2017.

Methodology: This study was dominantly a desk review, primarily based on existing online information sources and other national institutional repositories. The other information source was from a two-day stakeholder workshop, involving key actors within the climate change research and development value chain in Uganda, who during the process validated the synthesised information and supplemented with more recent events and hitherto undocumented scenarios.

16 **Results and conclusion:** Uptake of climate change adaptation actions was measurably low in the country; hence, communities were far from ready to face the 17 recurrently changing and increasingly aggressive climate change events. Contributors 18 to slow uptake were lack of a coherent climate change activity coordination entity in the 19 country, to organise actors into a functional service delivery system with minimum 20 duplication; ensuring quality actions and following a unidirectional long term goal. The 21 other hindrances included scattered knowledge and technologies, sub-optimal 22 communication and extension services, technology products misconception, low 23 adaptation capacity, unfavourable policies and policy environments, ineffectiveness of 24 traditional public and civil society extension agencies. Interventions are proposed to 25 obviate these bottlenecks using largely internal mechanisms. 26

27 Key words: Rain-fed agriculture, vulnerability, information communication, food

28 insecurity

29 **1. INTRODUCTION**

30 Climate change and climate variability are among the major factors that currently define crop production, food insecurity and poverty in the largely rain-fed agricultural 31 economies, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. This situation manifests partly because of 32 the high climate change vulnerabilities and weak adaptation capacities of farming 33 communities in African countries such as Uganda, where agriculture determines the 34 livelihoods of more than 80% of the country's population [1]. Unless countries and 35 36 communities take urgent steps to enhance their adaptive capacity and build resilience, climate change is likely to undermine agricultural development, increase food insecurity 37 and malnutrition, and entrench poverty on the African continent, and Uganda in 38 particular. Increasing climate resilience in agriculture requires, among others, increased 39 climate change knowledge base and uptake of adaptation technologies by agrarian 40 communities to reduce their exposure to climate change risks and disasters. 41

The Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reported that global average temperatures to have increased by about 1°C over the period 1901-2012, specifically emphasizing that each of the last three decades have been successively warmer than any preceding decades since 1850 [2]. In addition, the IPCC AR5 projects that global temperatures are likely to increase by up to 4.8°C by 2100 [3]. For the African continent, the report indicates temperatures have already increased by 0.5–2°C over the past hundred years [4].

Uganda is highly vulnerable to the current and future climate change. The country's average temperatures are reported to have increased, in the range of 0.8 to 1.5°C over a period 1900-2000 and are projected to increase by approximately 1.5°C as early as 2030 and up to 5°C by 2080 [5]). Although the rainfall projection patterns are more uncertain [6], a slight decrease in total annual rainfall is expected in most of the country, with slightly wetter conditions over the west and north-west; while rainfall totals might

drop significantly over Lake Victoria (-20% from present). Uganda has been 55 characterised by several climate change extreme events in the form of severe droughts. 56 floods, storms, landslides, and delayed/early rainy seasons [7]. The projected changes 57 in climate will result in higher temperatures, more erratic and heavy rainfall, change in 58 the timing and distribution of rainfall, and an increase in the frequency and duration of 59 droughts. Uganda's climate change vulnerability is amplified by the high dependence on 60 rain-fed agriculture, the high population growth (rate>3.4%) and its increased demand 61 for food and the pressure it exerts on the natural resource base, the dependence on 62 subsistence agriculture, as well as the frail information and knowledge base, and weak 63 institutional frameworks to address climate change [8]. Without adequate adaptation 64 capacity built, and appropriate agricultural adaptation technologies adopted, crop 65 production will reduce significantly thus undermining Uganda's development efforts. 66

Whereas various climate smart technologies exist that could be leveraged from in 67 Africa, such as conservation agriculture, sustainable crop/farming management 68 systems, soil fertility management, sustainable water use and management, improved 69 70 post harvest management and value addition, and ecosystem based adaptation, the adoption of climate smart practices by Ugandan communities and farmers has been 71 generally low and most farmers still depend on the traditional subsistence farming 72 systems [9]. For example, fertiliser use is still very low, averaging 1 kg of nutrients per 73 74 hectare, which is one the world's lowest rates.

75

Only 6.3% of Uganda's farmers use improved seeds; while application of agro-76 chemicals is at a meager 3.4% [10] and value addition is negligible with less than 5% of 77 Uganda's agricultural commodities and products processed [9]. As a result, increasing 78 crop production in Uganda has been achieved more through increasing the land under 79 cultivation rather than productivity improvements [11]. The increase in land under 80 agriculture has contributed not only to widespread land and environmental degradation 81 (deforestation, land degradation, destruction of wetlands, and encroachment on 82 protected areas), but also to increase in green house gas emissions, thus exacerbates 83

the vulnerability of communities and ecosystems to the impacts of climate change. For example, currently agricultural land is increasing at 1% per *annum*, and if left unchecked, more than 90% of Uganda's land will be used for agriculture by 2040 [11]. This trend is unsustainable in the context of addressing climate change, and adoption of knowledge and practices that can simultaneously increase agricultural production, reduce land and ecosystem degradation; while increasing climate resilience are necessary.

91 Uganda has over the last two decades been a destination of a myriad of multinational climate change projects, which unfortunately have been characterised by insignificant 92 impacts, owing to their sporadic nature and poor coordination [12; 13] Uganda, like 93 other climate change vulnerable countries in SSA, is strategically positioned to respond 94 95 to climate change, more from adaptive perspective, and less from the mitigation standpoint; the latter requiring multi-dollar investments and technical capacities at levels 96 97 unaffordable by agrarian economies driven largely by small-scale farmer communities. Efforts must be made to scan the entire spectrum of the climate change response 98 99 processes and systems, including knowledge and practices to re-define priority areas for reinvigorating the campaign for communities to deal with the speedy and adverse 100 climate change impacts in the country. 101

102

A critical instrument that can quickly catalyse meaningful adaptation is proper diagnosis 103 of adaptation innovation uptake pathways and mechanisms; and factors that define their 104 smooth operationalisation among affected communities in the country. Uptake 105 infrastructure forms the primary platform for adoption and eventual adaptation to 106 107 prevailing climate risks and impacts. Areas with potential for generating intervention areas include understanding of the level of awareness of climate change adaptation, 108 framework for uptake of innovations among communities, scope and role of indigenous 109 knowledge, policy environment, gender perspective and funding mechanisms. 110

111 The objective of this study was to identify entry-points for bolstering uptake of climate 112 change adaptation knowledge and technologies among communities in Uganda

113 **2. METHODOLOGY**

This study was conducted during 2016-2017 in Uganda, using two procedures, namely 114 desk literature review, and interaction with selected key stakeholders in the climate 115 change adaptation research and development value chain in Uganda. The desk review 116 part involved scanning of literature from various database sources, predominantly from 117 international and local online sources; and to some extent from hardcopies of published 118 119 and unpublished materials. The climate change adaptation based keywords used in the search included among others: uptake, adaptation, adoption, diffusion, dissemination, 120 gender, communication, policy, meteorological data and media; all within the climate 121 change context. 122

123

During a two-day proactive interactive workshop with climate change adaptation stakeholders including policy makers, researchers, adaptation practitioners, knowledge brokers, among others, the synthesis from the desk literature search was presented to key stakeholders for consensus and update with especially undocumented and more recent significant events with a direct thrust on climate change knowledge and technology uptake and adaptation in Uganda. Thus, stakeholders played the role of validating and supplementing the outputs of the desk review.

131 **3. FINDINGS AND SYNTHESIS**

132 The following section highlights the findings and synthesis of this study.

133 **3.1 Status of uptake**

Limited literature exists on knowledge and technology uptake as subjects, with a direct thrust on climate change adaptation in Sub-Saharan Africa and Uganda in particular. This is, despite the vital role uptake plays in catalyzing efforts to coping with destructive climate change effects and extreme events, which presently define weather patterns in much of Sub-Saharan Africa. The term "uptake" seems to be less used, and is thus disguised behind other related terminologies such as adoption, diffusion and technology transfer.

142 **3.2 Vulnerability to climate change and variability**

Several studies have confirmed that Uganda, like many other African countries, is 143 considerably vulnerable to climate change and variability [14, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19]. 144 Moreover, the level of uptake of climate change adaptation innovations in the country is 145 generally insignificant, like in most other sub-Saharan African countries, despite the 146 dramatic increase in climatic shocks and variability in the country [14]. This situation 147 tends to prevail, notwithstanding the flux of local and regional efforts on combating 148 climate risks, including international and regional agreements and policies in which 149 Uganda is variously a party to including the United Nations Framework Convention on 150 Climate Change (UNFCCC), The Paris Climate Change agreement, The East African 151 Community Climate Change Policy, among others. 152

153

According to the International Climate Risk (CIGI) Report [20], the most dominant and widespread hazard due to climate change in Uganda is drought, whose intensity and frequency are on the increase. The report reveals that Uganda is one of the least prepared and thus most vulnerable countries to climate risks in the world. Moreover, according to the same report, Uganda has the least adaptive capacity, thus making adaptation the most priority area for targeting development efforts [21, 22].

160

3.3 Local community awareness and adaptive capacity

According to Environmental Alert [12] and [13], awareness among communities about 162 climate change, its impacts and options for obviating vulnerability is generally low in 163 Uganda. Even within the dismal knowledgeable community groups, there is 164 heterogeneity at the different stakeholder levels; yet decisions are made and actions 165 take which may aggravate, ameliorate, prevent or conserve the impacts of climate 166 change. A living example is, due lack of access to credible weather information, farmers 167 in West Nile still plan their farming activities for the traditional two rainy seasons per 168 year; yet the sub-region presently receive only one long rainy season throughout the 169 year [12]. 170

171

According to Osbahr *et al.* [16], farmers in Uganda acknowledge the adverse to effects of climate change, especially in terms of temperature increases and rainfall seasonal vagaries and unreliability. However, several reports present no downward trend in rainfall quantities; instead they reflect on a marked shift in intensity of rainfall events or in the start and end of the rainy seasons[23].

177

Mangheni et al. [18] on the other hand, reported marked increase in awareness among 178 communities in Uganda about climate change and its disastrous effects on livelihood 179 180 resources. This is in direct contrast with previous literature, which consistently attested to low levels of community knowledge of climate change and its vagaries [24]. The 181 drivers of the recent surge in awareness among communities in the latter case were not 182 alluded to by the report (18]. However, it could be due to the occurrence of the more 183 recent severe and lengthy droughts, which have caused failure and/or decimation of 184 hitherto promoted climate change coping strategies. The overall impact of the 2016-185 2017 drought in particular, on agricultural resources in the country remains to be 186 assessed; however, it is visibly evident, for instance that previously promoted drought 187 tolerant crop varieties, totally succumbed to this disaster. Also, most rainwater 188 reservoirs previously designed to cater for household crop production needs till the next 189 cropping season, dried out completely and prematurely. Owing to this unprecedented 190 drought in recent years, stakeholders seem to be more than ready to pay attention and 191 receive climate change innovations that can avert the catastrophic effects of such 192 193 shocks. The likely danger is that research and development agencies are prone to respond haphazardly in the usual uncoordinated manner [13], thus mixing up short and 194 long term interventions and, which may further the vulnerability of communities to 195 climate change disasters. 196

197

With respect to adaptive capacity to climate change, the communities and actors in Uganda represent cases of the weakest groups at all levels along the climate change

value chain in sub-Saharan Africa [12]. Adaptive capacity is defined as the ability of a 200 system to adjust and cope with climate change and climate variability, to minimise 201 potential damages, seize opportunities, or cope with the repercussions [25, 26, 27]. 202 According to UKCIP [27], adaptation can be inherently spontaneous or may be directed 203 to respond to present or future changes in climatic conditions. Mendis et al. [26] 204 shortlisted determinants of community adaptation capacity as wealth and its diversity, 205 infrastructure, information, technology, culture, education, skills, health, institutions and 206 their linkages, community cooperation and equity or social capital. 207

208

209 Uganda's weak adaptive capacity is mainly attributed to limited availability of livelihood options; inadequate or lack of support to climate change adaptation actions at all levels 210 of policy and programme implementation; dismal awareness of climate change 211 adaptation innovations and options [13, 28]; and routine planning without consideration 212 of climate change variability and impacts. With the limited availability of alternative 213 adaptive options, communities tend to resort to any perceived coping mechanisms, 214 including those that are illegal and may be disastrous to their livelihoods such as theft 215 and infidelity [12], but also extending production to forests, protected areas, wetlands 216 and rangelands. 217

218

Climate change indirectly also results in weakened communities through frustrated 219 220 families, leading to, for instance, increased alcoholism, domestic violence, and household abandonment by male heads, when the latter get overwhelmed with the 221 impacts climate change [12]. These developments notwithstanding, there is hardly any 222 proactive response in the country towards supporting viable community based climate 223 change adaptation. Support often emerges after occurrence of major disaster floods, 224 landslides and lengthy droughts. At national level, there is the Ministry of Disaster 225 Preparedness, which is responsible for dealing directly with such disasters; but 226

227 evidence suggests that it is often ill-prepared and under capacitated in terms of 228 personnel and funding to measure up to its expectations [29].

3.4 Role of local leadership and policy

The local leadership including policymakers are often positionally advantaged to highly influence uptake and diffusion of development extension messages in the country [29, 30]. Unfortunately, the level of knowledge related to climate change and its effect, on communities, is generally dismal among at various levels in Uganda (13). There is need for deliberately targeting of local government structures as outlets for climate change messages, by capacitating them with appropriate skills, information and training [13].

236

As far as policy is concerned, it is common practice that most natural resources policy 237 formulation processes in the country inadequately involve policy implementers 238 (communities), thus making the latter rarely committed to implementation process. As 239 such, the expected outcomes of the relevant laws and guidelines are rarely actualised, 240 as the implementers fail to agree with the aspirations of the policy originators (26). 241 Besides, there are structural issues that hinder smooth coordination and harmonisation 242 of the policies and associated laws, thus leading to confusion among implementers (12, 243 13). Most sector driven policies lack synergies with other sectors at implementation 244 level. For instance, the Ministry of Water and Environment, is supposed to contribute to 245 the performance of the agricultural sector; unfortunately, this is nearly entirely the 246 domain of the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries [26]. 247

248 From the political standpoint, policy implementation is reportedly frequently interfered with by politicians, especially during elective political seasons [26]. This interference 249 250 reportedly manifests in three modes, namely, manipulation of politically driven undertakings (e.g. projects); conflict of interest, whereby politicians attempt to save 251 252 votes from the electorates by encouraging otherwise illegal natural resources destructive activities; and outright corruption [31, 12, 26, 32]. Definitive policies or policy 253 interventions are needed to enhance adaptive capacity in the agricultural sector and 254 uptake of adaptation technologies by farmers but also to protect the integrity of natural 255

resources whose persistent degradation continues to increase the vulnerability of agrarian communities to the impacts of climate change. Natural resource management and climate change adaptation efforts need to remain on course, irrespective of prevailing political events in the country. Otherwise, political leaders and policy makers should play instrumental roles in facilitating uptake and diffusion of climate adaptation innovations and protection of the integrity of ecosystems, by integrating them in routine local government funded activities and programmes.

Whereas the Uganda's National Climate Change Policy [33] provides for mainstreaming 263 of climate change in all sectors and programmes, and the National Agricultural Policy 264 [33] foresees the need for building climate resilience in agriculture, climate change 265 266 adaptations issues have not yet adequately featured among the priorities of local programmes and projects that are implemented at community level. Ideally, policy 267 makers should be concerned with raising awareness, building adequate capacities and 268 helping to put capacities into action [34]; in addition, to resolving conflicts, reducing 269 270 external effects that are triggered or reinforced by climate change, and ensuring that public infrastructure withstands future climate impacts [35]. Thus, the policy 271 environment should not only be conducive for adaptation, but should also serve to 272 facilitate appropriate innovations for creative adaptation to climate change impacts. 273

274

3.5 Mode of communication

In Uganda, most communication messages related to climate change adaptation are 276 disseminated through environmental conservation systems, which is are mostly 277 confounded with instructions such as "do not do" command messages, such as "do not 278 cut trees", "do not dump litter in the streets" or ""do not build on wetlands". In addition, 279 although some communities may be willing to comply with the regulations, they often 280 genuinely posses no alternative options (13). Relevant development agencies need to 281 282 flag out viable alternative options such as in the case of "do not cut tree", promote wide distribution of affordable energy-efficient cooking stoves and solar panels at affordable. 283

The media in Uganda play a major role in disseminating development messages to 285 communities to both rural and urban communities across the country. In particular, there 286 287 are hundreds of FM radios covering the entire country and broadcasting largely in local languages [36, 13]. This is partly because many rural Ugandans are unable to read well 288 or even afford other media materials such as daily news papers. In 2009, the African 289 Media Barometer report (36), reported 89% of households in Uganda owned a radio set, 290 while 80% received radio signals. It should be noted that only the state-owned Uganda 291 Broadcasting Corporation (UBC) covers the entire country with six channels, and mostly 292 in different local languages [13]. Just over two decades ago, another national survey 293 involving nearly 6,000 adults, revealed that 95% of rural respondents regularly listened 294 to radio compared to 97% of urban folks. In yet another survey conducted in the same 295 year revealed that up to 83% households accessed a radio in the country [13]. Hence, 296 local FM radios are potential channels for enhancing uptake of climate change 297 adaptation messages in the country [37]. 298

299

One operational limitation for the radio medium for successful delivery of desired messages is the lack of journalist capacity to develop climate change messages that appeal to local audiences, with features that draw listenership attention [13]. Hence, there is need for appropriate journalists' capacity building to be able to engage with communities, opinion leaders and policymakers in the country, on matters related to climate change adaptation.

306

In terms of print media, newspapers are generally considered an urban medium, owing 307 308 to the comparatively greater level of literacy required to understand them digest their contents [13]. In a survey conducted in 2008 involving 6,000 respondents, it emerged 309 that 27% of rural respondents read newspapers regularly, contrasting with 56% of urban 310 respondents. It also emerged that in most cases, a single newspaper copy was read by 311 5-10 people, wherever it was accessed [13]. Despite the low level of readership of 312 newspapers, they were found to be important sources of information for the urban, the 313 educated, the affluent, policy makers, politicians, business people and academics. In 314

fact, it is believed that the print media have a strong influence on key decision makers and are often determinants of stories picked up by radio and television media channels [13].

318

319 **3.6 Role of indigenous knowledge**

Farming communities in Uganda draw capital from environmental resilience to be able 320 to defend themselves against climate change effects. As such, they use traditional ways 321 of anticipating weather and supporting decision making based on environmental 322 indicators [38, 39, 13, 40, 41, 42, 43], as part of their adaptation mechanisms. It is 323 imperative that climate change experts leverage from this knowledge base [44] to strike 324 a balance between utilising the power of indigenous beliefs and integrating scientific 325 knowledge and innovations. Establishment of platforms for local communities and 326 individuals with scientific or other climate related science expertise would allow dialogue 327 between these two groups to articulate and learn from community experiences derived 328 from climate change events [13]. Adger et al. [45] concluded that local community 329 adaptation to climate change is constrained by issues of values and ethics, risk, 330 knowledge and culture constructs which are mutable. According to Berkes [46] and 331 Nakashima et al. [40], combinations of knowledge can lead to new innovations; proper 332 conextualisation of local knowledge and practices can lead to further innovations and 333 334 opportunities for adaptation through mutual learning (co-learning) and knowledge cogeneration. William et al. [47] assert that traditional knowledge is useful in defining 335 earlier environmental baselines, availing observational evidence for modelling, 336 identifying impacts for mitigation, providing indigenous technologies for adapting, and 337 338 for identifying traditionally relevant values for protection from direct impacts or from the impacts of adaptation measures themselves. 339

340

In Uganda, the number of local languages and dialects is estimated at more than 50 [13, 48]. This has made translation of technical climate change terminologies largely impractical. Moreover, use of local languages rich in vocabulary and with examples of household situational problems, to illustrate climate change (e.g. tree cutting, droughts), makes the process pertinent and realistic to the affected communities, thus causing
swift uptake and adaptation [13].

347

348 **3.7 Funding mechanisms**

Like in many other sub-Saharan countries, Uganda's national budgets are so 349 constrained that programmes related natural resources management including climate 350 change hardly receive direct priority attention [26, 49]. As such, there is recurrent over 351 dependence on donor, also referred to as development partner support. This practice 352 limits the scope of adaptation activities and balance of the implementation process to 353 the interests and objectives of the development partners. Besides, this reduces 354 implementation to the "project mode", whereby only adaptation strategies that fit within 355 the specific objectives of the project are considered. A typical example of this is the 356 National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA), which was formulated and 357 implemented in the project mode [50]. When funding expired, further implementation of 358 actions was virtually halted. National governments need to bring on board climate 359 360 change adaptation activities, to ensure sustainability of implementation of climate impacts response actions. 361

362

363 3.8 Gender issues

Research has generally demonstrated that, to achieve sustainable community climate 364 change knowledge and technology adoption, gender compliant climate change policy 365 framework is a pre-requisite [51, 52]. Acosta et al. [48], in a desk review which also 366 367 involved field work in Rakai and Nwoya districts in Uganda, concluded that gender and climate change were treated as cross-cutting issues that lacked priority consideration 368 within the national budget. Besides, mainstreaming of gender was only relegated to an 369 addendum rather than integral components in relevant natural resources and climate 370 371 change policies, despite the anticipated adaptation benefits that accrue from entrenchment of gender [48]. According to Acosta et al. [48], there is need for strong 372 373 coordination of gender related activities and accountability, in addition to addressing 374 structural constructs that impair women from accessing productive resources for climate375 change adaptation.

376

In a study conducted by the CGIAR Research Programme on Climate Change, 377 Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS), involving Kenya, Uganda and Senegal, 378 Twyman et al. [53] reported that both men and women changed their behavior in 379 response to climate change, albeit relatively minor shifts in existing agricultural 380 practices. The most prevalent changes reported included switching crop varieties, 381 switching types of crops and changing planting dates. Women were less aware of many 382 Climate Smart Agriculture (CSA) practices than men; though in many cases, especially 383 in East Africa, women when aware, were more likely than or just as likely as men to 384 adopt CSA practices [53]. Furthermore, access to information from different sources 385 varied greatly between men and women and among the sites; though, those with 386 access to information used it to improve their agricultural practices. From this study, it is 387 apparent that targeting women and youths with climate and agricultural information is 388 389 likely to result in greater uptake and widespread use of new adaptation knowledge and technologies. 390

391

392 **3.9 Climate Smart Agriculture**

Uganda, in recognition of the existing and anticipated impacts of climate change, 393 designed and launched the Uganda National Climate Smart Agriculture programme for 394 the duration of 2015-2025, under the auspices of two ministries, namely the Ministry of 395 Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF), and the Ministry of Water and 396 Environment. This is a comprehensive document clearly outlining stakeholder 397 consensus derived objectives, activities, respective actors in the implementation 398 process, coordination and required budget support. Unfortunately, since its launching, 399 400 hardly any information exists on empirical achievement of planned milestones thus far, against its clearly stated objectives. Otherwise, when properly implemented, this 401 programme should be able to elevate the communities' adaptive capacity to climate 402

403 change impacts, and in particular promote uptake of verified knowledge and404 technologies.

405

406 **3.10** Variability in onset and cessation of rainy seasons

Uganda's cropping systems are almost entirely rain-fed, and agronomic research has 407 over the years vested efforts on fitting activities and crop life-spans within these agro-408 ecological cycles. As such, precise knowledge of the onset, length and cessation of 409 410 rainy seasons is critical for ensuring optimisation of cropping activity cycles [54]. Determination of when to prepare land for planting specific crops is often occasioned by 411 predictable patterns of the onset of rainfall [55]. This, until more recently, was rightly 412 taken for granted by farming communities; but the present day vagaries in weather, 413 characterised by shocks and stresses, have not only been greatly influential on the final 414 crop yields, but have also led to losses of seed; the most critical input among farming 415 communities. This shift in weather patterns has invoked rigorous research on 416 determining the behavior of rainy seasons in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa [55, 56]. 417 For instance, Omotosho et al. [56] developed empirical methods for predicting the 418 onset and cessation, and seasonal amounts of rainfall at Kano in station in Nigeria. 419 Mugalavai et al. [57] also analysed the two rainy seasons in western Kenya using soil 420 water balance data in order to determine the patterns of rainfall onset, cessation and 421 length of growing season. They found out existence of organised rainfall onset 422 progression within the western Kenya region, whereby the long rains showed a 423 southerly progression; while the short counterparts showed a south-westerly 424 progression. Rainfall cessation for both seasons showed strong, but localised 425 influences, particularly around Lake Victoria and forested areas, including orographic 426 427 features.

428

Hardly any such investigations have been done for Uganda, a country typically
characterised by a variety of agro-ecological regions, with a diversity of onset, cessation
and duration of rainy seasons. Rainy season cessation, like onset, occurs variously for

different seasons and years. This directly affects the rainy season and certainly the crops that were developed to fit within specific seasons. While crops cut short by early cessations are devastated, especially during their reproductive stages, those that should mature early are wasted in the field as the drying conditions are interfered with, by excessive rainfall. In the latter scenario, seeds may germinate in the field before harvesting and diseases and pests may become problematic under these humid conditions.

439

Hence, the disorder within the rainfall patterns in the country might have not only disorganised farmer cropping patterns, but has also disrupted the disease and pest cycles to levels mismatched with farmer and scientists' predictions, and hence, management capacities. This is not helped by the persistently low farmer adaptive capacity to all these challenges.

445

446 **3.11 Unreliable meteorological information**

Meteorological information is important in helping communities plan their cropping 447 activities and scientists breed for varietal improvements, especially within the rain-fed 448 agriculture in SSA. Therefore, reliable information is critical in supporting farmer 449 decisions for implementing farm activities; and adding credence to extension messages 450 packaged to ensure uptake. The Uganda National Meteorological Authority (UNMA) is 451 responsible for providing weather information to the farming communities in Uganda. 452 Unfortunately, the pattern of information dissemination is inconsistent and unreliable 453 454 [56, 58]; exemplified frequently by the opposite of what has been predicted tending to occur, thus sending mixed signals to the farming communities. Such messages lead to 455 failed seed germination, thus causing repeated plantings, and mismatching cropping 456 with rainy season cycles due to early/late onset/cessations of rainy seasons. This has 457 458 great potential for discouraging uptake of climate change adaptation knowledge and technologies. UNMA owes the public a clear justification for providing inconsistent 459 460 weather information leading to such crop failures and losses.

461 **Factors against uptake and proposed interventions**

Table 1 summarises the main factors constraining speedy and effective uptake of climate change adaptation options, and proposes interventions in light of the above status quo considerations.

Table 1. Major hindrances to swift and effective uptake of climate change adaptation

and proposed actions in Uganda

Factor limiting uptake	Proposed intervention		
 Scattered knowledge and technologies: There exists a range of climate change indigenous and scientifically derived knowledge and technologies with potential for uptake, but scattered among institutions locally and within the east African region. 	 (a) Efforts should be made to gather relevant information and technologies that can be tested under farmer conditions and packaged for subsequent dissemination for uptake. (b) Relevant institutions with such knowledge and technologies need to be mobilised to participate in the testing and dissemination processes. (c) Indigenous knowledge and experiences should be used as the foundation for introducing new climate change 		
	adaptation knowledge and technologies within communities.		
 2. Suboptimal communication and extension (a) There is a multitude of local 	In the short run, the available information needs to be translated into at least the five major local languages (<i>Luganda</i> , <u>Luo</u> , <i>Runyakitara, Lugbara</i> and <i>Ateso</i>).		
languages and dialects in Uganda. This complicates	(a) Employ entertaining/persuasive modes of dissemination, such as music (catchy		

communication of climate change messages; which must preceded be by proper translation of terminologies, contexts. concepts and Unfortunately, several kev climate changes related terminologies and concepts cannot be directly translated in local languages to impart the intended adaptation emotions and actions.

- (b) FM radios are the most effective option for delivering media messages among communities in the country. Apart from effective climate change communication being impaired by the range of languages, journalists lack the capacity to contextualise and package climate change issues for targeted dissemination.
- (c) Climate change messages are usually channeled through environment management systems characterised by community instructions such as "do not do" instructions such as

songs), drama and games that appeal to better understanding, learning and also help listeners to easily relate with the communicated information and thus improve uptake. This could be much more valuable than an information campaign in the newspapers or on the television.

- (b) Develop more innovative communication methodologies such as the radio 'skit' developed by the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA); this approach is known to reach audiences who are otherwise difficult to engage.
- Climate change campaigners and civil (C) society must be more pro-active in turning climate change related information into 'news' that the media can report. Campaigners need to seize the initiative and create news stories about climate change that do not require major disasters to happen to attract attention, and thus serve as postmortem rather than preventive measures.
- (d) Regularly review/revise climate change related messages in order to upgrade them to accordingly adjust to the

"do not build in wetlands", "do not	dynamics of temporal and spatial
cut trees" and "do not litter". This makes climate change development and extension agencies less friendly to communities; and thus creates an unfavourable environment for uptake of climate change adaptation knowledge and technologies.	weather changes.
3. Technology misconception Through research, hundreds of improved crop varieties have been developed in response to some of the climate change effects. These could greatly contribute towards increased food security in the country. However, many of the improved technologies carry negative or derogatory connotations such as "Kawanda" to imply a banana variety which is unnatural and, therefore, is either harmful to human health or less tasty than the "traditional" one.	(a) Climate change research and extension agencies ought to devise means of allaying community perceived fears related to otherwise harmless, yet stress alleviating technologies generated by scientists. This could be through ensuring, for instance, running farmer based participatory crop improvement/breeding research programmes. The research effort should also be linked with or directly derived from communities' needs and should be articulated to fit into the indigenous knowledge systems.
	(b) Research efforts need to me matched with policy adjustments so as to keep the target audience abreast with cutting edge innovations.

	(c)	Politicians and policy makers who interphase directly with communities need to be equipped with proper information in order not to distort technology gains (e.g. policy briefs).
	(d)	Greater focus into food and nutrition related innovations should be best anchored in women and youth groups which are invariably the most disadvantaged by climate change caused distress.
4. Low adaptation capacity Uganda is known to be one of the countries characterised by limited capacity to cope with climate change and its variability due to, among other factors, prevailing levels of poverty and illiteracy; factors that directly impair knowledge and technology uptake.	(a) (b)	Climate change development programmes ought to include more rigorous and coordinated community awareness campaigns, including training of both communities and extension service providers. Access to credit should be enhanced particularly among the most vulnerable
		groups, which cannot afford the minimum costs associated with acquisition and implementation of climate change adaptation technologies and options.
	(c)	Review curricular of agricultural resource management training institutions to strengthen their

	components of climate change adaptation and dissemination.
5. Policies and policy environment The level of knowledge about climate change effects and existing interventions with potential to move communities out of vulnerability is very low among policy makers and community leaders; who otherwise are best placed to directly interact with and enforce policies and programmes.	 (a) Increase institutional capacity at local and national levels to develop climate change adaptation policies, strategies and programmes, shifting from a reactive response to a pro-active and anticipative preparedness approach. (b) Adequately involve communities in the formulation and implementation of climate change adaptation strategies and policies to facilitate community buy-in of new knowledge and technologies for adaptation. (c) In build the enforcement process of policies within climate change adaptation knowledge and technology uptake strategies. (d) Mainstream climate change considerations into agricultural sector
	policies, programmes and projects to advocate for planning based on "lessons learned".(e) Climate change adaptation policy briefs
	need to be actively generated.
6. Inadequate professional and institutional capacity	 (a) Improve the capacity of climate change professionals, including communicators such as FM radio staff and print media

(a)	Implementation		of	climate	
	change	prog	rammes	and	
	projects	is	impaire	d by	
	inadequate expertise.				

(b) The number of in-country regional climate change research adaptation/demonstration and centres is inadequate to cater for community climate change adaptive capacity enhancement needs across the country's agro-ecologies diverse and social systems.

(C) The Climate Change Department (CCD), located in the Ministry of Agriculture, is the overarching institution at the national level mandated to coordinate climate change adaptation actions in all the sectors and for all actors. It is particularly dreaded with skeletal staff and dismal funding to be able to martial the comprehensive and growing climate adaptation demands accruing from different sectors.

personnel to develop, package and disseminate suitable messages to the rightful stakeholders and at the right time.

(b) Redesign the roles and diversify sources funding and other resources of the coordinating unit to be able to cope with the scope of the demands at local, national and regional levels.

7. Ineffectiveness of traditional
public and civil society
extension agencies(a) Extension agencies should make efforts
to innovate and embrace regional
methodological paradigm shifts such as

The existing line extension agencies are unable to deliver agricultural development messages; thus are not in position for additional dissemination of climate change adaptation messages to effectively contribute to socio-economic development of the country. the use of platforms involving innovation systems. This is defined by Klerkx [59] as a network of organisations, enterprises and individuals focused on bringing new products, processes, and forms of organisations into economic use, together with the institutions and policies that affect their behaviour and performance. lt heavily contrasts with hitherto renowned linear extension models, which have clearly failed to deliver on the anticipated impacts on socio-economic development, especially in sub-Saharan Africa.

468

469 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

The level of uptake of knowledge and technology for climate change adaptation is too 470 low to translate into meaningful resilience and socio-economic development among 471 communities in Uganda. This is primarily due to several factors, the major ones being 472 poor adaptive capacity caused by high illiteracy levels and poverty, scattered 473 innovations among agencies and sectors, inadequate extension and communication 474 systems, general lack of awareness about climate change in general and emerging 475 scientifically derived innovations, suboptimal and development partner controlled 476 research and development funding, gender technology insensitivity, and negative 477 478 community attitudes towards otherwise potentially ameliorative innovations.

Proposed interventions include expansion of adaptive capacity through increased community literacy programmes and access to farmer friendly credit, and redesigning of the national climate change adaptation coordination systems and structures, especially the government department to match with the recurrently expanding demands as well as inter-sectoral nature of adaptation activities. Others include increased campaigns to generate widespread awareness about climate change and its adaptation options,
including a shift from the traditional linear knowledge dissemination methodologies to
the regionally embraced innovation systems, involving partnership networks and
enterprises.

488

REFERENCES

- 1. Banana AY, Byakagaba P, Russell A, Waiswa D' Bomuhangi A. A review of Uganda's national policies relevant to climate change adaptation and mitigation: Insights from Mount Elgon. Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)
 Working Paper no. 157. 2014. DOI: <u>10.17528/cifor/005333</u>
- 493 2. Climate and Development Knowledge Network (CDKN). The IPCC's Fifth
 494 Assessment Report. What's in it for Africa? 2014.
 495 https://cdkn.org/resource/highlights-africa-ar5/?loclang=en_gb
- 496 3. IPCC. Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Headline Statements from
 497 the Summary for Policymakers. 2013. https://www.google.com/search?
 498 q=The+Physical+Science+Basis%2Bicpc%2B2013&oq=The+Physical+Science+Basis
 499 s%2Bicpc%2B2013&aqs=chrome..69i57j0l3.23629j0j8&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8
- 4. IPCC. *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability*. Chapter 22.
 Africa. 2014. http://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/wg2/

 5. Ministry of Water and Environment. Economic assessment of the impacts of climate report in Uganda. Final Report, Government of Uganda. Kampala, Uganda. 2015.
 http://dspace.africaportal.org/jspui/bitstream/123456789/35353/1/Uganda_CCeconomics_Final-Report2.pdf?1

- 6. FCFA. 2017. Future Climate for Africa (FCFA. http://www.futureclimateafrica.org/
- 507 7. Okonya JS, Syndikus K, Jürgen K. Farmers' perception of and coping strategies to climate
- 508 change: evidence from six agro-ecological zones of Uganda. 2013.
- 509 https://ccafs.cgiar.org/publications/ farmers%E2%80%99-perception-and-coping-
- 510 strategies-climate-change-evidence-six-agro-ecological#.WT2ELOuGPIU
- 8. World Bank. Uganda: Strategic Climate Diagnostic. World Bank Group. 2015.
 https://ieg.worldbankgroup.org/ Data/reports/ economic_reports_growth_diagnostics.pdf
- MAAIF. Agriculture for Food and Income Security. Agriculture Sector Development Strategy and Investment Plan: 2010/11–2014/15. Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF). Government of Uganda, Kampala, Uganda. 2010. https://extranet.who.int/nutrition/gina/sites/default/files/UGA%202010%20Agriculture

517 %20Sector%20Development%20Strategy%20and%20Investment%20Plan.pdf

51810. Hundsbæk RP, Spichiger R, Alobo S, Kidoido M. Land Tenure and Economic519Activities in Uganda: A Literature Review. Danish Institute for International Studies520(DIIS).WorkingPaper.521http://pure.diis.dk/ws/files/56058/WP2012_13_Uganda_Rachel_

522 Spichiger_m.fl_web.pdf

11. Twinomuhangi R, Richens P, Sserunkuma D, Mpairwe D, Byakagaba P, Kahubire
 E, Kasaija P. Strategies for Sustainable Land Management: Uganda Sustainable
 Development Report 2015. Final Report. United Nationa Development Programme
 and Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development. 2015.
 <u>https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/22ed/</u>

528 d2248586181ab404374334399cd556e18027.pdf

12. Environmental Alert. Inventory of critical issues in the forestry sector in Uganda.
Study report. Kampala, Uganda. 2009.
https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/9172041

13. Corner A. Hidden Heat Communicating climate change in Uganda: Challenges and
 Opportunities. School of Psychology Cardiff University. In: Partnership with Panos
 Eastern Africa, P.O. Box 34033, Kampala, Uganda. 2011. <u>www.panosea.org</u>.

14. UN Climate Change Conference. United Nations Fact Sheet on Climate Change:
Africa is particularly vulnerable to the expected impacts of global warming. United
Nations Conference, Nairobi, Kenya. 2006.
http://unfccc.int/files/press/backgrounders/ application/pdf/factsheet africa.pdf.

- 15. Hisali E, Birunig P, Buyinza F. Adaptation to climate change in Uganda: Evidence
 from micro level data. Global Environmental Change 2011; 21(4): 1245–1261.
 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.07.005
- 16. Osbahr H, Dorward P, Stern R. Supporting Agricultural innovation in Uganda to
 respond to climate risk: Linking climate change and variability with farmer
 perceptions, *Experimental Agriculture* 2011; 47(2):293-316.
- 17. Nzeadibe TC, Chukwuone NA, Egbule CL, Agu VC. Climate Change Awareness
 and Adaptation in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria. African Technology Policy

547 Studies Network. African Technology Policy Studies Network, P.O. Box 10081, 548 00100 GPO, Nairobi, Kenya. 2011. <u>http://www.atpsnet.org/Files/wps57.pdf</u>

- 18. Mangheni MN,, Kisauzi T, Miiro R. Climate learning and knowledge management
 within Uganda's agricultural research and advisory services. Climate Learning for
 African Agriculture: Working Paper No.7 p.56. 2013.
- 19. CCFS. Climate Change and Food Security: Risks and responses. Food and
 Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations. 2016. http://www.fao.org/3/ai5188e.pdf
- 20. CIGI. Climate Change in Africa: Adaptation, Mitigation and Governance Challenges.
 2007. https://www.unicef.org/esaro/Climate_Change_in_Africa.pdf

S57 21. Kaggwa R, Hogan R, Hall, B. Enhancing the Contribution of Weather, Climate and
 S58 Climate Change to Growth, Employment and Prosperity. UNDP/NEMA/UNEP
 S59 Poverty Environment Initiative, Kampala, Uganda. 2009.

- 22. Mubiru DN, Komutunga E, Apok A. *Climate Change and Adaptation Strategies in the Karamoja sub-region.* Survey Report. DCA, Kampala, Uganda. 2010.
- 562 https://books.google.co.ug/books?id=BhHPBwAAQBAJ&pg=PA221&lpg=PA221&dq
- 563 =Mubiru,+D.N.,+Komutunga,+E.+and+Apok,+A.+2010.+Climate+Change+and+Ada
- 564 ptation+Strategies+in+the+Karamoja+sub-
- 565 region.+Survey+Report&source=bl&ots=8n8adzP1xR&sig=
- 566 6KW7vYA0qTN79U59lwUOAWv52Tw&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=M
- ⁵⁶⁷ ubiru%2C%20D.N.%2C%20Komutunga%2C%20E.%20and%20Apok%2C%20A.%2
- 568 02010.%20Climate%20Change%20and%20Adaptation%20Strategies%20in%20the
- 569 %20Karamoja%20sub-region.%20Survey%20Report&f=false

23. Plaux P , Jäckel G, Tingem M a, Kunstmann H. Onset of the rainy season and crop
yield in sub-Saharan Africa – tools and perspectives for Cameroon. In: Ecohydrology
of Surface and Groundwater Dependent Systems: Concepts, Methods and Recent
Developments (Proc. of JS.1 at the Joint IAHS & IAH Convention, Hyderabad, India.

574 IAHS Publ. 328, 2009, 191-200. 2009.

575 24. Twinomugisha B. A content analysis report on climate change impacts, vulnerability
576 and adaptation in Uganda. 2005. http://pubs.iied.org. Accessed: 16 11 2016. 24.

577 25. IPCC TAR. Working Group II: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Assessment
 578 Report. 2001. http://www.ipcc.ch/ipccreports/tar/wg2/index.php?idp=650

579 26. Mendis S, Mills S, Yantz J. Building community capacity to adapt to climate change
580 in resource-based communities. Department of Geography, University of
581 Saskatchewan, Canada. 2003.
582 http://www.pamodelforest.sk.ca/pdfs/BUILDINGCOMMUNITY.pdf.

27. UKCIP. Costing the impacts of climate change in the UK. Implementation report.
United Kingdom Climate Impacts Programme. Oxford, UK. 2003.

585 <u>http://www.ukcip.org.uk/wp-content/PDFs/Costings_Implementation.pdf</u>.

- 28. Ampaire EL, Happy P, van Asten P, Radeny M. The Role of Policy in Facilitating
 Adoption of Climate-Smart Agriculture in Uganda. IITA, CGAIR, Climate Change,
 Agriculture and Food Security, CCAFS. 2010.
 https://cgspace.cgiar.org/rest/bitstreams/52077/retrieve
- Second Sec
- 593 29. Lutaaya H. Climate change. Uganda Science Journalists Association. 2016.
 594 http://usja.ug/climate-change/

30. Zake J. Climate Change in Uganda: Insights for Long Term Adaptation and Building 595 Community Resilience. National stakeholder sharing workshop on PID and climate 596 change adaptation and mitigation. Environmental Alert. Kampala, Uganda. 2016. 597 https://www.google.com/search?g=zake%2BClimate+Change+in+Uganda%3A+Insi 598 ghts+for+Long+Term+Adaptation+and+Building+Community+Resilience&og=zake% 599 600 2BClimate+Change+in+Uganda%3A+Insights+for+Long+Term+Adaptation+and+Bui Iding+Community+Resilience&ags=chrome..69i57.10863j0j8&sourceid=chrome&ie= 601 UTF-8 602

603 31. Nsiita S.A. Decentralisation and forest management in Uganda. 2003.
 604 http://www.cifor.org/publications/pdf_files/interlaken/Steve_Nsita.pdf

32. Ogola PFA. Creating lifeline and mitigation adaptation opportunities through
 geothermal energy utilisation PhD. University of Iceland, Reykjavik. 2013.
 http://skemman.is/stream/get/1946/14022/33585/5/Creating lifeline and mitigation-

adaptation opportunities through geothermal energy utilisation-Ch.5.pdf

33. GoU (Government of Uganda). National development plan 2010/2011-2014/2015.

2010. Retrieved from http://www.finance.go.ug/docs/NDP_April_2010-Prot.pdf

34. Adger NW, Arnell NW, Tompkins EL. Successful adaptation to climate change
 across scales. *Global Environmental Change* 2005; 15(2):77-86.

35. Bauer A, Feichtinger J, Steurer R. The governance of climate change adaptation in
 ten OECD countries: Challenges and approaches. Institute of Forest, Environment

and Natural Resource Policy. Discussion Paper 1-2011. http://www.wiso.boku.ac.at

36. African Media Barometer Report. The first home grown analysis of the media
 landscape in Africa BOTSWANA. 2009. <u>http://www.fesmedia-</u>
 <u>africa.org/uploads/media/</u> AMB_Botswana_2009_English.pdf

37. Berhane G, Mworozi, E, Kibaya P, Majaliwa M, Mfitumukiza D. *Enhancing Adaptive Capacity of Communities to Climate Change Induced Water Challenges using ICT in Uganda.* Second Interim Technical Report. CHAI, Kampala, Uganda. 2013.

38. Adger WN, Dessai S, Goulden M *et al.* Are there social limits to adaptation to
climate change? Climatic Change 2009; 93: 335. doi:10.1007/s10584-008-9520-z

39. Lenachuru C. Traditional community mechanisms for coping with climate change
 among the Ilchamus pastoralists in Marigat District Kenya. The Africa Centre for
 Sustainable Ecosystems and Societies Under Global Change. Colorado State
 University. 2011. http://africacenter.colostate.edu/content/traditional-community mechanisms-coping-climate-change-among-ilchamus-pastoralists-marigat

40. Egeru A. Role of indigenous knowledge in climate change adaptation: A case of the
Teso sub-region, eastern Uganda. Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge 2012;
11(2):217-224.

41. Nakashima DJ, Galloway MK, Thulstrup HD, Ramos CA, Rubis JT. Weathering
uncertainty: traditional knowledge for climate change assessment and adaptation.
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Paris,
France. 2012.

42. WIREs. The role of local knowledge in adaptation to climate change. *Climate Change* 2013; 4:99–106. doi:10.1002/wcc.204.

43. NAPA. Uganda National Adaptation Programmes of Action, Climate Change
 Department, National Forestry Authority Grounds, 10/20 Spring Road, Nakawa, P.O.

Box 28119, Kampala, Uganda, Telephone: +256 414 237 690, Fax: +256 414 346

530. 2015. http://www.bwaisefacility.org/userfilesbf/Napa%20final%20report.pdf

44. IDRC. Use and Communication of Climate Information to Support Uptake of

Adaptation Action in the Semi-Arid Regions of Africa and Asia. CARIAA/ASSAR.

644 Collaborative Adaptation Research Initiative in Africa and Asia c/o International

645 Development Research Centre PO Box 8500, Ottawa, ON Canada K1G 3H9.

International Journal of Climatology 2015; 20: 865–880.45.

45. Adger WN, Dessai S, Goulden M, Hulme M, Lorenzoni I, Nelson DR, Naess LO,

Wolf J, Wreford A. Are there social limits to adaptation to climate change? Climatic
Change 2009; 93(3): 335–354.

46. Berkes F. Indigenous ways of knowing and the study of environmental change.
Indigenous ways of knowing and the study of environmental change. Journal of the
Royal Society of New Zealand 2009; 39(4): 151-156.

47. William T, Hardison P. Culture, law, risk and governance: contexts of traditional
knowledge in climate change adaptation. *Climatic Change* 2013; 120: 531.
Doi:10.1007/s10584-013-0850-0

48. Ampaire EL, Happy P, Van Asten P, Radeny M. The role of policy in facilitating
adoption of climate-smart agriculture in Uganda. CGIAR Research Program on
Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS). Copenhagen, Denmark.
2015.

49. Acosta M, Ampaire E, Okolo W, Twyman J. Gender and climate change in Uganda: 660 Effects of policy and institutional frameworks: Findings from a desk review and two 661 exploratory studies in Rakai and Nwoya districts. Research Programme on Climate 662 663 Change, agriculture and Food Security. Gender and Climate Change in Uganda: Effects of Policy and Institutional Frameworks Findings from a desk review and two 664 exploratory studies in Rakai and Nwoya Districts. CGIAR. Climate Change, 665 Agriculture, Food Security, CCAFS. InfoNote. 2015. 666 https://cgspace.cgiar.org/bitstream/handle/10568/67156/ 667

668 PACCA%20Gender%20Info%20Note%20Uganda.pdf

50. Friis-Hansen, E., Bashaasha, B. and Aben, C. 2013. Decentralisation and
 implementation of climate change policy in Uganda. DIIS Working Paper No. 27.
 <u>http://en.diis.dk</u>

51. Terry G. No climate justice without gender justice: An overview of the issues.
Gender and Development 17:15-16. Tailor and Francis. 2009. <u>https://www.jstor.org/</u>
stable/27809203?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents

52. Johnsson-Latham G. Why More Attention to Gender and Class Can Help Combat
Climate Change and Poverty. In Irene Dankelman Gender and Climate Change: an
Introduction., London: Earthscan, pp. 212-222. 2010.

53. Twyman J, Green M, Bernier Q, Kristjanson P, Russo S, Tall A, Ampaire E,
Nyasimi, Mango M, J, McKune S, Mwongera C, Ndourba Y. Gender and Climate
Change Perceptions, Adaptation Strategies, and Information Needs Preliminary
Results from four sites in Africa. CCAFS Working Paper no. 83. CGIAR Research
Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS). Copenhagen,
Denmark. 2014. www.ccafs.cgiar.org

54. Mensah C, Amekudzi LK, Klutse NAB, Aryee JNA, Asare K. Comparison of rainy
 season onset, cessation and duration for Ghana from RegCM4 and GMet Datasets.

Climate 300-309. 686 Atmospheric and Sciences 2016; 6: http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/acs.2016.62025 687 688 55. Orlove B, Roncoli C, Kabugo M, Majugu A. Indigenous climate knowledge in southern Uganda: the multiple components of a dynamic regional system. Climate 689 Change 2010; 100:243-265. 690 56. Omotosho JB, Alogun AA, Ogunjobi K. Predicting monthly and seasonal rainfall, 691 onset and cessation of the rainy season in West Africa using only surface data. 692 International Journal of Climatology. 2000. 693 http://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/hub/journal/10.1002/(ISSN)1097-0088/ 694 57. Mugalavai EM, Kipkorir EC, Raes D, Rao MS. Analysis of rainfall onset, cessation 695 and length of growing season for western Kenya. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 696 Journal 2008; 148:1123–1135. www.sciencedirect.com 697 58. Mubiru, DN, Komutunga E, Agona A, Apok A, Ngara T. Characterising 698 agrometeorological climate risks and uncertainties: Crop production in Uganda. 699 South African Journal of Science 2012; 108 n.3-4. 700 59. Klerkx L. Beyond dissemination of research findings: innovation brokers as 701 emerging figures in stimulating agricultural innovation. Agriregionieuropa anno 8 702 n 28, Mar 703 2012. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/381521468138591604/pdf/434350NWP0 704

ARDD1Box0327368B01PUBLIC1.pdf