

**PART 2**

**SEAGA FOR LIVESTOCK  
PROJECTS**

## PART 2 SEAGA FOR LIVESTOCK PROJECTS

Part 1 of this guide considered many of the socio-economic and gender issues related to livestock production, particularly in terms of HIV/AIDS and its impacts. It provided a brief overview of the interlinkages between livestock production, food security, poverty, gender, and HIV/AIDS as well as some of the potential mitigating strategies and the role of livestock production therein. Part 2 turns from issues to action and focuses on the project cycle – particularly in terms of the identification and preparation phase as this is where it is important to identify and flag socio-economic and gender issues along with technical issues. It is also the critical point for identifying and addressing the needs and constraints of households and individuals affected by chronic illness, particularly HIV/AIDS.

### 2.1 Project identification and preparation



The SEAGA approach uses three qualitative and participatory analytical toolkits to identify the different roles and responsibilities as well as the development needs, priorities, interests, constraints and supports of the various stakeholders. The toolkits focus on:

- Development Context Analysis
- Livelihood Analysis
- Stakeholders' Priorities Analysis

The Development Context Analysis and Livelihood Analysis Toolkits help communities and those planning livestock interventions to better understand what is happening now. The Stakeholders' Analysis helps to identify those involved in, or potentially affecting or affected by on-going and planned activities. It also facilitates the development of community or group action plans for new or revised livestock initiatives.

Apart from using these learning toolkits to collect useful information for planning livestock initiatives, it may also be important to consider a collection and review of quantitative and qualitative data (both socio-economic and technical) at this stage. To collect information, three things are needed:

- **Information required:** What needs to be known? What is already known?
- **Collecting the information:** How are the data or information going to be collected? Which methods of collection and review are most appropriate? What are possible sources of information?
- **Validating the information:** Are the data disaggregated by gender and socio-economic variables? Were questionnaires properly tested? What was the sampling process? What were the research constraints or limitations?

#### Different data needs for different livestock systems

Questionnaires and other data collection instruments must be developed according to local circumstances. For example, in places where there are many different farming systems, no single format of data collection and analysis is adequate. In the Andes the format for high-altitude alpaca producers will have to be very different from the format for valley-floor farms raising maize, vegetables, cattle, and goats. (McCorkle, 1990).

## Development context analysis

Can use with **Part 4: Guiding questions 1.1 - Development Context Analysis.**

Useful participatory tools in **Part 3: Village Resource Map (Tool 1), Transect walk (Tool 2), and Venn Diagram (Tool 3).**

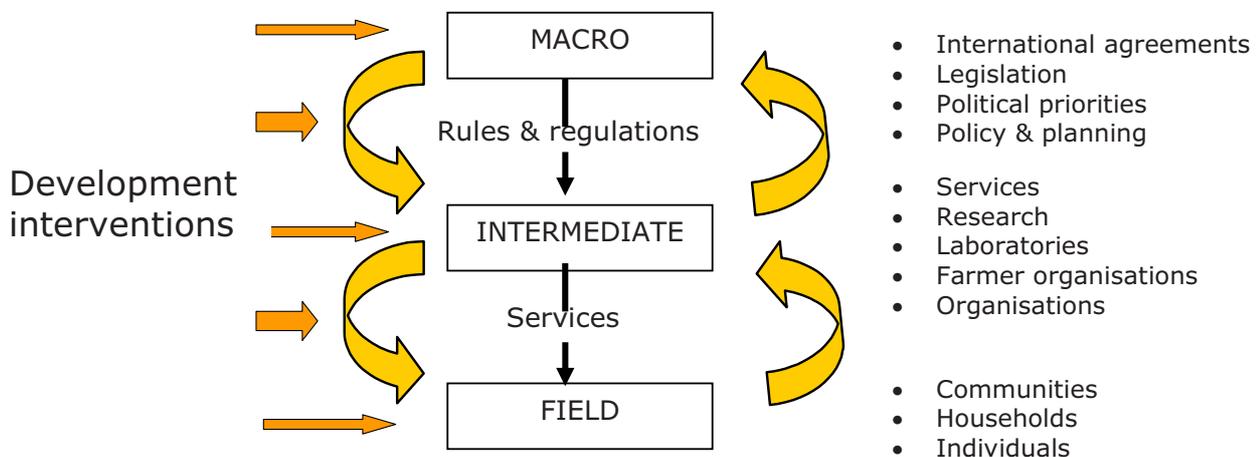


Rural life is dynamic; farmers and livestock keepers adjust their activities to various socio-economic and environmental patterns. The setting in which these different patterns emerge is called the *Development Context* according to the SEAGA approach. In order to plan and implement effective and relevant livestock-related interventions, it is crucial for livestock planners and specialists to understand the development context in which their clients and communities carry out their livelihood. Examples of patterns influencing rural livelihoods include:

- **Environmental** – drought, deforestation, disease outbreak, floods and other natural disasters
- **Economic** – change in markets, demand for livestock products, pricing
- **Socio-cultural** – outmigration, education, HIV/AIDS-stigma, access to resources
- **Political** – national trade policies, international trade agreements, border closures to livestock (control disease), national (multi-sectoral) HIV/AIDS policies, strategies and/or frameworks
- **Institutional** – farmers' groups, community leadership, livestock and veterinary extension services

In planning and implementing livestock initiatives, the emphasis is on understanding these patterns at the **field** (individual, household and community) level and how they interlink with **intermediate** and **macro**-level patterns in terms of **supports** and **constraints**. Variables of the three levels are usually linked or overlapping. For the analysis, it may be helpful to consider them separately, but eventually they must be seen in the broader context. Also, most variables are dynamic and changing, therefore it is important to look at the trends of each over time. The following figure suggests one way of considering the different levels and interlinkages in the livestock development context.

Figure: The livestock sector: a perspective from three levels



The **macro-level** includes, but is not exclusive to, macro-economic policies, legislation, political priorities, and international agreements. For example, recently, many national policies have supported the privatisation of state veterinary services. In many cases, farmers can no longer afford these services and are left without support<sup>16</sup>. Unfavourable land tenure policies and laws may inhibit women's capacity to access services that require proof of land ownership (i.e. credit). In terms of HIV/AIDS, several countries now have national HIV/AIDS frameworks or strategies in which different sectors including agriculture are encouraged to coordinate their responses to the disease.

The **intermediate** level includes livestock services and research institutions and provincial governing bodies and NGOs, agricultural credit institutions, etc. Many organisations and service providers suffer loss of skilled staff due to AIDS. Service providers are increasingly strained to meet the needs of the farmers under their jurisdiction as many of their staff fall sick or die. In many areas, women have difficulty accessing services as livestock is perceived as the responsibility of men. Yet women may have responsibility over particular aspects of livestock production (e.g. milking, zero-grazing, treatment of sick animals).

The **field level** includes household and community norms and conventions, access to and control over household and community resources, labour allocation, community-based groups such as marketing collectives, women's groups, etc. One of the biggest field-level issues facing farmers' production these days is HIV/AIDS-related stigma. Individuals or households affected by the disease are often marginalised or shunned from community groups. If their HIV+ status is known, it is often difficult for them to access credit as they may be perceived as a bad credit risk. This impacts their capacity to sustain a livelihood for their household and increasingly impoverishes the household.

#### **Impact of livestock policy on communities and livelihoods: linkages between macro and field levels**

In the **Near-East**, pastoral communities adhered to a local system of conserving grazing reserves for dry periods called *Hema*. Since the 1960s, the use of the Hema system has gradually decreased because of a number of factors. Decision-making and control over rangelands changed hands from communities to the governments. The most active members of the communities migrated to urban areas. A rising demand for meat in the urban areas led to subsidies for feed inputs (e.g. locally produced or imported barley), more animals and overgrazing. The herders changed the composition of their herds keeping more sheep and fewer camels. Development of water sources, roads and trading posts further contributed to overgrazing at certain points. People started to cultivate grains in areas of marginal rainfall. The abandonment of the Hema system resulted in the loss of a number of useful annual forage species and left the rangelands extremely degraded and some irreversibly desertified. (Source: Qureshi 1991).

#### **How livestock can support women's productivity & income-generation**

Female farmers responsible for providing the family's basic needs can use their labour to increase the household's income generation. Following the introduction of mules in **India**, the time women used to carry fuel was freed, allowing them to begin income-generating activities such as knitting and tomato growing. After the introduction of donkey carts in an area of **Burkina Faso**, men, who traditionally would not carry wood, water or harvested crops, started to transport water and wood for sale. Women used the time to engage in cotton spinning for income generation. (Source: Blumberg 1989)

<sup>16</sup> For more about macro-level issues, see the *SEAGA Macro-level Guide (FAO 2003c)*.

## Livelihood analysis

Can use with **Part 4: Guiding questions 1.2 - Livelihood Analysis.**

Useful participatory tools in **Part 3: Farming Systems Diagram (Tool 4), Resource Picture Cards (Tool 5), Labour Analysis Picture Cards (Tool 6), and Seasonal Calendar (Tool 7).**



Within the development sector, there has been an increasing focus on “livelihoods”. The “sustainable livelihood” approach is widely applied<sup>17</sup> across the agricultural sector and is used in different regions of the world. There is talk of “rural livelihoods”, “secure livelihoods”, etc.

People use all sorts of resources and engage in various activities to secure a “livelihood” – something that ensures their security and provides food and/or income for their households and themselves. Men and women engage in activities such as agriculture and livestock production and depend on various resources such as land, water, agricultural inputs, different technologies, labour, and credit. Access to these resources varies by region, culture, age, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, caste, and health, in particular HIV status. Access to, and control of, resources also differs between household members and between households.

Livelihood analysis focuses on the roles and responsibilities of individuals and households in their setting, together with their needs, perceptions, and interests. It looks at intra-household **labour allocation, resource use and control** as well as decision-making mechanisms. It looks at where men and women, young and old, wealthy and poorer, and HIV/AIDS-affected and non-affected individuals and households have separate development **interests, needs, and priorities.**

It is important to look at livelihoods from inside the household to understand **patterns of resource access, decision-making and power relations** and their impact on food security and the overall well-being of household members.

Analysing intra-household dynamics helps livestock and other development planners to gain a better

understanding of the **gender roles and relations** among household members. In so doing, livestock planners and others are better able to understand individuals’ and households’ resource management decisions, as well as their common interests and conflicts of interest in accessing and using resources.

### Livestock production and the gendered division of labour: Differences across regions

On the Dhamar Montane Plains of the **Yemen Arab Republic**, “women are more involved in livestock farming than in crop production activities. Their basic responsibilities are related to animals kept at home. Cattle, stall-fed sheep, poultry and, to a lesser extent, the daily herded sheep are under the control of women.” (DGIS - Range and Livestock Improvement Project, Communication no. 34, 1989)

“In the mountain areas of **Nepal**, women collect fodder, feed and graze the animals, clean the sheds and compost the wastes. Elderly women perform milking and prepare butter and *ghee*. Children, mainly girls, take the animals for grazing. Elderly men decide about the breeding of animals and marketing of products. Marketing of milk is exclusively done by men.” (Source: Tulachan and Neupane, 1999.)

<sup>17</sup> See Department for International Development (DFID) for more information about the Livelihoods Approach: <http://www.livelihoods.org>

Analysing **labour** by gender helps to identify who is responsible for which activity and who has knowledge of particular aspects of livestock production and other household activities. This is particularly important for targeting livestock extension services, especially in terms of planning extension visits or training activities. It is also useful to assess whose labour might be affected by a possible change in the household. For households affected by HIV/AIDS, women's labour may already be stretched in taking care of sick household members; there may be little time for taking on additional livestock activities. On the other hand, introducing labour-saving technologies or less intensive livestock production activities may be useful in such cases.

There are several participatory learning tools that can be used to help identify the various **productive**, **reproductive**, and **community** tasks of different members within and between households. The toolbox in this guide contains some useful tools and SEAGA questions for working with communities to identify labour allocation, time-use, and seasonality of labour. The SEAGA Field Handbook (Wilde 2001) also contains several tools that can be used for **Livelihood Analysis**.

**Resource use and control** is a critical area to assess in order to plan effective and appropriate livestock programmes or projects. In assessing household resources and who has access to them, it is important to consider not only livestock, but also other resources that are required for livestock rearing, such as land, water, fodder and supplements.

Within households and communities, resources are typically not shared equally among all members. Women may have **access** to land for productive activities, but they may not have control over the **use** or sale of crops or livestock on that land. Due to inheritance practices in many areas, a woman whose husband dies may experience asset or property grabbing from her husband's relatives. In a household, it may be the man who makes the decisions about how livestock are used including *if* and *when* they can be sold. In many areas, women within a household may have decision-making control over poultry. Men holding title to land typically make the decisions over its use.

**Building assets** is an important step in developing a sustainable livelihood. Saving and credit facilities can play a role, especially when a household is ready to invest in more intensive farming. Livestock can serve as both an asset and as credit. They have an intermediate role between a household's fixed capital, such as land and buildings and liquidities, such as money and farm produce. They can be "saved" to accumulate capital or sold to meet a cash need or they can do both at the same time, when products such as milk is sold.

#### Example – Micro-credit

The **Grameen bank in Bangladesh** provides micro-credit to poor people, mainly to women's groups, who use it predominantly for purchasing a dairy cow or as start-up capital for a kiosk. "Conventional banks do not provide loans to the poor and only 1% of the borrowers are women. We wanted to extend small credit to poor people and with a 50-50 gender ratio. Initially the women said, 'Give it to my husband, I know nothing about finances'. It took us 6 years to achieve our aim. We then noticed that loans that were given to women benefited the families more than equal loans given to men. Women take better care of children, immediately raise their income, have a longer term vision, are cautious with money, have a strong sense of dignity and want to get away from poverty. We did not see these same tendencies in men. (Men are more focused on themselves), are impatient and want to enjoy right away. We decided to give priority to women. Today 94% of our borrowers are women." (M. Yunus, founder of the Grameen bank, television interview, DNW / VPRO, 1999.)

**Decision-making power** is gendered. Certain members of the household or community often hold more power than others when it comes to decision-making. Control over decisions varies between types of households (i.e. male-headed, female-headed, etc.). It also varies depending on the activity or resource in question; men may make some livestock-related decisions while women may make others.

**Example: Decision-making** about livestock products and revenues within households can vary a lot, even between two villages of the same area and ethnicity. The two matrices below show the gender differences in decision-making per product in two Kamba villages in Machakos district, Kenya. (Source: NAP (1997) "Leaving the stick", DIO project, NAP)

KUTWA UTWIO YIUKU WA MOSYAO MA INDO NA MBESA INDO SYATEM  
(DECISION MAKING ON ANIMAL PRODUCTS AND MONEY OF ANIMAL PRODUCTS)

	Mosyao (PRODUCT)		MBESA KUMA Mosyao Ni (MONEY OF PRODUCT)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
MAUTA (BUTTER)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●●●	—
IIA (MILK)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●
VUU (MANURE)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●●●	—
MATUMBI (EGGS)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●●●	—
WIA WA MALONDU (WOOL)	●●●●●●	●●●●	●●●●●●	—
KITHUMA (HIDES)	●●●●●●	—	●●●●●●	—
NyAMA (MEAT)	●●●●●●	—	●●●●●●	—

NTHUNGI VILLAGE, 20-2-97  
INFORMANTS: BETH NZUKI, VERONICA MUTUKU, THERESIA NTHENGE, ROSEK  
FACILITATORS: JOSIAH MAKAU & ANNA VERSTEEG

KUTWA UTWIO YIUKU WA MOSYAO MA INDO NA MBESA INDO SYATEWA:  
(DECISION MAKING ON ANIMAL PRODUCTS AND MONEY OF ANIMAL PRODUCTS)

	MOSYAO (PRODUCT)		MBESA KUMA Mosyao Ni (MONEY OF PRODUCT)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
VUU (MANURE)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●
MAUTA (BUTTER)	—	●●●●●●	—	●●●●
MATUMBI (EGGS)	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●	●●●●
IIA (MILK)	—	●●●●●●	—	●●●●
NYAMA (MEAT)	●●●●●●	—	●●●●	—
KITHUMA (HIDES)	●●●●●●	—	●●●●	—
WIA WA MALONDU (WOOL)	●●●●●●	—	●●●●	●●●●

NGELANI, 21-2-97  
INFORMANTS: MUTUNGA SILA FACILITATORS: JOSIAH MAKAU  
NTHUSI SILA ANNA VERSTEEG

## Stakeholders' priorities analysis

Can use with **Part 4: Guiding questions 1.3 - Stakeholders' Priorities Analysis**

Useful participatory tools in **Part 3: Venn Diagram (Tool 3), Problem Ranking & Problem Analysis Chart (Tool 6), Combined Option & Cost-benefit Assessment Chart (Tool 9), and Preliminary Community Action Plan (Tool 10)**



Stakeholders are those people or institutions who affect and/or are affected by development policies and activities. Stakeholders' **interests, incentives and priorities** are the driving forces for or against change. Development policies and projects can have different impacts on different people or groups of people; some may benefit more than others. For example, a livestock project that calls for a reallocation of labour (e.g. poultry intensification) or a redistribution of resources (e.g. reallocation of land for fodder crops) will clearly impact community and household members differently.

A project with potentially far-reaching effects or impacts will have many stakeholders at different levels. A field-based project can include stakeholders at the intermediate level (e.g. district veterinary and extension services) or the macro-level (policy-makers or politicians, etc.). Even outsiders, such as technical experts and donor agencies, are stakeholders in a project.

The easiest way to identify different stakeholders is to look at the resources needed to implement a particular livestock activity. These might include water, land, trees, credit, training, and human resources such as labour inputs.

The *SEAGA Field Level Handbook* (Wilde 2001) identifies three types of stakeholders:

- Those who have or need a resource;
- Those who are affected by the use of a resource by others;
- Those who influence decisions about resources.

Looking at stakeholders in this way is useful for identifying the following:

**Undesirable consequences:** Stakeholders can be negatively affected by a project in a very direct way (e.g. expectations for labour inputs from households already suffering from labour loss). A project may also disrupt social relations in a household or community. For example, women may become empowered through an income-generation project such as poultry raising or selling dairy products; their husbands or other men in the community may react negatively. It is important to assess these possibilities and look for ways to address them with the community or groups involved.

**Options for building consensus:** Stakeholders have different priorities and perceptions. For example, while HIV/AIDS may be a huge problem in the area from the perspective of government and health workers, community members may list other problems as higher priorities – for example, drought or outbreaks of disease among their livestock. Another example may be a community that wishes to increase livestock production in an area that lacks outlet markets. Community wishes may also be quite different from what is allowed or promoted by national legislation or resource

management policies. In certain cases, it is difficult to reach consensus with a community or groups therein; unless difficulties are addressed, chances for project success are minimal. Therefore it is important to link the stakeholder, livelihood, and development context analyses.

**Stakeholder commitment:** A livestock project without stakeholder commitment is unlikely to be a success. Most projects require beneficiaries to invest a certain amount of labour and resources. For this, it is essential that the direct beneficiaries are actively involved in project identification and design.

#### **Undesirable consequences: Example from a livestock project in Ethiopia**

In the **highlands of Ethiopia**, women are in charge of several tasks related to dairy farming. From the household, they process and distribute milk. The sale of butter and cheese provides their main income. When a project introduced crossbred animals and a milk collection system, men took over milk marketing. Women's control over income from milk production was affected substantially, even though they had to contribute extra labour. (GTZ: n.d.: Women in development and livestock production: How to go about it)

#### ***Institutional capacity analysis***

Can use with **Part 4: Pull-out section 3 - Guiding questions for addressing gender and HIV/AIDS in livestock-oriented institutions**

Useful participatory tools in **Part 3: Venn Diagram (Tool 3)**

As part of the stakeholder analysis, it is important to assess the capacity of institutions that may be considered in implementing a particular livestock initiative. Institutional support is necessary to implement a project not only for practical reasons, but to sustain the potential merits of the project, ensure a long-term commitment, and mainstream project objectives.

Institutional capacity analysis can be carried out on individual institutions as end-users/target of the project, or as a service provider for the project. This guide focuses on how to assess an institution for project support<sup>18</sup>.

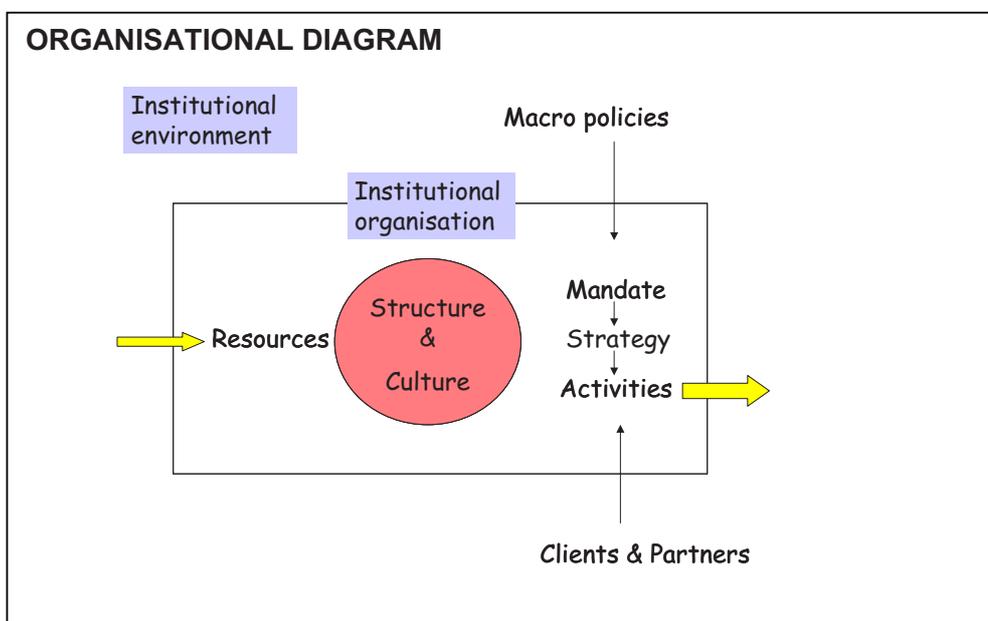
The focus of the analysis is at the intermediate level, but includes looking at linkages between the macro (e.g. policy impact) and field levels (e.g. provision of services to, and relationships with clients). The Organisational Diagram on the next page outlines some of the interlinkages that need to be addressed. In the case of livestock development, institutional support might come from:

- government or private veterinary, artificial insemination (AI) and extension services
- drug providers
- diagnostic laboratories
- on-farm research projects

<sup>18</sup> In the case where an institution is the object of a project, a useful resource is to analyse service providers is Kleemann(1999).

- farmers' associations
- milk collection points
- quality control agencies for inputs and products
- credit and market facilities
- local governing bodies
- NGOs
- women's groups

In assessing the capacity of an institution, the socio-economic and gender requirements for the project should be included as they are as important as the technical aspects. If institutions do not give priority to targeting different socio-economic and gender groups, they are unlikely to do so in implementing projects. Responding to the farmers' needs means responding both to women and men farmers as well as poorer farmers.



Moreover, it is becoming increasingly important for institutions across all sectors to incorporate strategies to support staff in their efforts to address HIV/AIDS and gender issues both in their work with clients and within their own institutional setting. In many countries, there are national policies and strategies to coordinate efforts to address the impacts of HIV/AIDS. These include poverty reduction strategies, plans, HIV/AIDS policies and polices that promote gender equality (FAO 2003d).

For example, in Uganda, the National Strategic Framework for HIV/AIDS (2000/2001 – 2005/2006) incorporates HIV/AIDS related issues in the broadest context of development and in relation to other national policies. It calls for the integration of HIV/AIDS activities in all ministry and government sector initiatives.

Institutional capacity analysis pays attention to the internal structures such as vision statements, policies, strategies, institutional culture, staff, etc. An institutional capacity assessment should also examine the external structures or linkages of the institution or association to other similar bodies, the government and farmers.

Local community associations are usually less formal than institutions and are built on membership. Analysing the mandate, organisational culture, structure and resources is also applicable to them, but some questions may have to be adapted.

#### **Need for gender sensitivity in livestock institutions**

In an FAO-supported animal production and indigenous knowledge project in the Andes, community women responded with the following when asked, “Do the institutions working in the communities prefer to work with women or men? Why?”

- They prefer working with men. It is our custom – men always come first;
- Men have been trained in courses, congresses, seminars. They have an easier time expressing themselves because they have gone to school and have been in the military. They have power;
- Institutions and authorities do not value women. We do not have time; we are dependent on our husbands; we do not speak Spanish;
- The educated outsiders do not trust the women. They think they cannot rely on us to unite the community;
- In the community, men and women work together, but the institutions speak only to the men and the authorities.

Source: FAO/World Concern Latin America (1995)

In summary,

- If no appropriate institutions exist, it may be necessary to create them.
- If they do exist, their capacities need to be assessed.
- If the institutional capacity is not sufficient to support the project, it will be necessary to include support for capacity building in the project.

Ideally, it is better to work with already operating institutions or local structures as these are likely more sustainable. Institutions or organisations created by projects often depend on project resources to keep them going -- once a project is finished, they may crumble as they lack the resources to sustain them.

#### **Options, cost- benefits & consensus**

Can use with **Part 4: Guiding questions 1.4 - Options assessment, cost-benefit analysis, and consensus.**

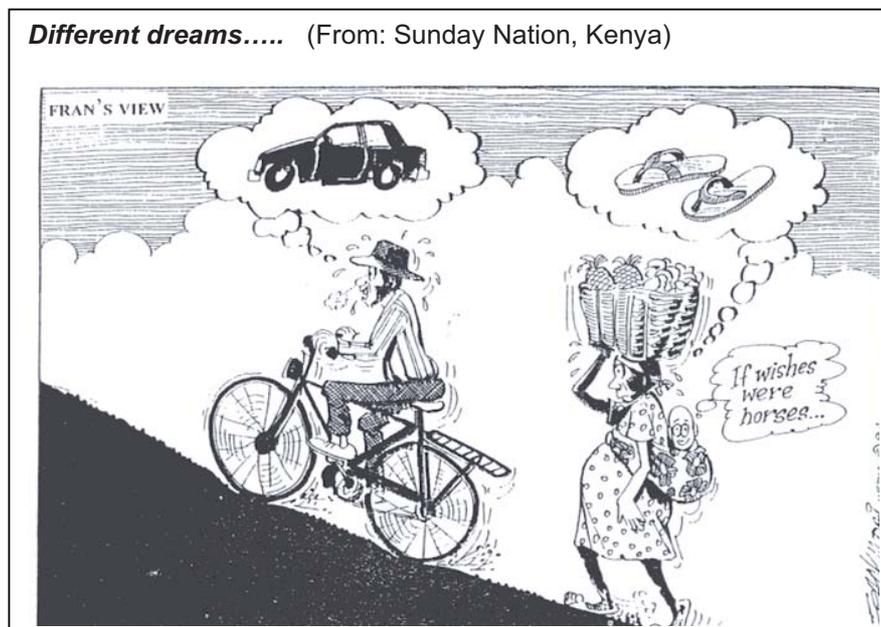
#### **Options assessment**

Under the SEAGA approach, the Stakeholders’ Priorities Analysis also looks at options and planning with communities; this builds on the needs assessment. It is important to consider the different stakeholders’ interests, priorities, and incentives when choosing an option; some stakeholder “voices” may be “louder” than others. Project designers, implementers and donors also have stakes in the project; care should be taken so that they do not bias the assessment.

Assessing socio-economic and gender considerations demands particular attention; less-empowered groups in a community or individuals in a household may not suggest options, especially if they might potentially affect people or groups with more power in the household or community. For this reason, it is important to gather as many different views as possible (e.g. focus groups of women, men, poorer and better

off farmers, different types of households – i.e. those living with orphans, widowed households, etc.)

In conducting an options assessment, it is often useful to first list the options in focus groups with people of similar needs, then with the overall group or community.



### Costs and benefits assessment

Before one or more options can be developed into project objectives, the costs and benefits should be assessed in terms of *economics and financial/resource inputs and gains* on one hand and *social equity*<sup>19</sup> on the other. Thus, in the cost-benefit assessment, we look at *what* is gained or lost and by *whom*. The assessment will help those involved prioritise options and reach consensus.

Options need to be screened for direct inputs from the people involved. Even if an option is economically attractive, it may not be feasible as it may require a scarce input such as labour, land, or financial investment that people cannot afford. This is true of many HIV/AIDS-affected households, particularly among female-, child- or grandparent-headed households. On the other hand, an economically viable, but not as attractive option, might yield direct gains such as labour-saving practices or a (small) increase in income.

The social and gender costs and benefits may be more difficult to assess, especially when the data are not disaggregated. Information from the livelihood analysis, stakeholder priorities' analysis and resource assessment will give an initial understanding of the gender and socio-economic costs and benefits to different target groups, households, or individuals. The cost-benefit assessment can strengthen or weaken the validity of the initial information obtained.

<sup>19</sup> Equity unlike equality does not make people the same or have the same. Equity is reached when people get a fair share -- fair as defined by themselves.

### **Consensus and conflict**

Achieving consensus for project options requires skilful facilitation and negotiation capabilities. Communities are heterogeneous. Their members may have very different needs, views and interests. Project options may touch on political perspectives or change economies in ways that disadvantage certain individuals or groups. Underlying differences and conflicts among stakeholders can easily be stirred in the process of defining project objectives. In cases where dissonance or even discord develops in the process, a community may be left in disharmony. In some cases, a conflict resolution specialist may be required.

#### **Livestock resource-related conflict in Kerio Valley, Kenya (Part 1)**

In the Kerio Valley in Kenya ethnic violence between Pokot (pastoral) and Marakwet (agro-pastoral) people escalated to a point of indiscriminate killing of children, women and the elderly and also of outsiders, such as development project staff.

SNV (Netherlands Development Organisation), which was implementing a project in the valley, decided to pull out believing that there was no scope for development in a war zone. On reflection, they realised that they had neglected the problem of conflicts, as it was not within their mandate and they did not have the expertise to deal with it. They looked to collaborate with an organisation with expertise in conflict resolution in that particular area and found it in the National Council of Churches of Kenya (NCCCK). Together they interviewed the people and analysed the conflict.

Consensus builds on an iterative process of agreement and negotiation. Agreement is more easily reached within a homogeneous group. Therefore it is sometimes useful to follow a two-phased process to build consensus, first discussing the options in focus groups of stakeholders with similar interests, and secondly, holding a workshop to bring the stakeholders from different focus groups together. Consensus can (hopefully) be built upon the agreements of the focus groups through yet another process of negotiation and agreement.

There are many organisations that work on conflict resolution related to natural resources. FAO has also produced a number of materials and conducted training related to conflict resolution.<sup>20</sup>

#### **Livestock resource-related conflict in Kerio Valley, Kenya (Part 2)**

SNV and NCCCK concluded that the violent conflict was in essence a dispute about scarce natural resources that involved an intricate pattern of cultural perceptions, political interests and criminal practices. Although natural resource use was the root problem, it could only be addressed effectively if the cultural, political and criminal aspects of the conflict were discussed among the conflicting communities and dealt with in cross-border agreements. The feeling was that by getting the communities to be active owners of the conflict management process, the cycle of *“no peace without development and no development without peace”* could be potentially broken. (Source: NCCCK/SNV/SARDEP (2001).

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<sup>20</sup> For example, FAO's Forestry Department has developed excellent training materials on conflict resolution – many of the materials can be adapted to livestock-related conflicts. See Means et al. (2003).

## 2.2 Project design



This SEAGA guide emphasises the identification and preparation phase of livestock initiatives. Once a group or community and planners have prioritised options for livestock (and possibly other related) activities, a project can be more fully developed. In the design phase, action moves to designing a project/programme plan with specific objectives, concrete activities, outputs, inputs, indicators, responsibilities, and assumptions.

A few issues that may benefit from special consideration in terms of socio-economic, gender, and HIV/AIDS issues in the design phase are included here. These are:

- Research and development;
- Collaboration and support;
- Expertise; and
- Gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs).

The SEAGA Programme has developed a *Project Cycle Guide* (Bishop-Sambrook 2001) that looks at project design in greater detail in terms of addressing socio-economic and gender issues in developing logframes, indicators, and workplans.

### **Research and development**

In addition to the information collection and analysis conducted in the preparatory phase, it may be necessary to generate more detailed knowledge related to the specific proposed livestock project. It may be necessary to undertake more in-depth research on socio-economic and gender issues. This is equally or more important for the success and sustainability of a project than filling the gaps in technical information.

Generating knowledge through research may also be a project objective, for example the development or adaptation of a technology to local circumstances or particular beneficiaries (e.g. youth- or grandparent-headed households). A gender and socio-economic focus should also remain important in research and development to respond to the needs and constraints among different types of households and individuals.

While an increasing amount of research had been conducted on the impacts of HIV/AIDS on agriculture and food security, the interlinkages with livestock production are not understood as well, perhaps especially with regard to remote pastoral communities. Aspects to consider include:

- Sampling HIV/AIDS-affected and non-affected households (i.e. how to identify them, the need for proxy indicators, etc.);
- Livestock and other resource (land, implements) ownership patterns and impacts;
- Impact of inheritance practices on livestock access and control in HIV/AIDS-affected and non-affected households, particularly on widow-headed households and children;
- Access to knowledge about livestock (e.g. individual, inter-generational, community);
- Changes in livestock numbers (and species, breeds) over time (by different types of households) and main reasons for changes;

- Changes in animal husbandry as part of household livelihood strategy over time;
- Changes in community livestock organisations or groups over time;
- The potential of different livestock activities in mitigating the impacts of HIV/AIDS and other chronic illnesses on food security. This might include assessing the impact of improved poultry production on local nutrition and food security, particularly of HIV/AIDS affected households or groups.

Note: Because of the differential impact of HIV/AIDS on women and men and on different socio-economic groups, it is important to disaggregate findings accordingly.

### ***Collaboration & support***

During the identification and preparation of the project, those involved in the planning should have assessed the compatibility between partners' interests and institutional capacity, perhaps with the help of tools such as the Venn Diagram and an Institutional Capacity Assessment. True collaboration and support are more likely to exist if there are mutual interests and benefits between partners. Special attention should be paid to assess whether the gender and socio-economic balances that were agreed upon in project identification and preparation are actually brought into practice. For example, if it was agreed that it is necessary to recruit more women for livestock extension services, women staff must be provided with the resources and support they need for their work.

### ***Expertise***

The type and level of expertise required depends on the project objectives and activities, for example, capacity building (disease diagnosis, farmer field schools, etc.), research and development, or livestock extension and communication. Each project will encounter implementation constraints that need to be overcome or minimised; this too may require specific expertise. More often than not, livestock projects are well-served by the services of interdisciplinary teams of experts including staff experienced in socio-economic and gender issues (rural sociologists, anthropologists, gender specialists, etc.). Increasingly, "agricultural" projects are now including HIV/AIDS and gender specialists on their team to look specifically at ways to help prevent an increase in HIV/AIDS and/or to mitigate the impacts of HIV/AIDS.

### ***Gender-sensitive Monitoring & Evaluation indicators***

The project or programme design should plan for the collection and analysis of disaggregated data to monitor and evaluate project progress, impact, accountability, implementation constraints, adverse environmental, social, or economic project impacts, and the need for adapting or identifying additional livestock or other related activities. To do so requires developing gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs) that can be used at the project level to monitor change in response to project interventions.

Developing GSIs for monitoring the gender- (and socio-economic-) related changes that arise from a livestock project begins with formulating "specific, realistic objectives that are people-relevant, as well as technically and environmentally sound" (Kettel 2001). Livestock projects will inevitably have gender-differentiated impacts on women's and men's livelihoods, including their participation, labour allocation, time-use, access to, and control over natural resources.

There are different types of gender-sensitive indicators that can be used in livestock projects. Impact and output indicators may be particularly useful:

- *Gender-sensitive impact indicators* can describe actual gender-related change arising from a livestock project such as labour change, income change attributable to project activities, etc.; and
- *Gender-sensitive output indicators* can describe the actual livestock project in a gender-sensitive way, such as the number of men versus women trained in a specific animal husbandry practice.

GSI can be qualitative or quantitative in nature; both are useful for monitoring gendered changes brought about by livestock projects. **Quantitative** GSIs use numerical data and are easy to quantify, whereas **qualitative** GSIs use more sociological information that can be derived from more qualitative processes of investigation (e.g. focus group discussions, participatory exercises, observation, etc.). Examples of both include:

**Qualitative:**

- Education level of women and men participating in a livestock project (by sex, age, socio-economic background, type of household)
- Perceived benefit by women and men of their participation in a livestock project.

**Quantitative:**

- Ratio of number of preferred traits used by women and men in livestock selection
- Number of female-headed households versus male-headed households owning draught animals.

To be useful and relevant, both types of indicators should be technically sound, measurable over time, and preferably be developed in a participatory manner. While quantitative GSIs will provide specifically numerically measurable data, qualitative GSIs will facilitate the collection of information that gives more meaning in terms of the views or perceptions of those experiencing change.

Monitoring and evaluation indicators should be formulated during the design process together with the user group or community. Such a process should:

- identify the broad livestock (and related) issues in the community;
- assess differences in who uses livestock and related resources and how (men, women, children within a household, male-headed households, widow-headed households, etc.);
- set a baseline against which change can be measured;
- develop gender-sensitive indicators to measure change; and
- monitor the indicator and the change over time.

**Feedback to and from the community**

Upon completion, the project design should be shared with the community to ask for their feedback. The planned project activities should be reflective of community agreements in the process. Only then can a project proposal serve as a contract with the community.

## 2.3 Project implementation



Since livestock related projects might include many technical issues, it is not possible to give an overview of each and every implementation issue. The guide addresses some of the socio-economic and gender concerns, including HIV/AIDS concerns, within a few general classes of activities:

- outreach/extension
- capacity building
- technology transfer
- decision and policy support
- resource management

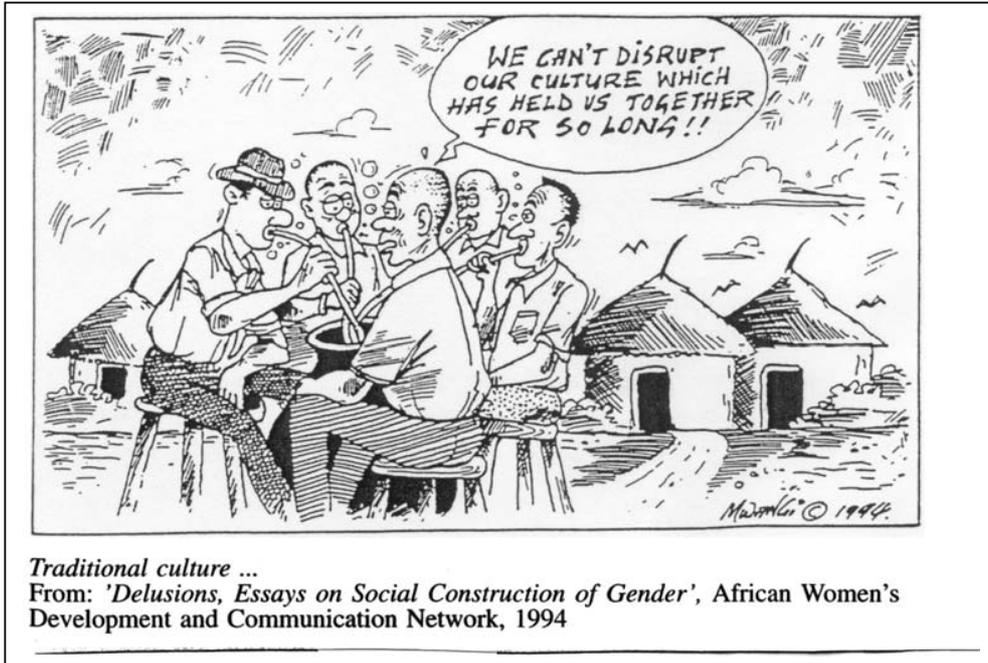
Many obstacles to the smooth implementation of activities can be prevented by good preparation and design. Still, a project is dynamic and may experience changes in project staff, beneficiaries, partners, objectives, resource allocations, timing of activities and other aspects.

For example, the design may have considered the need for compatibility of staff to beneficiaries. However, in the implementation phase, “real life” factors come into play. Cultural differences between outside experts and local counterparts can be a central factor. While it is important to recruit staff based on task requirements, other pressures may come into play that focus on preferential relations, political appointees, etc. Experienced staff may be lost during the project due to illness, death or reallocation; it may be difficult to replace specialised staff in a timely manner and in a way that suits local needs (language requirements, animal husbandry practice, etc.).

Although gender concerns may have been prioritised in the initial phases, in the implementation phase resistance may arise from either staff or community members. In many cases, this may be due to a lack of capacity to recognise the importance of gender. It may be necessary to carry out gender training for different levels of staff or community members in accordance with their tasks and responsibilities. For example, livestock project managers may require different training (e.g. gender and organisational change) than livestock extension workers dealing directly with farmers and production issues.

Projects that recruit a woman to address “gender issues” based on an assumption that women, by nature, are gender responsive, also face potential failure in this area. Women may not have been trained to address gender issues in food security and livestock production, while there may be men who have substantial training and sensitivity to gender and other socio-economic issues related to livestock.

Both staff and project beneficiaries may be aware of, and even have committed themselves to certain activities, but once the activities start to bring about change, resistance might grow – both from other members in beneficiary households or even from project staff. This may happen when women become empowered to take on different activities including income-generating activities. This may also happen in cases in which project staff feel project activities question or undermine their own role and status (this can come from either male or female staff). In order to be gender responsive, project staff need to internalise an awareness of the importance for change in their attitudes, in their behaviours, in their work, and in communities.



- Outreach activities:** For services such as livestock extension and veterinary services, it is important to make sure that the project provides the *right* client with the *right* service in a way that meets the client's needs. Developing daily activity clocks and seasonal calendars with different user groups can help identify appropriate times of the day and year to meet with different clients (i.e. men, women, subsistence farmers, pastoralists, etc.). Gender-sensitive HIV/AIDS messages should be included in livestock-related outreach activities, particularly for more remote communities, including pastoralist communities, with little access to information about its transmission and prevention. Such activities can also focus on how to avoid transmission of zoonoses, particularly for HIV/AIDS-affected individuals.

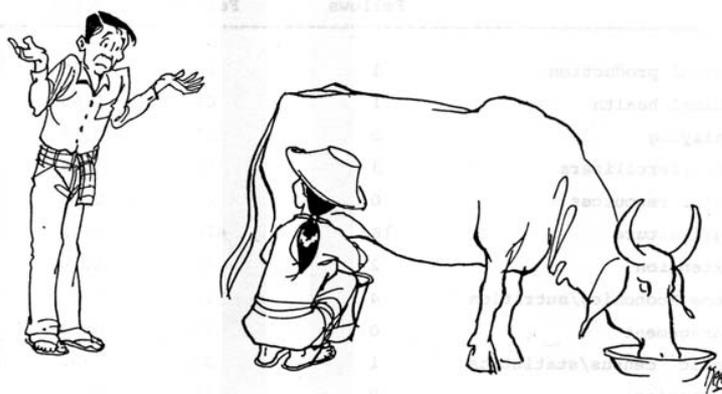
#### Veterinary services – staff expectations and difficulties

“Based on experiences in Ethiopia and Eritrea, a recent review of veterinary services in the Greater Horn of Africa noted that the typical situation involved a government veterinarian, usually of highland descent, posted to a hot, lowland, pastoral area where he (as it was nearly always a man) was unable to speak the local language and had limited respect for or understanding of the pastoral way of life. When these problems were compounded by no vehicle (or fuel or spares), no equipment, no medicines, delays in receipt of salary and expectations raised by a western-based veterinary education, it was easy to see why so many government veterinarians in dryland areas described their work as punishment.”  
 (Source: Catley et al. 1998.)

- Capacity building:** In terms of training and institutional strengthening, one of the key factors to consider is identifying appropriate participants and developing and administering a needs assessment. It is important, therefore, to know who is responsible for, and has interest in, which activities, and what sort of training they need for their particular situation. It is also important to build the capacity of livestock staff in terms of being HIV/AIDS competent and addressing it in their work with both affected and unaffected clients.

- **Technology:** While a particular technology may have proven useful and cost effective in one context, it cannot automatically be assumed to be appropriate in the context of the project. An existing technology may need to be adapted with livestock keepers, making sure that those who will use it are involved (i.e. men, women, old, young, etc.). Sometimes it is necessary to start fresh by undertaking a participatory technology development assessment with them. Particular attention should be paid to addressing the technology and labour needs of HIV/AIDS affected individuals and households.

**Extension messages** should be targeted at the person in the household who has responsibility for, or interest in, a specific issue. FAO – RAPA (1990)



*they forgot much of the subject matter  
before they could teach it to their wives  
who did the work.*

- **Decision and policy support:** Such activities generate information not just for the project, but also for decision-makers elsewhere. Paying attention to gender and socio-economic differences makes for more effective planning and crafting of interventions. It is important to include data that are disaggregated along socio-economic and gender lines along with analyses and interpretations describing the implications. Agricultural and livestock ministries are increasingly developing and implementing HIV/AIDS strategies; these are often in line with national HIV/AIDS frameworks or policies and can help guide decisions at all levels.
- **Resource management** activities are concerned with making available and accessible natural resources to the beneficiaries as well as promoting their efficient utilisation. In case of a scarce resource, there may be a conflict of interest in how to utilise it. For example, sedentary agriculturalists may compete with pastoralists for land. Resources may have many uses. For instance, in the case of breeding livestock, farmers may face trade-offs between production, disease, and/or drought-resistance traits. Resource management can also have an intrinsic goal, namely the preservation of resources for future generations, i.e. preserving domestic animal genetic diversity, rangeland, water sources, etc. Resource poor people may not have the power to preserve resources for future generations. It is an important development issue and therefore needs special attention throughout the project.

## 2.4 Project monitoring and evaluation

Can use with Part 4: **Guiding Questions 1.5 Monitoring and Evaluation**

Gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation (M&E) indicators should be developed with stakeholders during the design phase to measure how a project's objectives are (or are not) being reached. Gender-sensitive participatory monitoring can more effectively assess the progress of socio-economic and gender-related aspects of the project than one conducted by (outside) technical experts alone.

Separate impact assessment studies may be useful to look at the impacts of certain development strategies, methodologies, technologies, etc. The emphasis is often on the economic impact rather than on the social impacts. While it is more difficult to do, there has been an increasing call for monitoring the impacts of projects on the HIV/AIDS situation in the community. There are many factors that may influence individuals' and households' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS<sup>21</sup>.

It is also useful (although rarely done) to evaluate the project impact after the project is complete. Potential sources of data for post-project evaluation include: project activity records, farmers' logbooks and account books, observation, interviews, surveys, records of participatory field exercises, institutional reports and market data.

For monitoring and evaluation purposes it is also useful to make a plan for data collection and review. In Part 4, SEAGA questions are provided for the different kinds of SEAGA analyses needed during the identification and preparation of the livestock initiative. The questions are only indicative and should be adjusted to particular circumstances of the project as specified by the objectives and activities.

Throughout the guide, different tools are also suggested and are included in Part 3.

The following pull-out section in Part 3 provides a number of participatory tools and SEAGA questions for use with communities in identifying socio-economic and gender issues in the identification, design and monitoring of livestock-focused initiatives. It also provides some tips for planning and conducting a participatory field exercise with communities or groups.

<sup>21</sup> For more information about indicators and measurement in monitoring and evaluation, see for example FAO (2003b) and FAO (2003e).