

BANTAW

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INDICATORS OF MINDANAO

Volume 17 No. 7-8

2004

The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to Development: Its Evolution, Utilization and Measurements

Introduction and Rationale

The term sustainable livelihood is widely used by non-governmental organizations (NGO), government, funding agencies and the Bretton Woods institutions (e.g., World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Bank for International Settlements). Currently there are over 50 official definitions of the term sustainable development, while the term livelihood by connotation is complex and diverse.

The general ethos of sustainable livelihood is certainly well understood by development practitioners particularly in terms of expected outcomes. However, the complexity of the components of sustainable livelihood is often overlooked.

This paper attempts to provide an overview of the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) to development. While livelihoods may be a combination of urban, peri-urban and rural activities, this paper largely focuses on rural livelihoods.

The rationale for this focus stems from the fact that the incidence of poverty has been revealed to be not only regionally specific but also sectoral. According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (2001) the proportion of the poor making their living in rural areas has remained and is expected to remain strikingly high. Additionally, over half the world's extreme poor depend primarily on farming or on-farm labor for their livelihoods. In the Philippines, the incidence of rural poverty¹ is 41.1 percent, while that in Region XI is 48.5 percent.

This paper is divided into three main parts. The first presents the evolution and subsequent adoption of the SLA as a reaction to the failure of traditional "top-down" development approaches. The various uses of the SL approach are referred to here, but the mechanisms involved in their implementation are beyond the scope of this paper. In particular, a detailed examination of the SLA is not offered here since this paper attempts only to acquaint the reader with the topic, rather than provide instructions as regards its utilization.

The next section attempts to examine the components of the SLA framework. In order to achieve this, key terms and concepts are first established. Thence, the measurements of a sustainable livelihood are presented. The SLA framework and its various components are also examined.

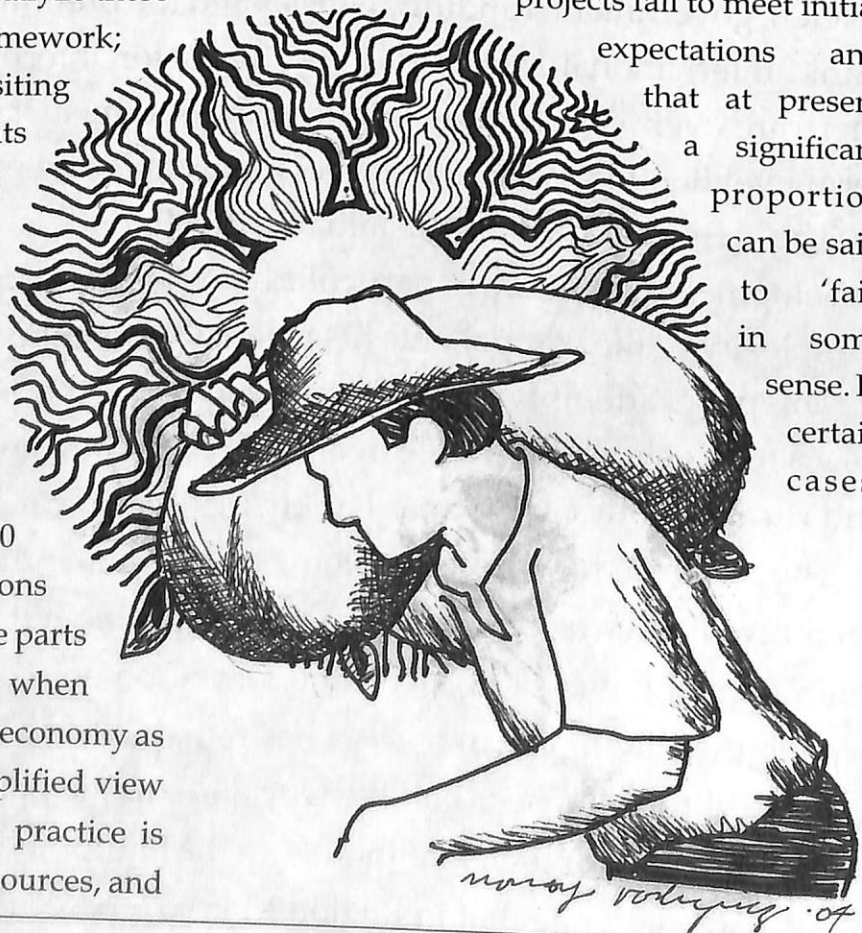
This paper does not attempt to analyze these results within the broader SL framework; instead this paper concludes by revisiting the SLA from the perspective of its contribution to development noting that the tool itself is only as good as the subsequent use of its outputs.

The Evolution of the SLA to development

Development theory was established in Britain between 1650 and Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* (1776). Lewis (1988) defines it as those parts of economics that play crucial roles when one tries to analyze the growth of the economy as a whole. Gore (2000) proposes a simplified view in that the essence of development practice is the mobilization and allocation of resources, and

the design of institutions to transform national economies and societies in an orderly way, from a state and status of less development to one of higher development.

The approaches used in the latter part of the last century to achieve this elusive transformation have been subject to much review and correspondingly influenced practice. While it is widely understood that agriculture is the "fuel" that propels the "rocket" of development, Hulme (1995) testifies that "in the 1970s, agricultural and rural development projects were believed to be the 'on the cutting edge' of initiatives to improve rural livelihoods. However, subsequent evaluations have concluded that many projects have produced poor results". Weiss (1996), for his part, reports that for a considerable amount of time, international agencies in the project fields have been aware of the simple fact that many



projects fail to meet initial expectations and that at present a significant proportion can be said to 'fail' in some sense. In certain cases,

this failure of "development" projects has resulted in increased poverty.

This high incidence of project failure provided the foundation for an examination by donor institutions into the ethos of projects. Garforth (1982) discusses one prominent review undertaken by the World Bank as early as 1975, where it was noted that much of the technology made available to small farmers was inappropriate.

For Oakley (1991), development has become capital centered rather than people centered; it has by-passed or even marginalized people in its concern to build and construct specific projects. Smith (1988) also discusses this bypassing of people in projects specifying that, in particular, project identification often "made no reference to the people in the productive system, especially farmers".

While it is impossible to pinpoint changes in development thinking with any historical accuracy, there is no doubt that the mid-1970s saw the start of a fundamental shift away from the domination of a modernization and intervention paradigm of development towards a systematic search for alternatives. The belief that wherever practicable, the ultimate beneficiaries of a development project should be given as much input into its design and operation as possible has gone "almost from heresy to orthodoxy among development professionals" (Gerson, 1993). In other words, a move from exogenous to endogenous policy developments has taken place.

This international momentum towards people-centered development rather than resource-centered development enabled the concept of sustainable development to be

introduced into a climate favorable to its uptake and subsequent evolution into the SLA which in turn received not only financial but institutional support as well.

The SLA has common origins and principles largely rooted in early work into participatory approaches and methodologies. Indeed, much of the language currently used stems from participatory methodologies, which evolved due to an increasing recognition of the need to address social aspects of development. Bamberger (1986) summarized these factors at a time when participatory approaches were gathering considerable momentum. First was the accumulating evidence about the effects that beneficiary participation in project design and management have on the efficiency of implementation, cost recovery and project sustainability. Second was the limited capacity of national and local government agencies to manage effectively the increasing number of development projects and programs. Third was the belief that development planners have a moral obligation to "listen to the people", both to understand their needs and to assess how their lives are actually being affected by donor-sponsored projects and policies. A final factor was the concern over gender issues. Women were not able to make their full contribution or receive their full share of benefits unless projects were designed to take into account their special needs and potentials.

Boyd et al., ed. (2000) assert that the livelihood approach to development places people at the center of development and works to support people's efforts to support their own livelihood goals. It places emphasis on converting the capital assets of the poor through improved

livelihoods to create impact and build the asset base further (Ellis-Jones, 1999).

The Brundtland Commission Report of 1987 offered the first appearance of sustainable development in policy debate which was later conceptualized later as the SLA.

“Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

It contains within it two key concepts: the idea of ‘needs’, in particular the essential needs of the world’s poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment’s ability to meet present and future needs.

The origins of sustainable livelihood as a concept must be accredited to Robert Chambers of the Institute of Development Studies (IDS). Chambers and Conway (1992) provided the following working definition of a sustainable livelihood, which formed the basis of what is commonly accepted today as the definition of a sustainable livelihood.

...the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.

In the early 1990s, certain donor agencies had witnessed sufficient merit from the SLA to commence employing it in their work. Table 1 provides a brief overview of the subsequent uptake of the SLA approach by selected development agencies.

Table 1. Overview of the evolution of the SLA approach from 1987-1996.

1987	The World Commission on Environment and Development publishes the 'Brundtland Commission Report'.
1988	International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) publishes 'The Greening of Aid: Sustainable Livelihoods in Practice'.
1990	United Nations Development Program (UNDP) publishes the first Human Development Report.
1992	United Nations (UN) holds Conference on Environment and Development; Institute of Development Studies (IDS) publishes 'Sustainable Rural Livelihoods' by Chambers and Conway.
1993	Oxfam employs the SLA.
1994	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) adopts household livelihoods security as a framework for relief and development.
1995	UN World Summit for Social Development; UNDP adopts Employment and Sustainable Livelihoods as one of top five priorities; International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) publishes 'Adaptive Strategies and Sustainable Livelihoods' by Singh and Kalala; Society for International Development (SID) launches Sustainable Livelihoods and People's Everyday Economics Project.
1996	'Adaptable Livelihoods' by Davies is published; The Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom invites sustainable livelihoods projects; 'Participatory Research for Sustainable Livelihoods' by Rennie and Singh is published.

Source: Adapted from Solesbury, 2003.

Hussein (2002) in a multi-agency review of current practices in SLA says that “their widespread uptake, and the penetration of SL language and concepts in the development world over the past three years, supports the view that SLA incorporates and summarizes much of what is considered to be ‘best practice’ in development”. Although the approaches developed by the agencies may differ in appearance and components, the core principles have remained largely the same².

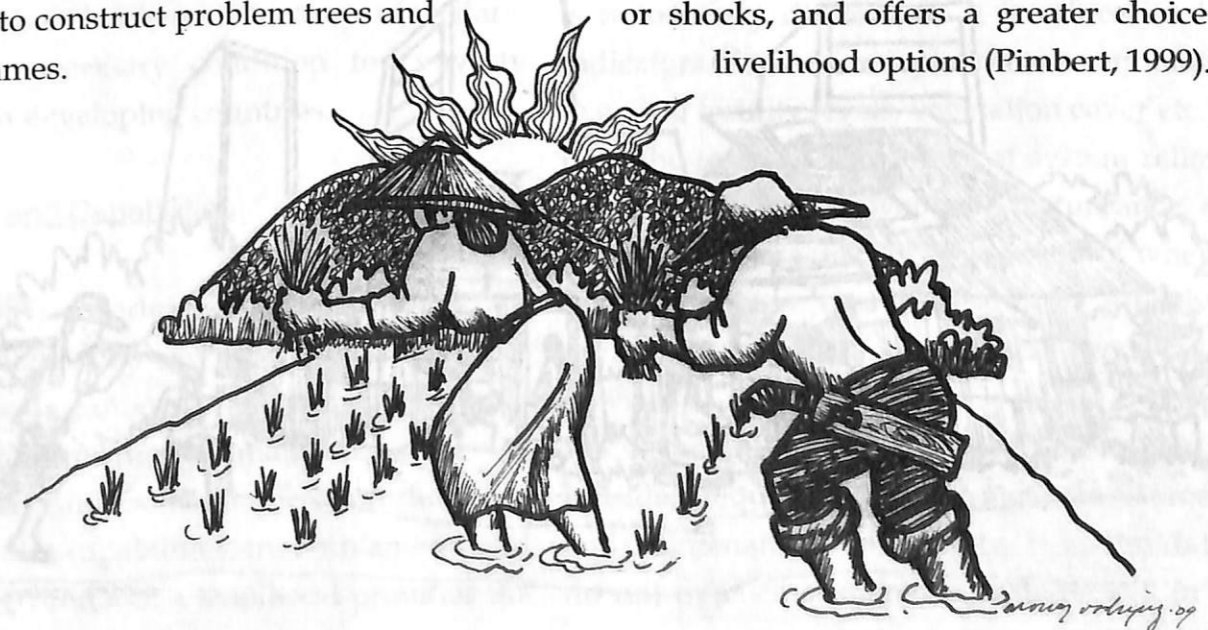
The degree of incorporation of the SLA varies between organizations. Its linkages with existing approaches and its diversity account for its widespread espousal. It can be used at the grass root level as a livelihood analysis tool while at the program level, its uses include but are not limited to program design and identification, planning new projects, reviewing existing activities and monitoring and evaluation. SLA builds on existing Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) principles and is similar to the failed Integrated Rural Development (IRD) approaches utilized in the 1970s. While participatory tools form an integral part of livelihood analysis, SL can also be utilized to construct problem trees and thus log frames.

Components of the sustainable livelihood framework

The Sustainable Livelihood Approach

Livelihoods in their simplest form are defined by Chambers and Conway (1992) as “the ways in which people satisfy their needs, or gain a living”. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, and maintain or enhance its capabilities or assets while not undermining the resource base” (Scoones, ed. 1998).

Haug (1999) on the other hand discusses Frankenburger's definition of rural livelihoods. According to this definition, “Rural livelihoods can be seen to consist of a range of on-farm and off-farm activities which together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash.” The livelihood strategies of many rural people, regardless of whether their agro-ecosystems are predominantly pastoral, swidden³ or based on permanent cropping, often incorporate wild resources and high diversity. This helps to provide resilience in the face of adverse trends or shocks, and offers a greater choice of livelihood options (Pimbert, 1999).



The SLA necessitates that development activities should be:

- **People-centered:** beginning by understanding peoples' priorities and livelihood strategies
- **Responsive and participatory:** responding to the expressed priorities of poor people
- **Multi-level:** ensuring micro-level realities inform macro-level institutions and processes
- **Conducted in partnership:** working with public, private and civil society actors
- **Sustainable:** environmentally, economically, institutionally, and socially, and
- **Dynamic:** ensuring support is flexible and process-oriented, responding to changing livelihoods.

Certain agencies have incorporated the following two elements into the SLA.

- **Holistic:** reflecting the integrated nature of people's lives and diverse strategies
- **Building on strengths,** while addressing vulnerabilities.



How is SL measured?

Various measurements exist as to what constitutes a sustainable livelihood. For the purpose of this paper, the author has chosen to use the measurements advocated by IDS which relies on the definition of sustainable livelihoods as submitted by Scoones, ed. (1998). Five key elements of the definition can be recognized. The first three focus on livelihoods, linking concerns over work and employment with poverty reduction and broader issues of adequacy, security, well-being and capability. The last two elements add the sustainability dimension, looking, in turn, at the resilience of livelihoods and the natural resource base on which, in part, livelihoods depend.

Each of these elements relates to wider literature and schools of thought. While some of these elements have established methods for measuring outcomes such as poverty, other elements are more difficult to measure.

The Elements

Creation of Working Days

This relates to the ability of a particular combination of livelihood strategies to create gainful employment for a certain portion of the year.

Sen (1975) has noted three aspects of employment, one of which is the production aspect whereby employment yields an output. The question of the valuation of such output can be quite complex, since much depends on from whose point of view the valuation is made.

Poverty Reduction

The poverty reduction objective is a key criterion in the assessment of sustainable livelihoods. Various measurements can be used to develop an absolute 'poverty line' measure based on income or consumption levels. Ravallion (1992) offers numerous measures each with individual pros and cons. Greeley (1994) for his part allows that there is broad agreement that income is an inadequate measure of welfare, although a necessary condition for poverty reduction in developing countries.

Well-Being and Capabilities

Sen (1984) ascertains that capabilities are directly valuable in a way that the possession of primary goods cannot be, since they evidently are means to some more human ends.

Chambers and Conway (1992) on the other hand state that capabilities are both an end and a means of livelihood: a livelihood provides the

support for the enhancement and exercise of capabilities (an end); and capabilities (a means) enable a livelihood to be gained. Chambers (1997) refers to capabilities as a means to livelihood and fulfilment; and their enlargement through learning, practice, training and education are means to better living and to well-being.

Livelihood Adaptation, Vulnerability and Resilience

The ability of a livelihood to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks is central to the definition of sustainable livelihoods. Those who are unable to cope (temporary adjustments in the face of change) or adapt (longer term shifts in livelihood strategies) are inevitably vulnerable and unlikely to achieve sustainable livelihoods.

Natural Resource Base Sustainability

Most rural livelihoods are reliant on the natural resource base at least to some extent. Measuring natural resource base sustainability is notoriously difficult, as it is critical to link indicators of resource depletion or accumulation (e.g., soil fertility levels, vegetation cover etc.) to both the temporal dynamics of system reliance (i.e., the ability to recover from disturbance) and livelihood needs (i.e., an assessment of whether natural resource change results in 'effectively permanent declines in useful products or services').

Sustainable intensification (especially on hillsides) requires protection against soil erosion and maintenance of soil fertility. Households that do not practice sustainable systems will in the

long term suffer increased poverty. Governments who do not make public investments to avoid this will also promote poverty (Ellis-Jones, 1999).

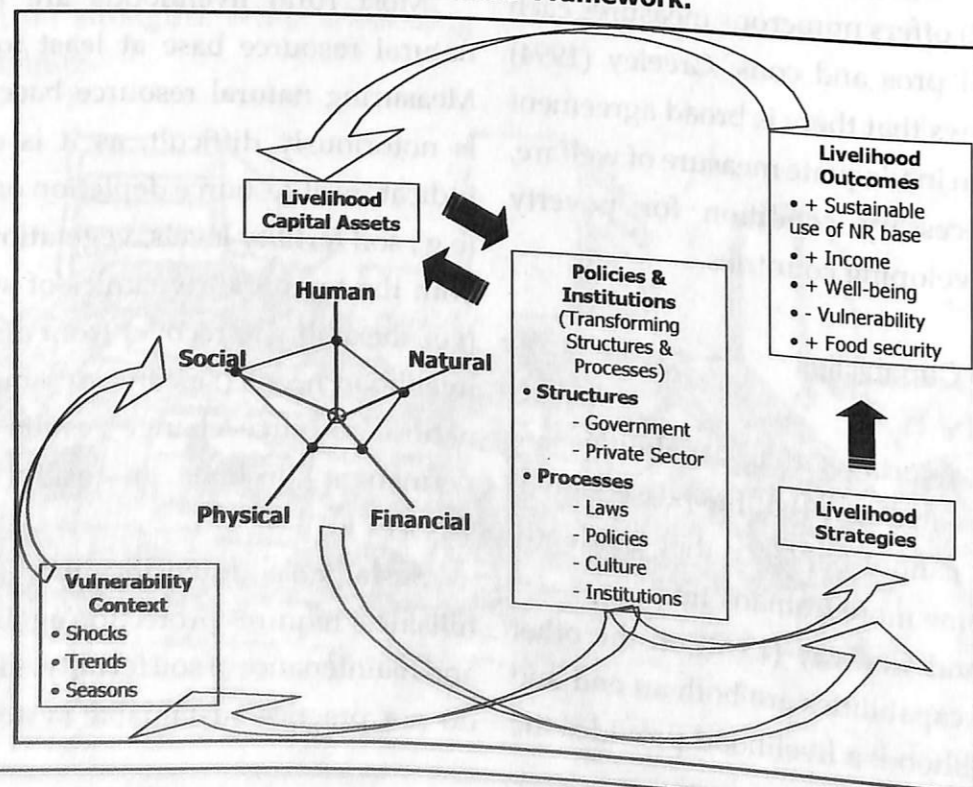
Technologies that simultaneously improve productivity and natural resource management are required, with focus on the development of resource management practices that conserve soil, water, and vegetation to increase productivity and reduce risk (Ellis-Jones, 1999). In the case of most new technology, Conway (1985) asserts that even when agricultural production is increased, this success may be short-lived if attention is not quickly diverted to side effects which threaten other equally important development goals. Carswell (1997) emphasizes that in the achievement of a sustainable livelihood, the trade-offs between productivity, equity and sustainability are critical.

The SLA framework--what it is and what it is used for

Livelihoods frameworks are a tool used to aid livelihood analysis and thus provide the outcomes, which are measured by the criterion presented above.

For the purpose of this paper, the author chose to focus on the DFID framework as it is deemed most suitable for the task at hand. However, the merits of other frameworks, in particular of the IDS rural livelihood framework, must be noted. The DFID SL framework presented in Figure 1 shows the main factors and issues that affect people's livelihoods. It describes typical relationships between these factors and issues while helping users to understand the way in which livelihoods are constructed and how they change over time. Finally, it acts as some kind of a checklist in order that less obvious issues are not overlooked in our investigations.

Figure 1. DFID Sustainable Livelihood Framework.



Vulnerability Context

The vulnerability context of the DFID SL framework indicates those external factors that make poor people vulnerable. Vulnerability is multidimensional, and poor households face manifold risks, so variations in income and consumption can occur for a variety of reasons (IBRD/WB, 2001).

This part of the framework deals with the shocks, trends and seasonality issues that "help to make or break livelihoods." The common link between these factors is that they are all somewhat outside people's control. For example, people have little or no influence over weather patterns, population trends or the advent of wars (whereas, in principle, they may be able to influence political and institutional factors).

The main factors fall into three groups, which are further examined in Table 2.

- Trends, such as population or technology trends, which could have either a positive or a negative effect on livelihoods.
- Shocks, such as natural disasters and civil conflict, which almost always have a negative effect.
- Seasonal shifts in things such as prices, health status or the production of goods. These make poor people particularly vulnerable because they are less able than richer people to accommodate and plan for change.

It is important to recognize that vulnerability, or livelihood insecurity, is a constant reality for many people. This is largely due to the fact that they do not have access to resources that would otherwise protect them from negative trends, shocks and seasonality factors. And even when the effects are positive, this same condition - lack of assets - prevents them from taking advantage. The SLA tries to help people break out of this cycle of vulnerability and poverty.

Table 2. Vulnerability issues.

Trends	Shocks	Seasonality
• Population trends	• Human health shocks	• Of prices
• Resource trends	• Natural shocks	• Of production
• National / international economic trends	• Economic shocks	• Of health
• Trends in governance (including politics)	• Conflict	• Of employment opportunities
• Technological trends	• Crop/livestock health shocks	

Livelihood assets

Lack of assets is both a cause and an outcome of poverty. These assets interact with market and social opportunities to generate income, a better quality of life, and a sense of psychological well-being. Assets are also central to coping with shocks and reducing the vulnerability that is a constant feature of poverty. There are powerful complementarities across assets: the benefits of one asset can depend crucially on access to another. Assets empower the poor. And assets help people manage risks (IBRD/WB, 2001).

DFID's SL framework identifies five core asset categories, or types of capital, on which livelihoods are built. These are capitals are human, social, natural, physical and financial. People's choice of livelihood strategies is influenced to a large extent by the range of assets to which they have access. A combination of assets is required in order to achieve positive livelihood outcomes. A single category of assets alone is insufficient to achieve this; however, all assets are usually not required in equal proportions. An important consideration when discussing assets is that a single asset can generate more than one benefit.

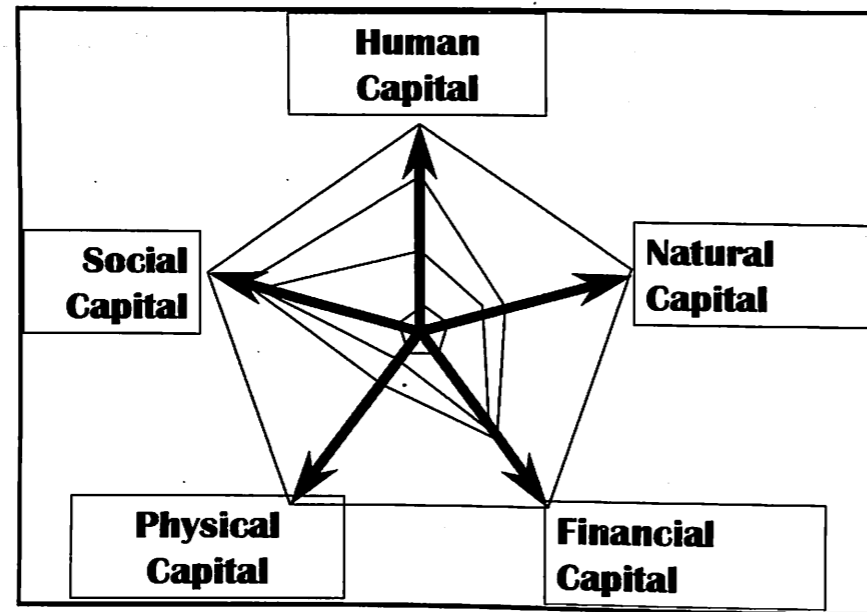
For example, secure access to land (natural capital) may enable someone to gain better access to financial capital.

DFID's asset pentagon as presented in Figure 2 depicts information about people's assets. It also suggests important inter-relationships between the various assets. The pentagon was developed to enable information about people's assets to be presented visually, thereby bringing to life important inter-relationships between the various assets. The shape of the pentagon can be used to suggest variation in people's access to assets.

The idea is that the center point of the pentagon, where the lines meet, represents zero access to assets while the perimeter represents maximum access to assets. Pentagons can be useful as a focus point for debate about suitable entry points, how these will serve the needs of different social groups and likely trade-offs between different assets. However, using the pentagon in this way is necessarily representative. At a generic level, there is no requirement for all assets to be quantified or to develop a common currency that allows direct comparison between assets. This does not, of course, rule out the development of specific, quantifiable indicators of assets where these are thought to be useful.

Different pentagons can be drawn for various groups or individuals or for the same group/individual over time. It is important to consider that in addition to differences between groups, there may be important differences in access between group members (for example, women may have access to particular assets that are inaccessible to men).

Figure 2. The asset pentagon.



Policy, Institutions and Processes (PIP)

Unlike most of the factors within the vulnerability context, people can, in principle and to a certain extent, influence these factors.

Many of the factors within PIPs relate to the services and environment created by government. However, this category also includes local-level institutions that are largely unaffected by government and the activities of private sector organizations. Important categories in this area include:

- local and central authority
- public service delivery
- legislation
- governance
- policy formulation and implementation
- participation
- institutions (regulations, interactions, laws and markets)
- organizations (NGOs, state agencies, the private sector, community-based organizations, etc).
- cultural factors (which may account for 'unexplained' differences in the 'way things are done' in different societies).

Policy, Institutions and Processes operate at all levels, from the household to the international arena, and in all spheres, from the most private to the most public. They are particularly important as they govern (1) access (to various types of capital, to livelihood strategies and to decision-making bodies and sources of influence) and (2) the terms of exchange between different types of capital (markets) and incentives to undertake certain activities or invest in particular areas.

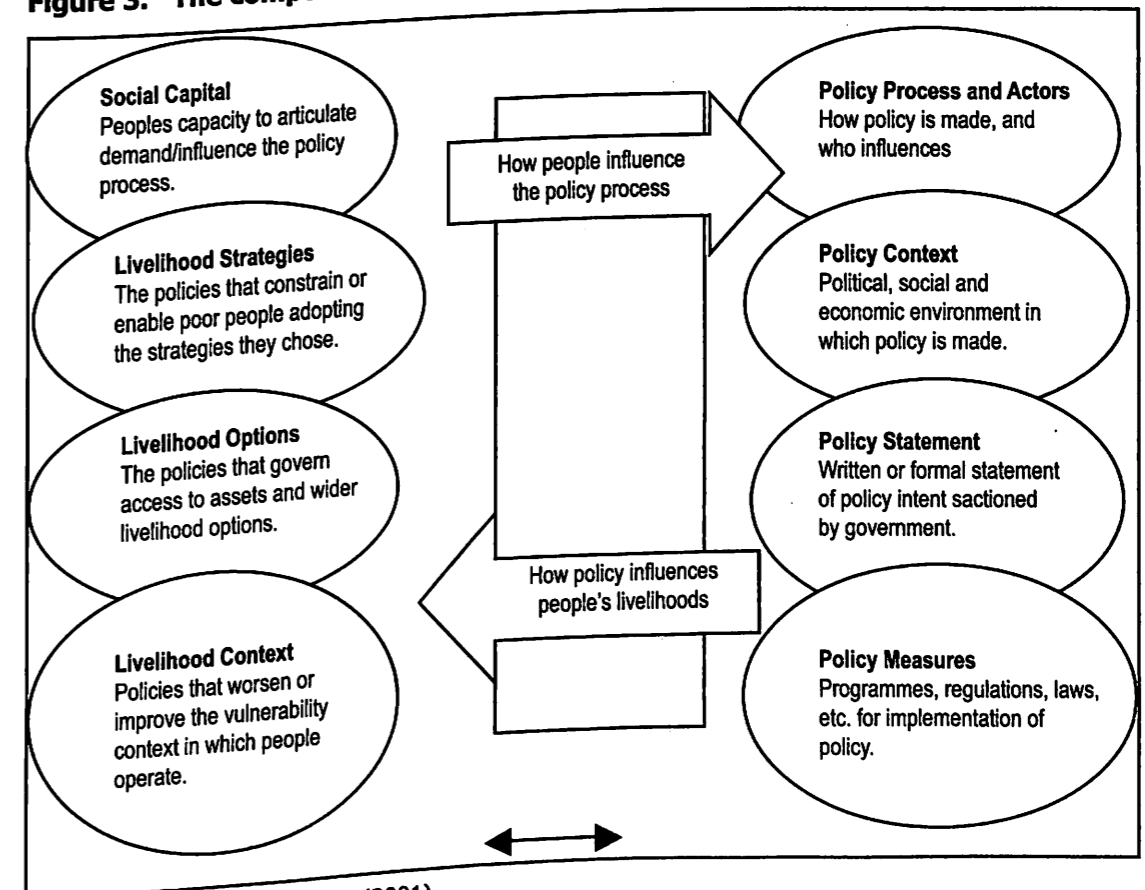
Pasteur (2001) explains that the sustainable livelihoods approach recognizes the importance of policies and institutions in governing poor people's access to livelihood assets, and in influencing their livelihood strategies and their vulnerability to shocks and stresses. Hence, the approach advocates a more 'upstream' approach to reducing poverty. In addition to

micro-level work that directly aims to improve poor people's livelihoods, it recognizes that for change to be sustainable, macro-level issues need also to be addressed, including policy.

Figure 3 depicts the various policy components, which need to be considered when conducting a sustainable livelihood analysis.

Messer and Townsley (2003) explain that many development efforts have failed or proved to be unsustainable because they have not fully understood these institutions and the way that they influence the livelihoods of the poor. New institutions set up to support the poor have often proved inappropriate, or have been undermined by existing institutions that were either not recognized by relevant stakeholders or poorly understood.

Figure 3. The components of policy analysis for sustainable livelihoods.



Source: Adapted from Pasteur (2001).

the mere quick fix approach to one of natural transition allowing meaningful development initiatives to coincide and take place around existing structures.

The major failure of blueprint approaches to development is noted as their inability to take account of the people within the system. Unless practitioners and policy makers act upon the outputs of the SLA, its use is redundant. The vulnerability context of the rural poor is to a large extent accelerated by inappropriate policies and institutions. These further decrease access to assets, which provide resilience in the face of shocks.

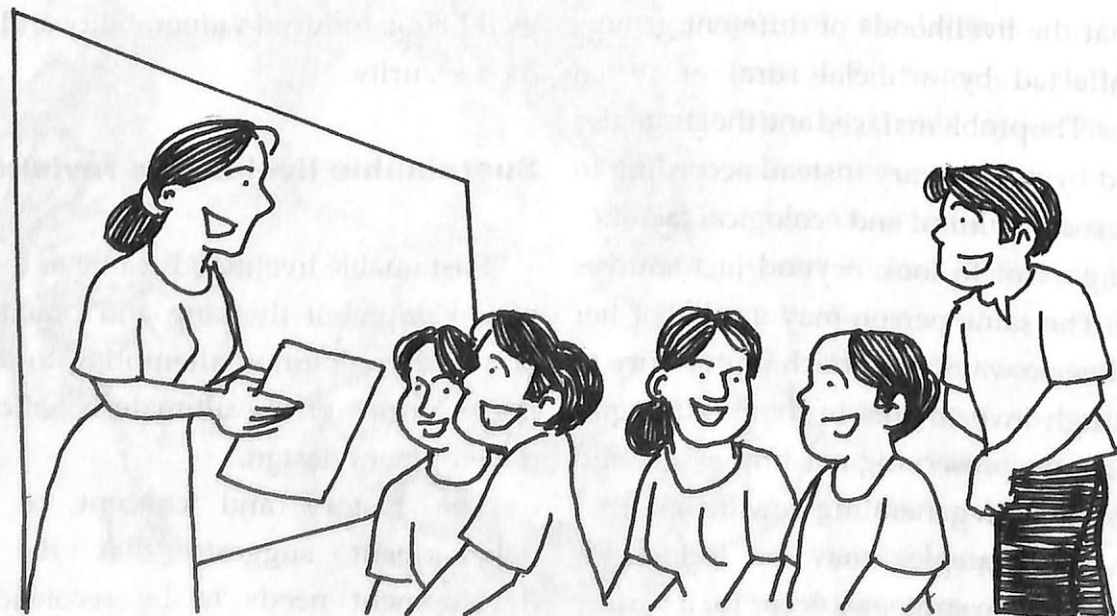
Public concern about attempts to reduce the incidence of poverty is well founded considering the history of project failure. In an attempt to escape their dominant image as top-down totalitarianism style interventionists, many development institutions have failed to take account of the broader picture of development failures; instead, they have concentrated on attaining what they consider to be a democratic

development process. Although the process is important, the outputs of the process must be incorporated into development efforts in a meaningful manner, which gives merit to the livelihood priorities, identified by people themselves.

Failure by existing structures such as local governments to take account of issues identified as impacting on underlying and hidden livelihood strategies has adverse impacts on livelihood outcomes. Policies are not only required to strengthen access to assets and reduce vulnerability, they must also put in place a range of institutions which enable people to adapt to broader external change.

The use of the SLA does not equate to a successful outcome if its outputs are not addressed. Merely using the SLA does not mean the problems are solved, it is only the start of the process. The SLA to development is not a panacea and caution should be exercised that it is not drawn on and canvassed as such.

~ Georgina Jordan



Endnotes

- ¹ The share of a population living in poverty also commonly referred to as the headcount index.
- ² At the time of writing the livelihoods approach has been utilized by the following development organizations among many others: bilateral [The Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom, European Union]; multilaterals [Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), World Bank, World Food Programme (WFP)]; NGOs [Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE), Khanya, Oxfam, Save the Children, Society for International Development, Voluntary Services Overseas].
- ³ An area cleared for temporary cultivation by cutting and burning the vegetation.

References

- Bamberger, M.**, 1986. The role of community participation in development planning and project management- An EDI Policy Seminar Report No.13. Washington D.C.: Economic Development Institute of the World Bank.
- Boyd, C. et al. ed.**, 2000. The contribution of soil and water conservation to sustainable livelihoods in semi-arid areas of Sub-Saharan Africa. *Agricultural Research and Extension Network*. 102, 1-11
- Carswell, G.**, 1997. Agricultural intensification and rural sustainable livelihoods: A 'think piece'. Sussex IDS publications. 1 85864 2124.
- Chambers, R.**, 1997. Responsible well-being-a personal agenda for development. *World Development*, 25 (11), 1743-1754.
- Chambers, R. and Conway, G. R.**, 1992. *Sustainable rural livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st century*. Sussex: Institute for Development Studies. 0 903715 58 9.
- Conway, G. R.**, 1985. Agroecosystem analysis. *Agricultural Administration*. 20, 31-35.
- Ellis-Jones, J.**, 1999. Poverty, land care, and sustainable livelihoods in hillside and mountain regions. *Mountain Research and Development*. 19 (3), 179-190.
- Francis, E.**, 2000. *Making a living. Changing livelihoods in rural Africa*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Garforth, C.**, 1982. Reaching the rural poor: A review of extension strategies and methods. In: G. E. Jones and M.J. Rolls ed. *Progress in rural extension and community development - Volume 1*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons. 0 471 100 382.
- Gerson, P. R.**, 1993. Popular participation in economic theory and practice-Human Resources Development and Operations Policy-Working Paper 18. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Gore, C.**, 2000. The rise and fall of the Washington consensus as a paradigm for developing countries. *World Development*. 28, (5) 789-804.
- Greeley, M.**, 1994. Measurement of poverty or the poverty of measurement. *IDS Bulletin*, 25 (2), 50-58
- Haug, R.**, 1999. From integrated rural development to sustainable livelihoods: What is the role of food and agriculture? *Forum for Development Studies*. 2,181-201.
- Hulme, D.**, 1995. Projects, politics and professionals: Alternative approaches for project identification and project planning. *Agricultural Systems*. 47, 211-233
- Hussein, K.**, 2002. *Livelihood approaches compared: A multi-agency review of current practice*. London: Department for International Development/Overseas Development Institute.
- Lewis, W. A.**, 1988. The roots of economic development. In: **H. Chenery and T.N. Srinivasan, ed.** *Handbook of Development Economics*, Volume 1. New York: Elsevier Science Publishing Company Inc. 0-444-70337-3.
- Messer, N., and Townsley, P.**, 2003. *Local institutions and livelihoods: Guidelines for analysis*. Rome: Rural Development Division: Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations. 92-5-105049-X.
- Narayan, D., Chambers, R., Shah, M., K. and Petesch, P.**, 2000. *Voices of the poor. Crying out for change*. Washington D.C.: World Bank. 0195216024.
- Oakley, P.**, 1991. *Projects with people: The practice of participation in rural development*. Geneva: International Labour Office. 92-2-10782-7

Okali, D., Okpara, E., and Olawoye J., 2001. Rural-urban interactions and livelihood strategies series -The case of aba and its region, Southeastern Nigeria- Working paper 4. London: International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). 1-84369-037-3.

Pasteur, K., 2001. *Tools for sustainable livelihoods: Policy analysis.* Institute of Development Studies. Brighton: IDS.

Pimbert, M., 1999. Sustaining the multiple functions of agricultural biodiversity-Gatekeeper Series No. 88. London: International Institute for Environment and Development.

Ravallion, M. 1992. *Poverty comparisons-A guide to concepts and methods.* Washington: The World Bank. 0-8213-2036-X.

Scoones, I., 1998. Sustainable rural livelihoods: A framework for analysis-Institute of Development Studies-Working Paper 72. Sussex: IDS 1 85864 224 8.

Sen, A., 1975. *Employment, technology and development.* Oxford: Clarendon Press 0 19 877052 9.

_____, 1984. Rights and capabilities. In: A. Sen. *Resources, values and development.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Smith, P., 1988. Improving the project identification process in rural development. *Public Administration and Development.* 8,15-26.

Solesbury, W., 2003. Sustainable livelihoods: A case study of the evolution of DFID policy. *ODI Working Paper 217.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank, 2001. World Development Report 2000/2001-Attacking Poverty. Oxford: Oxford University Press/World Bank. 0-19-521598-2.

Weiss, J., 1996. Project failure: The implication of a '25 per cent rule'. In: **C. Kirkpatrick and J. Weiss. ed.** *Cost-benefit analysis and project appraisal in developing countries.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar. 1 85898 346 0.

World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987. *Our Common Future: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Why Bantaaw?

Mindanao - despite its being a place where natural resources abound, the Land of Promise as the cliché goes - has focalized people's struggles, vigilanteism, structural poverty, among others, for a long time now.

From the looks of it, something is indeed wrong somewhere and a scrutiny is sought why these realities exist and what their undertones are. Hence, treating issues by locating their roots is an imperative.

Bantaaw means "a clear view" in Cebuano.

As such, Bantaaw analysis endeavors to explain in terms of implications the reports being presented by both the government and private agencies regarding social and economic activities and priorities, particularly for Mindanao. It aims to ascertain the quality of life of the Mindanao people and chart the actual performance of the different Mindanao regions as compared to the official government reports generalized on the macro level.

It is therefore hoped that as we try to exhaustively cover as many points as possible in Mindanao's social and economic arena, Bantaaw could open up angles for further study and discussion - to objectively draw up development efforts fit for the varied conditions of the Mindanao regions.

Publisher

Alternate Resource Center

Review Committee

Romulo de la Rosa, Maria Lisa Alano

Artworks

Nonoy Rodriguez

Published by the Alternate Resource Center, publication arm of the Alternate Forum for Research in Mindanao (AFRIM), Inc., with office address at Door 1 H Anda Corporate Center, F. Iñigo Street, Davao City, Philippines. Telephone (82) 226-4592 and fax (82) 226-3932. Email address: pubs@afrim.org.ph. Entered as Second Class mail at the Davao City Post Office.

