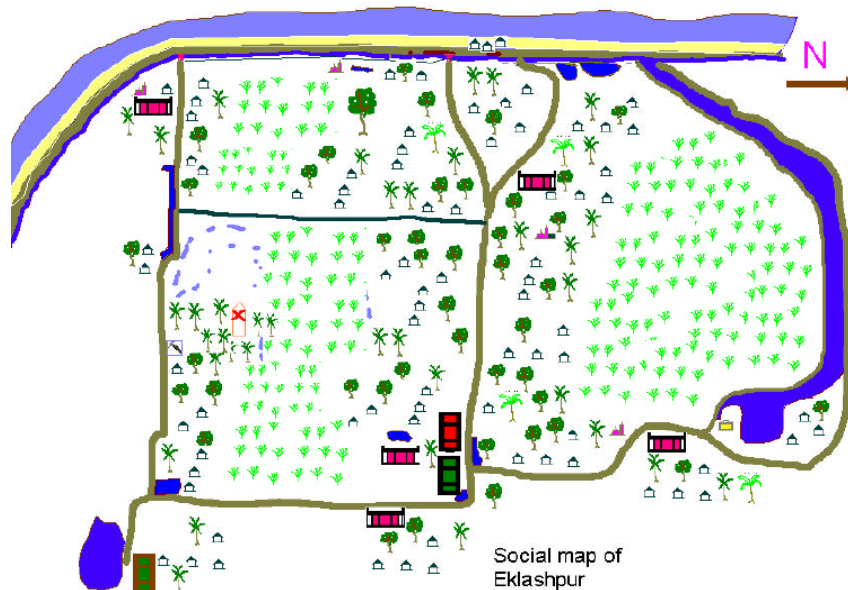


A. Introduction



1

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) is an approach to thinking about and working for community development that evolved in the late 1980s in order to enhance progress towards poverty elimination. It is an approach to development in which people's **livelihoods** are the focus of attention.

¹ Example of a Village Map From an HLS Assessment in Bangladesh, 2002



A. Introduction

The approach is underpinned by the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (see below), which represents a way of systematically understanding community livelihoods in line with the SLA.

The approach has been supported and promoted as a valuable tool for sustainable development by the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and it forms the foundation of much of DFID's development work, especially in relation to the poverty reduction movement.

It is a very progressive approach and is being used by the vast majority of large social development agencies, who continue to adopt, develop, replicate and implement the approach in their community development programmes.

One of the agencies that is actively using the SLA in their project and programme implementation is CARE, and they have developed a household level monitoring and evaluation process based on the SLA called the Household Livelihood Security Assessment (HLSA).²

² Household Livelihood Security Assessments: A Toolkit for Practitioners. CARE USA, Atlanta, July, 2002.



A. Introduction

In reality, the application of the SLA is not easy because it has to be fully integrated in any intervention or activity from the concept design phase, and requires actions to be carried out in a fully participatory manner. Fortunately, in this training, we will integrate the SLA from the beginning, looking closely at Sustainable Livelihoods and community participation in coastal resources management.

In my experience, the SLA is not a simple thing to implement and to transfer to the community using a fully participatory approach. The use of the SLA and its principles provides the community with the opportunity to participate in all stages of a project or programme action, and to carry out community development in a holistic manner.

I have experience in using the SLA at a number of levels, from developing village visions (CARE term: vision map of village) to developing policy level Poverty Reduction Strategic Papers (PRSP), especially with respects to applying the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). From these experiences, it is understood that participatory approaches need much time and patience to implement properly.



B. Livelihoods

1. Sustainable Livelihoods

One could describe a livelihood as a combination of the resources used and the activities undertaken in order to live. The resources might consist of individual skills and abilities (human capital), land, savings and equipment (natural, financial and physical capital, respectively) and formal support groups or informal networks that assist in the activities being undertaken (social capital).

A livelihood is **sustainable**, according to Chambers and Conway (1992), when it "can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain its capability and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation". Unfortunately, not all households are equal in their ability to cope with stress and repeated shocks. Poor people balance competing needs for asset preservation, income generation and present and future food supplies in complex ways.³ People may go hungry up to a point to meet another objective. People chose to go hungry to preserve their assets and future livelihoods. People will tolerate a considerable degree of hunger to preserve seeds for planting, to cultivate their own fields or to avoid selling animals. Corbett (1988), in exploring the sequential ordering of behavioural responses employed in periods of stress, found that in a number of African and Asian countries preservation of assets takes priority over meeting immediate food needs until the point of destitution.

Thus, food and nutritional security are subsets of livelihood security; food needs are not necessarily more important than other basic needs or aspects of subsistence and survival within households. Food-insecure households juggle among a range of requirements, including immediate consumption and future capacity to produce.

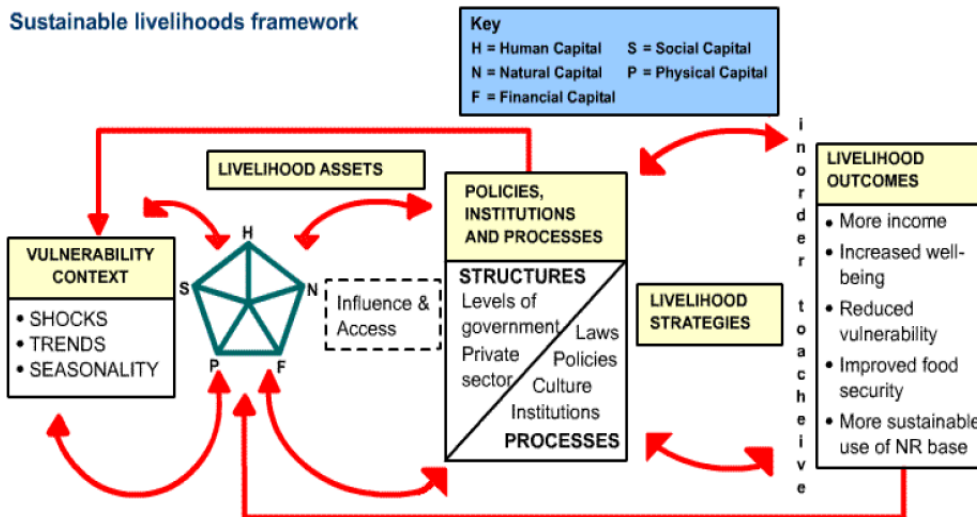
³ Maxwell and Smith, 1992

B. Livelihoods

2. Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

DFID's Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) is a visualisation tool that has been developed to help understand livelihoods (see figure below). It is intended to help users think through the different aspects of livelihoods, and particularly those factors that cause problems or create opportunities. Other organisations have developed similar frameworks that compliment DFID's.

The SLF can be divided into five key components: the Vulnerability Context; Livelihood Assets; Policy, Institutions and Processes; Livelihood Strategies; and Livelihood Outcomes. The SLF gives an overview of how these factors relate to each other. The links between them (arrows in the framework) are also critical, reflecting how people convert assets to activities, or how policies, institutions and process affect the key components.





B. Livelihoods

2. Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

The framework aims to stimulate debate and reflection, which should result in more effective poverty reduction. The framework does not attempt to provide an exact representation of reality. It is a simplification and it should be adapted for use in any given circumstance. Real livelihoods are complex and varied, and can only be properly understood through direct experience.

The SLF presents the main factors that affect people's livelihoods, and typical relationships between these. It can be used in both planning new development activities and assessing the contribution to livelihood sustainability made by existing activities. In particular, the framework:

- provides a checklist of important issues and sketches out the way these link to each other;
- draws attention to core influences and processes; and
- Emphasises the multiple interactions between the various factors which affect livelihoods.

The framework is centered on people. It does not work in a linear manner and does not try to present a model of reality. Its aim is to help stakeholders with different perspectives to engage in structured and coherent debate about the many factors that affect livelihoods, their relative importance and the way in which they interact. This, in turn, should help in the identification of appropriate entry points for support of livelihoods.



B. Livelihoods

3. Livelihood Security

Household livelihood security is defined as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs (including adequate access to food, potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, time for community participation and social integration).

Livelihoods can be made up of a range of on-farm and off-farm activities which together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash. Thus, each household can have several possible sources of entitlement which constitute its livelihood. These entitlements are based on the household's endowments and its position in the legal, political and social fabric of society.⁴

The risk of livelihood failure determines the level of vulnerability of a household to income, food, health and nutritional insecurity. Therefore, livelihoods are secure when households have secure ownership of, or access to, resources and income earning activities, including reserves and assets, to offset risks, ease shocks and meet contingencies.⁵

⁴ Drinkwater and McEwan, 1992

⁵ Chambers, 1989



B. Livelihoods

4. Livelihood Assets⁶

A key component of the SLF is the assets on which livelihoods are built, and can be divided into five core categories (or types of capital). These are: human capital, natural capital, financial capital, social capital, and physical capital.

People's choice of livelihood strategies, as well as the degree of influence they have over policy, institutions and processes, depends partly upon the nature and mix of the assets they have available to them. Some combination of them is required by people to achieve positive livelihood outcomes - that is, to improve their quality of life significantly on a sustainable basis.

No single category of assets on its own is sufficient to achieve this, but not all assets may be required in equal measure. It is important to note that a single asset can generate multiple benefits. For example, if someone has secure access to land (natural capital) they may also be able to get better access to financial capital, as they can use the land both for productive uses and as security for a loan.

⁶ Some of the text from this paper is taken from DFID's "Sustainable Livelihood Guidance Sheets". This distance learning guide is a living document that captures and presents best practice on DFID's sustainable livelihoods (SL) approach:
http://www.livelihoods.org/info/info_guidancesheets.html#1



B. Livelihoods

4. Livelihood Assets

4.1 Financial Capital

Financial Capital is a category of livelihood assets. Within the SLF, it is defined as the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. These resources include:

- **Available stocks:** Savings are the preferred type of financial capital because they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms: cash, bank deposits or liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery. Financial resources can also be obtained through credit-providing institutions in which case liabilities are attached.
- **Regular inflows of money:** Excluding earned income, the most common types of inflows are pensions, or other transfers from the state, and remittances. In order to make a positive contribution to financial capital these inflows must be reliable (while complete reliability can never be guaranteed there is a difference between a one-off payment and a regular transfer on the basis of which people can plan investments).

It should be noted that this definition is different from a strict economic definition of financial capital as it includes flows as well as stocks. (Economists would look only at stocks.)

4.2 Human Capital

Human Capital is a category of livelihood assets. It represents the skills, knowledge, capacity to work, and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood outcomes. At a household level human capital is a factor of the amount and quality of labor available. This varies according to household size, skill levels, education, leadership potential, health status, etc. Human capital is necessary to be able to make use of the other four types of livelihood assets.



B. Livelihoods

4. Livelihood Assets

4.3 Natural Capital

Natural Capital is a category of livelihood assets. It is the term used for the natural resource stocks (e. g. trees, land, clean air, coastal resources) upon which people rely. The benefits of these stocks are both direct and indirect. For example, land and trees provide direct benefits by contributing to income and people's sense of well-being. The indirect benefits that they provide include nutrient cycling and protection from erosion and storms.

4.4 Physical Capital

Physical Capital is a category of livelihood assets. It comprises the basic infrastructure and physical goods that support livelihoods. Infrastructure consists of changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive.

Key components of infrastructure include affordable transport systems, water supply and sanitation (of adequate quantity and quality), energy (that is both clean and affordable), good communications and access to information. Shelter (of adequate quality and durability) is considered by some to be infrastructure, while others would consider it to be a private physical asset and somewhat different from infrastructure.

Other components of physical capital include productive capital that enhances income (e.g. bicycles, rickshaws, sewing machines, and agricultural equipment), household goods and utensils and personal consumption items such as radios and refrigerators. Most of these are owned by individuals or groups. Some, such as larger agricultural equipment or processing units, can be accessed through rental or by paying a fee for the services used.



B. Livelihoods

4. Livelihood Assets

4.5 Social Capital

Social Capital is a category of livelihood assets. It relates to the formal and informal social relationships (or social resources) from which various opportunities and benefits can be drawn by people in their pursuit of livelihoods.

These social resources are developed through investment in:

- Interactions (through work or shared interests) that increase people's ability to work together;
- Membership of more formal groups in which relationships are governed by accepted rules and norms; and
- Relationships of trust that facilitate co-operation reduce transactions costs and sometimes help in the development of informal safety nets amongst the poor.

Critical benefits of social capital are access to information, to influence or power, and to claims or obligation for support from others.



B. Livelihoods

4. Livelihood Assets

4.6 Shocks

Shocks are a key element in the vulnerability context. They are usually sudden events that have a significant impact (usually negative) on livelihoods. They are irregular and vary in intensity and include events such as natural disasters, civil conflict, losing one's job, a collapse in crop prices for farmers etc. They can be classified into the following categories:

- Human shocks (e.g. illness, accidents);
- Natural shocks (e.g. floods, earthquakes);
- Economic shocks (e.g. job losses, sudden price changes);
- Conflict (e.g. war, violent disputes); and
- Crop/livestock health shocks.

Shocks and trends may be linked. For example some changes that appear as trends at a national or even regional level (such as increased infection rate for diseases such as AIDS and malaria) can impact upon a household or individual as severe shocks (e.g. death in the family).



B. Livelihoods

5. Livelihood Goals

The objectives pursued by people through their livelihood strategies; closely related to livelihood outcomes. Livelihood Outcomes are the achievements - the results - of livelihood strategies. Outcome categories can be examined in relation to the following categories:

- more income
 - increased well-being
 - reduced vulnerability
 - improved food security
 - more sustainable use of the natural resource base
 - social relations and status
 - dignity and (self)respect
-



B. Livelihoods

6. Livelihood Strategies

The term used to denote the range and combination of activities and choices that people make in order to achieve their livelihood goals. Livelihood Strategies include: how people combine their income generating activities; the way in which they use their assets; which assets they chose to invest in; and how they manage to preserve existing assets and income. Strategies may reflect underlying priorities, such as to diversify risk.

Livelihood Strategies are diverse at every level. For example, members of a household may live and work in different places, engaging in various activities, either temporarily or permanently. Individuals themselves may rely on a range of different income-generating activities at the same time, and are likely to be pursuing a variety of goals.



B. Livelihoods

7. Core Principles of Livelihood Analysis

The Core Principles of Livelihoods Analysis are as follows:

- Effort should be devoted to identifying and understanding the livelihood circumstances of **marginalised** and excluded groups.
 - Analysis should take into account important **social divides** that make a difference to people's livelihoods. For example, it is often appropriate to consider men, women, different age groups, etc. separately. It is not sufficient to take the household as the sole unit of analysis.
 - The SLA seeks to build upon **people's strengths** and resourcefulness. When conducting analysis it is important to avoid thinking only about need.
 - The SLA embraces the idea of **dynamism**. Avoid taking one-off snap shots and instead think about change over time, including concerns about sustainability.
 - There will never be a set recipe for which method to use under which circumstances. **Flexibility** is key. Equally, it is not necessary to produce one definitive 'map' of livelihoods. Different 'maps' may be appropriately used for different purposes.
-



B. Livelihoods

8. Core Principles of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

These are that poverty-focused development activity should be:

- **People-centered:** sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the differences between groups of people and works with them in a way that fits in with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt.
- **Responsive and participatory:** poor people must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Outsiders need processes that enable them to listen and respond to the poor.
- **Multi-level:** poverty elimination is an enormous challenge that will only be overcome by working at multiple levels, ensuring that local-level activity informs the development of policy and an effective enabling environment, and that higher-level policies and institutions support people to build upon their own strengths.
- **Conducted in partnership:** with both the public and the private sector.
- **Sustainable:** there are four key dimensions to sustainability - economic, institutional, social and environmental sustainability. All are important - a balance must be found between them.
- **Dynamic:** external support must recognise the dynamic nature of livelihood strategies, respond flexibly to changes in people's situation, and develop longer-term commitments.

The Core Principles of the SLA should not be confused with the core principles of livelihood analysis which relate more specifically to the activities involved in investigating livelihoods.



B. Livelihoods

9. Household Livelihood Security

Household Livelihood Security⁷ is defined as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs (including adequate access to food, potable water, health facilities, educational opportunities, housing, and time for community participation and social integration). Livelihoods can be made up of a range of on-farm and off-farm activities that together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash. Thus, each household can have several possible sources of entitlement which constitute its livelihood. Entitlements include the rights, privileges and assets that a household has, and its position in the legal, political, and social fabric of society.

The risk of livelihood failure determines the level of vulnerability of a household to income, food, health and nutritional insecurity. The greater the share of resources devoted to food and health service acquisition, the higher the vulnerability of the household to food and nutritional insecurity.

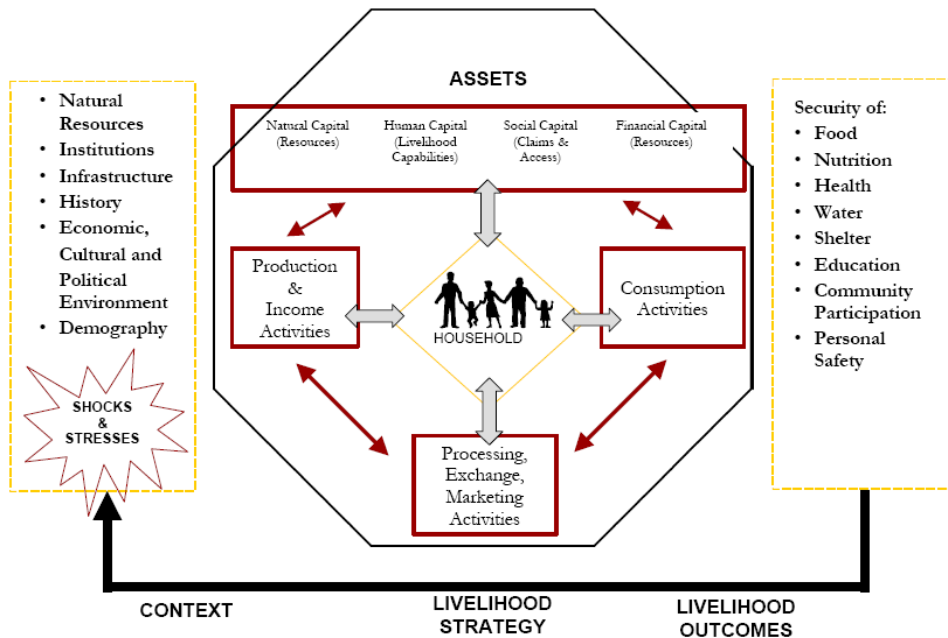
Therefore, livelihoods are secure when households have secure ownership of, or access to, resources (both tangible and intangible) and income earning activities, including reserves and assets, to off-set risks, ease shocks, and meet contingencies. Households have secure livelihoods when they are able to acquire, protect, develop, utilise, exchange, and benefit from assets and resources.

⁷ For a complete discussion of the HLS Conceptual framework, see “Operationalizing Household Livelihood Security: A Holistic Approach for Addressing Poverty and Vulnerability” by Frankenberger, Drinkwater and Maxwell (2000).

B. Livelihoods

9. Household Livelihood Security

CARE's Livelihood Security Model





C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods⁸

The participatory approach constitutes an approach to development and/or government in which the underlying principle is that the key stakeholders (and especially the proposed beneficiaries) of a policy or intervention are closely involved in the process of identifying problems and priorities and have considerable control over the related activities of analysis, planning and the implementation of solutions. To facilitate this approach there are a variety of participatory methods or techniques that can be used.

These are **methods** that are used to encourage people's participation in the processes of identifying/analysing livelihood opportunities and problems, setting priorities and planning, implementing solutions, and monitoring and evaluating changes and impacts. They are very important for understanding livelihoods and are designed so as to promote learning and empower people in their dealings with external agencies and institutions.

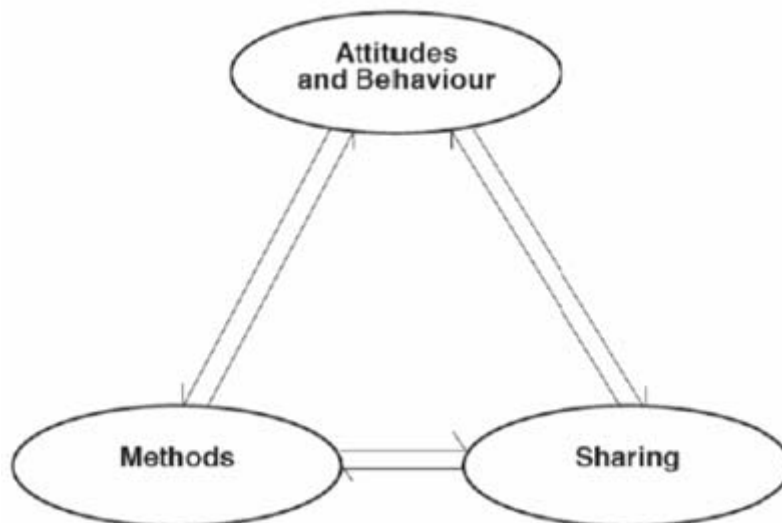
Often, such participation is facilitated by community groups. These provide a platform and opportunity for people to involve themselves in decision making processes. There are 3 key “pillars” that support effective participation: Methods/Tools; Sharing; and Attitudes and Behaviour (see figure next page). These are described in greater detail in the proceeding sections.

⁸ Relaxed and Participatory Appraisal Notes on Practical Approach and Methods, Robert Chamber, 1999.

C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

The Three Pillars of PRA





C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

1.1 Methods or Tools

There are several visualisation methods for group discussions which enable a large number of people, including illiterate people, to contribute views and see the results. These include timelines, seasonal calendars; transect walks, resource maps, preference ranking, matrix ranking, wealth ranking, and Venn diagrams.

The predetermined focus of a participatory interaction will define what kind of tool will be used. For example, if the focus of a participatory discussion is to jointly understand more about the situation and condition of the village as a whole, a village transect and mapping can be used. These are often used in 'rapid appraisal' or 'participatory rural appraisal' processes. Depending on how they are used, they may only promote participation in information gathering (if the information is used by outsiders), or they may be used as tools for participatory decision-making. Both uses have a role. Either way, the methods can be used within an SLA to investigate a wide range of factors in a relatively open-ended way, such as:

- Income and wealth distribution within a community or neighborhood;
 - The historical, social and environmental context of livelihoods;
 - Trends, forces of change, influence of policies; and
 - Pros and cons of different livelihood strategies, reasons behind people's choices, what they wish to see being done by local authorities, etc.
-



C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

1.2 Sharing

The above tools can be used to explore a topic of discussion with the community. Knowledge and information generated in open, transparent, participatory discussions and exploratory sessions promote the sharing of findings.

Exploratory discussions will usually be carried out in a group (though not exclusively so). There should be a facilitator to guide discussion and it should be recognised that all of the group members are resource persons as they are likely to have relevant experience, knowledge or information that can be shared.

- Ensure that all relevant individuals have an equal opportunity to participate (e.g. despite their geographical location, affiliation to a project, gender, social group, taking into account seasonal issues of availability)
 - Rapid progressive learning should be practiced. This should be flexible, exploratory, interactive, inventive, with an emphasis on learning from, with and by local people, eliciting and using their criteria and categories.
 - Adhere to the principles of optimal ignorance and appropriate imprecision – it is not effective, in terms of time and resources, to find out more than is needed, or to measure more accurately than needed, or to measure what does not need to be measured. We are trained to make absolute measurements, but often trends, scores or ranking are all that are required.
 - Triangulation - using different methods, sources and disciplines, and a range of informants in a range of places, and cross-checking to get closer to the truth through successive approximations.
 - Direct contact, face to face, in the field.
 - Seeking diversity and differences.
-



C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

1.3 Behaviour Change

Participatory approaches require the supportive behaviour and attitudes of people (especially facilitators), and this is an extremely important factor in ensuring that positive and conducive relationships and communication channels are used. This fact was first highlighted in Participatory Rural Appraisal principles, and this thinking has evolved to take equal importance in the principles underlying participatory approaches more generally. Some key ideas relating to optimal behavior include:

- Critical self-awareness about attitudes and behaviors; doubt; embracing and learning from error; continuously trying to do better; building learning and improvement into every experience; and taking personal responsibility.
 - Changing behavior and attitudes, from dominating to facilitating, gaining rapport, asking local people to teach us, respecting them, having confidence that they can do it, handing over the stick, empowering and enabling them to map, model, diagram, list, count, estimate, rank, score, analyse, present, plan, act, monitor and evaluate themselves, and to own the outcome.
 - A culture of sharing - of information, of methods, of food, of field experiences (e.g. between NGOs, Government and local people).
 - Commitment to equity, empowering those who are marginalised, deprived, excluded, often especially women.
-



C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

1.3 Behaviour Change

Behaviour and attitudes are more important than the methods. Participatory exercises are relatively easy to carry out, but if attitudes are not supportive, many of these methods will not work as well as they should. Where attitudes are right and rapport is good, it is often surprising what local people show they know, and what they can do. In facilitating participatory approaches there are many traps:

- Rushing (rapid and wrong again)
 - Lecturing instead of listening, watching and learning. Is this problem worse with men than women, worse with older men than younger, and worst of all with those who have retired? Who holds the stick? Who wags the finger? Who teaches? Who listens? Who learns?
 - Interrupting and interviewing people, and suggesting things to them, when they are trying to concentrate on mapping, ranking, scoring, diagramming. Learning not to interview is not easy.
 - Imposing "our" ideas, categories, values, without realising we are doing it, making it difficult to learn from "them", and making "them" appear ignorant when they are not.
 - Gender biases with male teams and neglect of women (again and again and again and again and again). What are the proportions of women and men among us here?
 - Rushing, lecturing and interrupting instead of listening, watching and learning. Forgive me, but it needs repeating. This can be a personal problem which we do not recognise in ourselves. It is best treated as a joke, and pointed out to each other when we err. Which we all do.
-



C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

Other recurrent problems are:

People are reluctant to spend time in the field or to night halt in villages
Consultants who claim expertise but do not give primacy to behavior and attitudes.

Large-scale implementation of participatory approaches in a blueprint mode, demanded by donors and Governments, routines, top-down, with no changes in behaviour and attitudes. Instructions to all in an organisation that they will immediately use participatory approaches. Rapid unself-critical adoption leading to poor outcomes, and discrediting participatory approaches.

C. Participatory Approaches

1. Participatory Methods

The Three Pillars of Participation

Behaviours and Attitudes

- Giving up control
- Learning and listening
- Open minded
- History
- Respecting differences
- Motivation
- Adaptability/flexibility and passion
- Listening well/active listening
- Speaking their languages and less academic
- Informal rather than formal
- Provide a comfortable environment that allows all present to participate fully and completely in all aspects of the dialogue
- Open minded
- Respect
- Group mentality - awareness of commonalities and differences
- Belonging
- Open to surprises
- Researchers approach with humility

Tools and Methods

- Focus groups
- Sorting, etc. exercises
- Games
- Mapping
- Introductions
- Wheel
- Plain language
- Visualization
- Flexible, accessible and responsive to the needs and expectation of all participants, multidisciplinary and exciting to all
- Use different learning styles - visual, auditory and kinesthetic
- Building on past coping strategies to deal with challenges
- Community consultation
- Seasonal calendars
- Time charts
- Event books
- Community mapping
- All participants share in defining research questions
- Object-oriented participatory planning (e.g. Zopp)

Sharing and Partnership

- Exchange in knowledge
 - Engaging people in the process
 - Action outlet
 - Policy development based on findings
 - Discussing ideas
 - Building relationships/networks
 - Debrief (reflection) with participants
 - Identify problems together with the target group
 - Requires that at all stages of information sharing, decision making and reporting should be all inclusive
 - Shared interest in research
 - All people/participants have input/participate
 - Returning results of research
 - Build group atmosphere/participation
 - Knowledge/learning is exchanged between all participants
 - Respect for local knowledge
 - Identifying group's objective
-



C. Participatory Approaches

2. Partnerships

In the SLA, the role of partnerships in the development process is seen to be of prime importance at all levels including:

- Partnerships with poor people.
- Partnerships with both public sector and private sector implementing agencies and stakeholders in developing countries (the SLA explicitly recognises the important role that the private sector plays in development).
- Partnerships between different departments within your organization.
- Partnerships with other donors.
- Partnerships with research organisations.

It is hoped that the dialogue around the development and implementation of the SLA will provide the basis for deeper and more meaningful development partnerships. Such partnerships will only be possible if care is taken to ensure that the approach builds on the accumulated experience of all partners and is not imposed on any partner.



C. Participatory Approaches

3. People Centred Approach

An approach that involves a focus on people, i.e:

- What matters to people;
- What distinguishes one group of people from another group; and
- Working with people in a way that fits in with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt.

One of the core principles of the sustainable livelihoods approach is that it should be people-centred.



C. Participatory Approaches

4. Social Analysis/Appraisal

Investigation of social structures and relations, in the SLA is used to provide information on the relevant characteristics of poverty, vulnerability and social exclusion. It can help to understand:

- The social positioning of individuals or families (distinguished by kinship, age, gender, ethnicity, religion, caste, etc.);
 - Which social characteristics (e.g. standard of living or extent of poverty, gender, age, ethnicity) are important in defining groups for more detailed livelihoods analysis;
 - What the dimensions and effects of exclusion of various groups are (e.g. lack of access to assets, to services, to household or community-level social institutions, or lack of voice);
 - The existence and cause of conflicts within communities;
 - Power and authority as manifested by traditional authority (e.g. village chiefs, community leaders) and the authority of the state and its agencies;
 - Non-market, social institutions such as customary tenure, common property; and the way policy, institutions and processes affect different social groups.
-



C. Participatory Approaches

5. Stakeholder Analysis

Stakeholder analysis involves:

- A. Identifying key stakeholders in relation to any initiative: i.e. groups who have a similar interest (or 'stake'), and which differs in some way from others' interest;
 - B. Analysing the perspective of the key stakeholder groups: their role, views, needs, etc. and their relationship with other stakeholder groups.
Stakeholder analysis can help to reveal, for example:
 - The capacities of different stakeholders to participate in (and benefit from) development activity as well as their perspectives on that activity;
 - The relative political power, access to information and institutional means to command attention (including blocking change) of different groups;
 - The complexity of organisational relationships;
 - The area and sources of power and patronage;
 - Who depends upon which environmental resources and services and how they are affected by change;
 - Gaps and overlaps in the roles and functions of different stakeholder groups.
-



D. Review

Participatory approaches form the heart of livelihood development for poor communities. Without solidarity, without behavior change, and without tools to reach a common understanding between development workers and communities, it is very difficult to reach livelihood goals. It is not only about income generation but also about how to develop good relationships with each stakeholder, and to empower and understand others in order to support social change.

The goal of much of sustainable livelihoods development is how to develop viable livelihood strategies. These may already exist in a community, but changing factors (such as an increasingly degraded environment, poor water quality, a dwindling resource base etc) can jeopardise the long term sustainability of these strategies, necessitating changes. Participatory approaches represent the manner in which these livelihood strategies must be developed in collaboration with communities.

Struggling to achieve livelihood goals is ultimately an exercise in empowering people, especially poor people, households and communities.



E. Reference

Chambers, R. 1989. *Editorial introduction: vulnerability, coping and policy*. IDS Bull., 2(2): 1-7.

Chambers, R. & Conway, G. 1992. *Sustainable rural livelihoods: practical concepts for the 21st century*. IDS Discussion Paper No. 296. Brighton, UK, Institute of Development Studies.

Corbett, J. 1988. *Famine and household coping strategies*. World Dev., 16: 1099-1112.

Davies, S., Buchanan-Smith, M. & Lambert, R. 1991. *Early warning in the Sahel and the Horn of Africa: a review of the literature*. IDS Research Reports No. 20. Brighton, UK, Institute of Development Studies.

de Waal, A. 1989. *Famine that kills: Darfur, Sudan 1984-1985*. Oxford, UK, Clarendon.

Drinkwater, M. & McEwan, M. 1992. *Household food security and environmental sustainability in farming systems research: developing sustainable livelihoods*. Paper presented to the Adaptive Planning Research Team Bi-annual Review Meeting, Mangu, Zambia, 13-16 April.



E. Reference

Frankenberger, T. 1992. *Indicators and data collection methods for assessing household food security*. In **S. Maxwell & T. Frankenberger, eds.** *Household food security: concepts, indicators, and measurements: a technical review*. New York, NY, USA and Rome, UNICEF and IFAD.

Frankenberger, T. 1996. *Measuring household livelihood security: an approach for reducing absolute poverty*. Food Forum, No. 34. Washington, DC, USA.

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). 1993. *Rural poverty alleviation and nutrition: IFAD's evolving experiences*. Technical Paper, Technical Advisory Division, Project Management Department. Rome.

Maxwell, S. & Frankenberger, T., eds. 1992. *Household food security: concepts, indicators, and measurements: a technical review*. New York, NY, USA and Rome, UNICEF and IFAD.

Maxwell, S. & Smith, M. 1992. *Household food security: a conceptual review*. In S. Maxwell and T. Frankenberger, eds. *Household food security: concepts, indicators, and measurements: a technical review*. New York, NY, USA and Rome, UNICEF and IFAD.
