

# 1 Assessment of on-farm conservation 2 of dryland agrobiodiversity and its impact 3 on rural livelihoods in the Fertile Crescent

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## 7 Abstract

8 The Fertile Crescent encompasses a mega-center of diversity of crops and livestock of global importance. The  
9 International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (ICARDA) coordinated a 5-year regional project  
10 funded by the Global Environment Facility to promote *in situ* conservation of dryland agrobiodiversity in Jordan,  
11 Lebanon, the Palestinian Authority and Syria. The project focused on conserving landraces and wild relatives of *Allium*,  
12 *Vicia*, *Trifolium*, *Medicago* and *Lathyrus* spp. and barley, wheat, lentil and dryland fruit trees (olive, prune, pear,  
13 pistachio, almond, cherry and apricot). ICARDA and national programs assessed the status and importance of local  
14 agrobiodiversity by surveying 570 farm households in the project target areas including the characterization of their  
15 livelihood strategies, agrobiodiversity use and household income sources. A wealth index was created considering  
16 human, natural, financial, physical and social assets and was used to classify households into four wealth quartiles. The  
17 results indicated that agriculture and agrobiodiversity continue to be important for supporting the livelihoods of poor  
18 communities in dry and mountainous regions. The poorest households obtained their income from diverse sources  
19 including crop production, off-farm labor and government employment. However, households in the highest wealth  
20 grouping are mainly dependent on income from selling livestock products and live animals. They also practiced crop  
21 production, worked off-farm and took advantage of government employment. Off-farm income was important for  
22 livelihoods in all areas, representing 43–68% of household incomes. For all groups, fruit trees were generally more  
23 important than field crops for income generation, mainly in mountainous areas. The finding of this study showed that all  
24 farmers' groups contribute greatly to on-farm conservation of landraces, with a bigger role for poor farmers in  
25 conserving the landraces of fruit trees. Diversification of income and farming systems to include livestock, field crops and  
26 fruit trees along with off-farm activities are contributing to the conservation of agrobiodiversity in these marginal  
27 environments. Several opportunities for income increase and diversification through add-value activities and alternative  
28 sources of income are demonstrated to the custodians of dryland agrobiodiversity. Their benefits can contribute to the  
29 sustainability of agrobiodiversity conservation, provided that marketing of local products can be enhanced.

30 **Key words:** dryland agrobiodiversity, landraces, *in situ* conservation, livelihood analysis, Fertile Crescent

## 31 Introduction

32 Agrobiodiversity occupies a unique place within bio-  
33 logical diversity, as it relates directly to sustainable food  
34 security and agricultural development. It is actively  
35 managed by farmers and therefore inherited indigenous  
36 knowledge is an integral part of this agrobiodiversity.  
37 The importance of dryland agrobiodiversity in particular  
38 has been emphasized by the Convention on Biological  
39 Diversity<sup>1</sup> as it relates to the livelihoods of poor rural  
40 communities and to crops and livestock of global  
41 significance.

42 West Asia encompasses one of the three mega-centers  
43 of diversity of global importance, where wheat, barley,  
44 lentil and many forage legume and fruit tree species were  
45 domesticated over the past 10,000 years<sup>2–4</sup>. Traditional  
46 farming systems, rich in landraces and wild relatives of  
47 these crops and local breeds of livestock continue to  
48 provide the basis for sustaining the livelihoods of local  
49 communities living in dry areas and mountainous regions.  
50 The loss of biodiversity in general and agrobiodiversity  
51 in particular is occurring at an alarming pace due mainly  
52 to anthropogenic factors (including overuse, land use  
53 changes and introduction of new varieties and crop

54 species) in addition to the major threats of climate change  
55 and land degradation<sup>5,6</sup>.

56 The conservation and sustainable use of agrobiodiver-  
57 sity are critical to realizing the Millennium Development  
58 Goals and Agenda 21 objectives<sup>7,8</sup>. The conservation and  
59 availability of agricultural biodiversity will become  
60 increasingly important to pursue breeding efforts and  
61 also in the context of rehabilitation of degraded ecosys-  
62 tems, adaptation to climate change and greater resilience.

63 The Convention on Biological Diversity<sup>1</sup> and the  
64 International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for  
65 Food and Agriculture<sup>9</sup> call for collective efforts among  
66 countries for effective conservation and sustainable use of  
67 agrobiodiversity. They both emphasized the use of *in situ*  
68 and on-farm conservation strategies to complement the  
69 ongoing efforts of conservation of genetic resources in  
70 gene banks. *In situ* conservation incorporates two distinct  
71 approaches: conservation of wild species in natural  
72 habitats and on-farm conservation of domesticated  
73 varieties or local breeds. On-farm conservation managed  
74 by farmers and its promotion should be directly linked to  
75 enhancing the livelihoods of its custodians<sup>10</sup>. Local  
76 varieties (landraces) are still used in traditional farming  
77 systems and by subsistence farmers and are an important  
78 source of valuable genes for breeding programs.

79 Bioersity International (previously the International  
80 Plant Genetic Resource Institute) has conducted several  
81 projects in several countries on promoting on-farm  
82 conservation of crop landraces which allowed a better  
83 understanding of the status and threats to local agro-  
84 biodiversity and the development of approaches for its  
85 on-farm conservation and sustainable use<sup>11,12</sup>. On-farm  
86 conservation managed by farmers and its promotion  
87 should be directly linked to enhancing the livelihoods of  
88 these farmers<sup>10</sup>. Local varieties (landraces) are still used in  
89 the traditional farming systems and by subsistence farm-  
90 ers and are an important source of valuable genes for  
91 breeding programs.

92 The International Center for Agricultural Research  
93 in the Dry Areas (ICARDA) has coordinated a five-year  
94 project entitled 'Conservation and Sustainable Use of  
95 Dryland Agrobiodiversity' launched in 1999 to promote  
96 *in situ* conservation and sustainable use of dryland agro-  
97 biodiversity in Jordan, Lebanon, the Palestinian Authority  
98 and Syria with funding from the Global Environment  
99 Facility (GEF) through the United Nations Development  
100 Programme (UNDP)<sup>6,13</sup>. The project developed a holistic  
101 approach for promoting *in situ* conservation of landraces  
102 and wild relatives including technological, institutional  
103 and policy options in addition to value-adding technol-  
104 ogies, alternative sources of income and access to markets  
105 for custodians of agrobiodiversity, and awareness increase  
106 for the general public<sup>6</sup>.

107 This paper aims to show the status of agrobiodiversity  
108 and the impacts of some of these project activities on the  
109 livelihoods of rural communities living in the drylands.  
110 The hypothesis of this study was that agrobiodiversity

conservation would generate enough income for farmers 111  
thus improving their livelihood, particularly for small 112  
scale farmers, to sustain conservation. Added-value and 113  
income-generating activities are evidence for support of 114  
this hypothesis. 115

## 116 Materials and Methods

117 This activity was part of the project on 'Conservation and  
118 Sustainable Use of Dryland Agrobiodiversity' and was  
119 executed in Jordan, Lebanon, the Palestinian Authority  
120 and Syria<sup>13</sup>. The project strategy was to develop com-  
121 munity-driven *in situ* and on-farm agrobiodiversity con-  
122 servation initiatives in representative areas of global  
123 agrobiodiversity significance. The combining of special-  
124 ized international and regional institutions with national  
125 institutions in the project greatly enhanced the synergy  
126 of the project, and awareness promotion was a priority  
127 at all project levels. Innovative approaches to *in situ* and  
128 on-farm conservation were developed alongside appro-  
129 priate resource management to maintain the productivity  
130 of resources and economic viability of the community.  
131 The project strengthened institutional and community  
132 capacity, to promote a progressively greater national  
133 contribution to agrobiodiversity conservation and  
134 management.

135 The argument of this paper is that generation of cash  
136 income is the way in which development projects  
137 traditionally are expected to create incentives for con-  
138 servation and sustainable use of natural resources<sup>14,15</sup>.  
139 Alternatively, this study focuses on livelihoods as a more  
140 appropriate measure of what the project meant to local  
141 people, and therefore of its likely contribution to  
142 development and agrobiodiversity conservation. The  
143 rationale for this was grounded in greater understanding  
144 of poverty, such as the importance of assets, diversified  
145 portfolios of activities and the variety of outcomes  
146 pursued by the poor.

147 The project was managed as five components. Each  
148 of the four participating countries had its own nationally  
149 executed component, whereas regional coordination  
150 was done by ICARDA. The project activities were  
151 implemented at the national level by national research  
152 institutes: the National Center for Agricultural Research  
153 and Technology Transfer (NCARTT) in Jordan, the  
154 Lebanese Agricultural Research Institute (LARI) in  
155 Lebanon, the General Commission for Scientific  
156 Agricultural Research (GCSAR) in Syria and the  
157 Ministry of Agriculture and UNDP/PAPP in the  
158 Palestinian Authority.

159 Target areas were selected to capture maximum genetic  
160 diversity of the target crops in a minimum number of  
161 areas. Thus, they were selected for the presence of target  
162 species, to be representative of major and complementary  
163 ecosystems, and suitability of working conditions, which  
164 include willingness of local communities to participate,

**Table 1.** Some characteristics of agrobiodiversity in the target areas in the four countries.

Country/target areas		Target area main characteristics
Jordan	Ajloun	Mountainous area with steep slopes and valleys, 75 km north of Amman. Sub-humid Mediterranean climate, 80% of soils are shallow. Vegetation cover mainly indigenous forest of <i>Pinus</i> and <i>Quercus</i> with wild species of pistachio, plum and almond. Wild relatives of cereals and forage species found in undisturbed areas and in agricultural landscapes. Overgrazing and land reclamation are major threats to biodiversity. Two natural reserves are located in this region
	Muwaqqar	A dry area located on the plateaus and hills south of Amman, representing the steppe zone. Highly calcareous soils eroded by wind and water. Open grazing and barley growing are predominant land uses. Supplementary-irrigated olive orchards are developing. Wild barley, wild species of <i>Aegilops</i> , <i>Vicia</i> and <i>Lathyrus</i> and local varieties of olive, grapes, figs and almonds found in a few irrigated orchards and home gardens. Jordan University has introduced <i>Atriplex</i> spp. and is experimenting with water harvesting techniques. Overgrazing is the major threat to biodiversity. Urbanization and expansion of barley and olive cultivation is restricting the range areas
Lebanon	Baalbak	A flat plateau rising steeply on one side to 1700 m. Includes the localities of Nabha (west of Beqaa in the Lebanon mountains) and Ham-Maaraboun (east, Anti-Lebanon mountains). Semi-arid climate, highly calcareous soils. Dryland farming of field crops and fruit tree orchards are predominant. Over 500 plant species, of which many are endemic. Wild relatives of cereals, legumes and fruit trees are found. Habitat fragmentation, deforestation and overgrazing are threatening wild relatives; landraces being replaced by improved cultivars or introduced fruit trees
	Aarsal	It is part of the Anti-Lebanon mountain range with climate ranging from arid to semi-arid. Soils are predominately calcareous and alluvial soils are found in the valleys. The area is used for open grazing and to grow barley and wheat. The planting of grapes and cherries is progressing. Wild relatives of cereals, legumes and fruit trees and many forage species are found in very restricted areas. Overgrazing and quarries are the main factors of degradation of natural habitats and local agrobiodiversity
Palestinian authority	Jenin	Hilly region sloping down to the Jordan Valley, climatic gradient from semi-arid to arid. Soils are alluvial and dark Rendzina with some basaltic pockets that are lost through overgrazing. Natural reserves exist. Cereals, food legumes, vegetables and olive trees cultivated. Wild species of cereals, legumes and forage species are found, threatened by habitat destruction and overgrazing
	Hebron	Includes the mountain slopes of Hebron and the nearby hills in the south and east. Semi-arid Mediterranean climate. Terra Rossa soils predominate in the mountains, alluvial soils in plains and valleys. Landraces as well as many wild relatives of cereals, food and feed legumes and fruit trees are found. Overgrazing (and quarries in some areas) are the major threats to agrobiodiversity
	Al-Haffeh	Extends from 500 to 1000 m altitude on the Slenfe mountain. Humid and sub-humid climate with Mediterranean influence. Forest containing wild species of fruit trees predominates. In cultivated areas, landraces of cereals, food legumes and fruit trees are still used. Deforestation, land reclamation, overgrazing and expansion of olive and citrus plantations are threatening biodiversity
Syria	Sweida	Mainly mountainous area with a climate ranging from sub-humid to arid. Soils of basaltic origin. Dryland farming with cereals, food legumes and forages. New plantations of apple trees and grape vines are expanding rapidly. Unique area for biodiversity, with 900 wild species of cereals, food legumes and pistachio. Overgrazing, expanding apple orchards and destruction of natural habitats are affecting biodiversity significantly

165 and the potential for impact. In each participating  
 166 country, two target areas were selected, and 2–6 sites  
 167 chosen in each target area to include the diversity of  
 168 environments and farming systems (Table 1 and Fig. 1).

169 To review the project's achievements, a full socio-  
 170 economic assessment of its preliminary impacts was con-  
 171 ducted in 2005, following the baseline survey conducted in  
 172 1999–2000. ICARDA's social scientists implemented this  
 173 study in collaboration with national teams. The study  
 174 covered the eight target areas (two per country) in the four  
 175 participating countries. The main objectives of this study

were to assess the impact of the project on conserving 176  
 agrobiodiversity in targeted areas and to assess the 177  
 effect of value-adding, including income-generating ac- 178  
 tivities introduced by the project on livelihoods of rural 179  
 communities. 180

181 After a group discussion with farmers in the target area,  
 182 a formal questionnaire was prepared and tested. Each  
 183 national team carried out fieldwork activity for data  
 184 collection in its respective target areas. Each enumerator  
 185 utilized one questionnaire per respondent. The question-  
 186 naire focused on collecting data on the following main



Figure 1. Locations of the target areas in the four countries.

187 themes: participation in the project; household structure  
 188 and income source; characterization of household liveli-  
 189 hood strategies; cropping systems and cultural practices;  
 190 changes in land use; seed and seedling use and exchange;  
 191 household assets; gender activities and farmers' percep-  
 192 tions of the project.

193 Household samples were selected and interviewed in  
 194 the target areas in Jordan, Lebanon, the Palestinian  
 195 Authority and Syria. The sample farms were grouped  
 196 in terms of their participation in the project into:  
 197 (1) Participants in agrobiodiversity technology enhance-  
 198 ment activities, which include seed treatments, seed  
 199 distribution, water harvesting for fruit trees, water  
 200 harvesting for shrubs, fruit tree nurseries, nurseries for  
 201 rangeland shrubs, reforestation, field genebanks and re-  
 202 vegetation and rehabilitation rangeland. (2) Participants  
 203 in value-added, income-generating activities, which in-  
 204 clude organic farming, bee keeping and honey produc-  
 205 tion, food processing especially jam, dairy processing,  
 206 mushroom production, medicinal plants cultivation,  
 207 home gardens and feed blocks. (3) Participants in field  
 208 days, training and educational programs that include fairs  
 209 control, meetings and workshops, training courses on  
 210 jams, dairy processing, honey and mushroom production.  
 211 (4) Non participants that were randomly selected within  
 212 the same communities.

213 Many criteria were used for selection of the participants,  
 214 including being known custodians of agrobiodiversity by  
 215 the community, willingness to participate and contribute  
 216 financially to the project and to be part of any grouping to  
 217 be formed by the interested farmers.

218 The survey sample included 570 households: 276 that  
 219 had participated in the project and 294 that had not.  
 220 Given the homogeneity among the target areas, a random  
 221 sampling approach was used. According to Collinson<sup>16</sup>,  
 222 50–60 farmers was a sufficient sample size, and hence, the  
 223 sample size in this study included about 70 households

Table 2. Classification of sample farms by type of participation in the four countries (% of households).

Type of participation	Jordan	Lebanon	Palestine	Syria
Agrobiodiversity enhancement	15	30	60	33
Value-added, income-generating activities	7	9	0	10
Field days and training	17	5	1	7
Non participants	61	56	39	50
Sample size (N)	145	138	140	147

224 randomly selected in each target area, about 40–60% of  
 225 them had participated in the project activities, and the  
 226 remainder had not. Table 2 shows the sample size in each  
 227 country and sample farms' classification by type of  
 228 participation in the project.

229 A sustainable livelihood framework was used to  
 230 characterize households in the study areas. Livelihood  
 231 strategies, agrobiodiversity use and incomes were com-  
 232 pared within and across all countries studied, among poor  
 233 and better-off households, by using a principal com-  
 234 ponents analysis to create a wealth index that accounted  
 235 for five types of capital of a household: human, natural,  
 236 financial, physical and social. The wealth index in this  
 237 study utilized some household assets indexes such as  
 238 cropland, rangeland, livestock, vehicles and houses, on-  
 239 and off-farm incomes, access to credit, cooperatives and  
 240 health care. Based on these variables, households were  
 241 classified into four wealth groupings (quartiles), each  
 242 corresponding to 25% of the range of values obtained for  
 243 the wealth index. Impact assessment in terms of household  
 244 income was calculated; and a factor related to equality  
 245 had to be taken into account by calculating the Gini  
 246 coefficient to assess equity in incomes within participating  
 247 and non participating households in each country. The  
 248 Gini coefficient is a number within 0–1, where 0 is perfect  
 249 equality (i.e., everyone has the same income) and 1 is  
 250 perfect inequality (i.e., one person has all the income, and  
 251 everyone else has zero).

252 **Results and Discussion**

253 *Assessment of status and threats for*  
 254 *local agrobiodiversity*

255 The predominant farming system depends mostly on en-  
 256 vironmental conditions, mainly topography and climate  
 257 (Table 3). In the rangeland-dominated areas, i.e.,  
 258 Muwaqqar in Jordan, and Aarsal in Lebanon, livestock  
 259 is the only activity for 77 and 53% of households,  
 260 respectively. In these two sites, the remaining farmers  
 261 mainly planted rainfed barley and had olive trees under  
 262 irrigation in Muwaqqar; and correspondingly vetch and  
 263 cherries in Aarsal. In the mountains of Ajloun in Jordan  
 264 and Al-Haffeh in Syria, 66 and 80% of farmers,

**Table 3.** Predominant types of farming systems in target areas in the four countries (% of households).

Type of enterprise	Jordan		Lebanon		Palestine		Syria	
	Muwaqqar	Ajloun	Aarsal	Baalbak	Hebron	Jenin	Sweida	Al-Haffeh
Crops only	10	66	24	58	44	42	54	80
Livestock only	77	14	53	8	2	1	2	0
Crops and livestock	13	20	18	34	54	57	44	20

**Table 4.** Average number of fields and crops per farm and crop diversity index in target areas.

Item	Jordan		Lebanon		Palestine		Syria	
	Muwaqqar	Ajloun	Aarsal	Baalbak	Hebron	Jenin	Sweida	Al-Haffeh
Number of fields per farm	2.25	2.45	3.59	4.23	5.00	4.72	4.91	2.58
Number of crops per farm	2.25	3.86	4.43	4.18	4.84	4.47	4.69	2.89
Crop diversity index	1.00	1.58	1.23	0.99	0.97	0.95	0.96	1.12

265 respectively, grew mainly fruit trees and 20% practiced  
 266 both cropping and livestock raising. In Al-Haffeh, no  
 267 farmers had small ruminants; and in Ajloun farmers  
 268 mainly raised goats in semi-intensified systems. In the  
 269 remaining target areas, the farmers were split between  
 270 crop-producing and crop–livestock producers and only  
 271 1–8% were exclusively herders. These results show the  
 272 great diversity of farming systems, and the importance of  
 273 livestock in drier and flatter areas and of fruit trees in  
 274 mountainous areas. In Palestine, the lower number of  
 275 herders might be due to restricted access to rangelands  
 276 due to the prevailing political situation. The importance  
 277 of crop–livestock systems is an important attribute of  
 278 farming systems in arid and semi-arid areas and con-  
 279 tributes to buffering of the effects of droughts, with the  
 280 livestock playing an important role in providing cash to  
 281 farmers<sup>6</sup>.

282 The second indicator of local agrobiodiversity is shown  
 283 by the number of crops used at the farm level. The range in  
 284 average numbers of crops grown per farm was 2.25–4.84  
 285 (Table 4), showing that farmers in all agroclimatic zones  
 286 tended to grow >2 crops. However, the highest numbers  
 287 were in mountainous and high rainfall areas. In these  
 288 latter systems, several crop species can be grown in the  
 289 same field, as indicated by the crop diversity index. In  
 290 Ajloun and Al-Haffeh, some farmers' fields had up to  
 291 15 crops, with mainly fruit trees in the top layer and field  
 292 crops in the lower layer. Some farmers even planted  
 293 medicinal plants and vegetables under fruit trees. Among  
 294 the predominant fruit trees were olive, apple, grapes,  
 295 cherries and figs in Ajloun, Sweida and Al-Haffeh; and  
 296 among field crops were barley, wheat, lentil, chickpea and  
 297 vetch. This diversity of crops contributes to the diversifi-  
 298 cation of the diet of local communities, the feed calendar  
 299 of livestock and the diversification of sources of income,  
 300 and also allows for the spread of labor needs over the  
 301 whole year.

The third indicator of agrobiodiversity investigated was  
 the number of landraces known or still in use by farmers.  
 For fruit trees, large numbers of landraces were cited by  
 farmers, including more than ten landraces of olives, 20 of  
 grapes, 15 of figs, five of cherries, two of almonds, three of  
 apples, three of apricots and four of plums. Improved  
 varieties are mainly used in the cases of apples, cherries  
 and apricots. For barley, lentil and chickpea, the com-  
 monly designated local landraces could include several  
 populations.

Farmers have acknowledged the disappearance of some  
 landraces of all crops and have attributed this to limited  
 efforts to multiply their seeds within the existing informal  
 seed production system and fruit tree nurseries. Marketing  
 problems and storability could also have contributed to  
 the decrease in importance of landraces. Another major  
 threat to local agrobiodiversity is related to loss of local  
 knowledge due to limited interest of young generations to  
 invest and work in agriculture. However, the farmers  
 appreciated landraces of most crops for their adaptation  
 to low-input conditions and to major biotic and abiotic  
 stresses. In addition, these landraces had good quality  
 attributes that give the products of these landraces a price  
 premium in the market.

Farmers were asked if they had degradation on  
 their farms, its sources and effects on agrobiodiversity  
 (Table 5). The three major degradation factors mentioned  
 were overgrazing, introduction of new species and land  
 reclamation. The source of degradation varied between  
 locations. In Jordan, overgrazing, deforestation and  
 urbanization were the three main sources. Overgrazing  
 and introduction of new species were the two main sources  
 of degradation in Lebanon. In Palestine, the major threats  
 to agrobiodiversity were overgrazing, soil erosion, intro-  
 duction of new species and urbanization in both Hebron  
 and Jenin; however, quarries and land reclamation were  
 sources of degradation in Hebron and Jenin, respectively.

**Table 5.** Sources of degradation of local agrobiodiversity (% of farmers).

Degradation sources	Jordan		Lebanon		Palestine		Syria	
	Ajloun	Muwaqqar	Aarsal	Baalbak	Hebron	Jenin	Sweida	Al-Haffeh
Overgrazing	38.7	71.4	31.5	41.5	97.1	84.3	1.4	1.4
Land reclamation	5.3	0.0	12.3	29.2	18.6	38.6	0.0	1.4
Deforestation	44.0	0.0	11.0	6.2	4.6	0.0	0.0	4.2
Erosion	28.0	30.0	6.8	6.2	75.7	32.9	9.5	26.4
Affected by new species	4.0	0.0	20.5	27.7	44.6	40.0	0.0	26.4
Affected by fire	8.0	0.0	1.4	1.5	6.2	24.3	2.7	0.0
Affected by quarries	8.0	5.7	9.6	1.5	41.4	0.0	0.0	23.6
Affected by urbanization area	54.7	4.3	1.4	6.2	89.9	91.4	0.0	23.6

339 In Syria, only in Al-Haffeh were erosion, introduction of  
 340 new species and urbanization the main sources of  
 341 degradation.

### 342 *Household assets and socio-economic* 343 *characterization*

344 Household characteristics are based on the main house-  
 345 hold assets, including natural, physical, financial, human  
 346 and social capitals. Total holding area per household  
 347 ranged from 0.9 ha at Al-Haffeh in Syria to 17.5 ha at  
 348 Muwaqqar in Jordan. Most farmers in the target areas  
 349 owned their agricultural land, except in Muwaqqar, where  
 350 some farmers either rented land from landlords or had  
 351 sharecropping arrangements. Common rangelands were  
 352 available for the majority of households, except in Jordan,  
 353 where this type of land was available for only 20% of  
 354 households in the target areas. Drinking water is available  
 355 for most households, except in Sweida where only 7% of  
 356 households reported they had a drinking water source in  
 357 the community, whereas the others have to bring drinking  
 358 water from other villages or from the town of Sweida.  
 359 Water resources for irrigation were very limited and the  
 360 percentage of irrigated area in farms was low and  
 361 insignificant for all target areas.

362 Average family size was 7–13 persons per household.  
 363 Labor opportunities outside the target area ranged from  
 364 6% at Hebron in Palestine to 45% at Haffeh in Syria.  
 365 Wage laborers were available when needed in all target  
 366 areas, except in Muwaqqar, where shepherds were mainly  
 367 needed. Although some household heads were illiterate,  
 368 others held a university degree. Generally, the education  
 369 level among households in the target areas was higher in  
 370 Jordan and Palestine compared to Syria and Lebanon.  
 371 Most farmers classified their livelihood levels as moder-  
 372 ately well-off, except Ajloun in Jordan, where 44% of  
 373 responders classified themselves as well-off.

374 Off-farm income was important in all target areas and  
 375 represented 43–68% of total income. Average annual  
 376 household income ranged from US\$2200 to 9000 in the  
 377 target areas, implying that daily per capita income was  
 378 <US\$1–5. Income per person per day was around US\$2  
 379 in Jordan, Lebanon and Jenin (Palestine), but <US\$2

in Syria and Hebron (Palestine). However, off-farm 380  
 income is crucial for sustaining the livelihoods of local 381  
 communities and allowing them to continue their con- 382  
 tribution to the conservation and sustainable use of 383  
 agrobiodiversity, mainly when the alternative sources 384  
 of income are linked to valorization of local products. 385  
 In areas where there is little opportunity for off-farm 386  
 employment, incentive payment for environmental ser- 387  
 vices is an option<sup>17</sup> that needs to be pursued. 388

Agricultural cooperatives were available in the 389  
 target areas but most farmers in the sample were not 390  
 members, except in Sweida in Syria where about 85% of 391  
 responders reported that they were members of a co- 392  
 operative. Most farmers in the target areas owned their 393  
 houses, but very few farmers owned a tractor, car or pick- 394  
 up. Many farmers in the sample had livestock—sheep, 395  
 goats or cows—but flock size varied among the target 396  
 areas. Flocks were larger in dry compared to wetter areas. 397  
 Schools, public clinics, electricity and telephones were 398  
 available to most households in target areas. Most house- 399  
 holds had a separate kitchen in their house, and a satellite 400  
 dish and TV. Houses had an average of five rooms. 401

### 402 *Sources of household income*

403 Household farmers in the target areas had many activities 404  
 as part of their livelihoods. They had many income 405  
 sources, and there was variation in the amount and 406  
 contribution of income sources among the four countries. 407  
 Income from on-farm activities including returns from 408  
 crops and fruit trees, livestock products and live animals 409  
 represented <50% total household income in the four 410  
 countries. Income from government employment was 411  
 important in Jordan (48%) and Syria (20%), whereas 412  
 income from off-farm (non agriculture) was important in 413  
 Lebanon (34%) and Palestine (26%). Livestock was the 414  
 main source of on-farm income in Jordan, whereas plant 415  
 production (crops and fruit trees) was the major source in 416  
 Lebanon, Palestine and Syria.

417 Contribution of alternative income sources to total 418  
 household income was diverse, according to target areas 419  
 in each country (Table 6). In Jordan, income from 420  
 government employment was significant in Muwaqqar

**Table 6.** Contribution of alternative sources to total household income by target area (%).

Income source	Jordan		Lebanon		Palestine		Syria	
	Muwaqqar	Ajloun	Aarsal	Baalbak	Hebron	Jenin	Sweida	Al-Haffeh
Crops & fruit trees	1	38	19	38	22	31	34	34
Livestock products	20	7	5	7	4	7	6	3
Live animals	17	4	8	5	12	20	3	6
<b>Total on-farm income</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>43</b>
Off-farm (agriculture)	3	3	4	2	2	4	1	1
Off-farm (non agriculture)	3	6	45	22	39	12	2	17
Government employment	54	39	10	11	12	17	12	39
Remittances (outside country)	2	3	0	1	0	0	6	0
Other source	0	0	9	14	9	8	36	0
<b>Total off-farm income</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>57</b>

**Table 7.** Wealth quartiles (% of households) in the target areas in the four countries.

Country	Site	Wealth quartiles (%)				Total (%)
		Lowest 25	25–50	50–75	Highest 25	
Syria	Sweida	17.3	25.3	17.3	40.0	100.0
	Al-Haffeh	31.9	26.4	33.3	8.3	100.0
Palestine	Hebron	32.9	10.0	24.3	32.9	100.0
	Jenin	17.1	38.6	27.1	17.1	100.0
Lebanon	Aarsal	20.5	32.9	28.8	17.8	100.0
	Baalbak	29.2	16.9	20.0	33.8	100.0
Jordan	Ajloun	41.3	29.3	16.0	13.3	100.0
	Muwaqqar	8.6	20.0	32.9	38.6	100.0

421 followed by income from livestock; whereas at Ajloun,  
 422 income from crops and fruit trees was important. In  
 423 Lebanon, household income from off-farm activities  
 424 outside agriculture was the main source in Aarsal; and  
 425 income from crops and fruit trees was the major income  
 426 source in Baalbak. However, there were many factors  
 427 that influenced the contribution of alternative sources to  
 428 total household income: e.g., farm resource availability,  
 429 farmers' education, skills and experience and opportu-  
 430 nities for off-farm activities.

### 431 *The wealth index*

432 The livelihood analyses in this study were focused on how  
 433 income sources differed between households in the four  
 434 countries and among the target areas; therefore, there  
 435 was a need to use one indicator for comparisons. This  
 436 indicator was the wealth index, which was based on the  
 437 status of the households' assets. The calculated wealth  
 438 index was used to rank households of a community.

439 In the wealth ranking, variables were identified by the  
 440 key factors of principal components analysis as important  
 441 in distinguishing households from each other in each  
 442 country. Cavendish<sup>18</sup> in household studies from Shindi  
 443 Ward in Chivi area in Zimbabwe, and Campbel *et al.*<sup>19</sup> in  
 444 a study on household livelihoods in semi-arid regions,

445 used wealth quartiles to explore patterns of income dis-  
 446 tribution. We undertook a similar analysis and calculated  
 447 the wealth index as the most important factor to charac-  
 448 terize household livelihoods and differentiate wealth  
 449 levels.

450 Five main elements were hypothesized to represent  
 451 household wealth situation. These elements included  
 452 human, natural, financial, physical and social capitals  
 453 as presented in the subsection 'Household assets and  
 454 socio-economic characterization'. Several variables were  
 455 selected and used to represent each element.

456 The wealth index was sorted into categories and  
 457 classified households in the sample into four welfare  
 458 quartiles. The distributions of households among the  
 459 wealth quartiles were not the same in different target areas  
 460 (Table 7). For example, most farmers in Sweida were in  
 461 the highest wealth quartile; whereas, only 8% of farmers in  
 462 Al-Haffeh were in the highest wealth quartile.

### 463 *Livelihood strategies*

464 **Sources of household income by wealth quartiles.**  
 465 Household income from all sources was calculated and  
 466 summarized (Fig. 2). Income from all sources increased  
 467 with increasing wealth quartile. Percentage of income  
 468 from crop production and off-farm labor wages

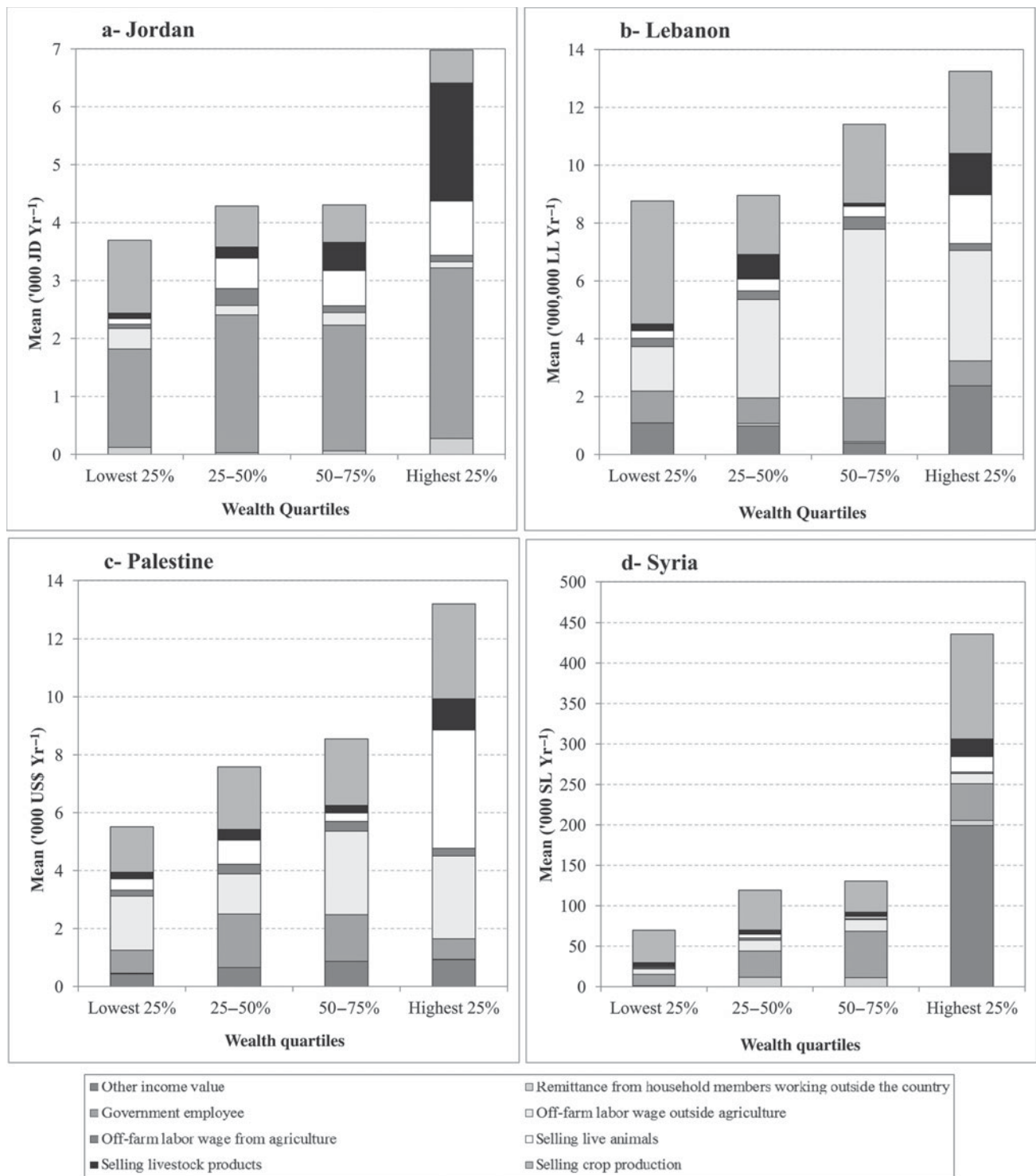


Figure 2. Income sources in the target areas by country and wealth quartiles.

469 from agriculture were generally higher in the lowest 25%  
 470 compared to other groups.

471 **Livelihood typologies.** Livelihood strategies are di-  
 472 verse<sup>20</sup> and are influenced by linkages inside and outside  
 473 agriculture<sup>21-23</sup>, and life-cycle family characteristics such  
 474 as age, education and number of family members<sup>24,25</sup>. The  
 475 degree of diversification of the household portfolio

476 is determined by these characteristics, and by the house-  
 477 hold's and individual's objectives, such as risk manage-  
 478 ment practices, and/or strategies available to cope with  
 479 shocks. In areas of greater risk, the household strategies  
 480 are expected to be more diversified as a means to minimize  
 481 possible shocks from negative climate events, especially  
 482 when loss-management strategies are limited<sup>26</sup>.



**Table 8.** Main sources of household income in the target areas in the four countries.

Wealth group (%)	Jordan	Lebanon	Palestine	Syria
Lowest 25	Government	Crops	Off-farm labor	Crops
	Crops	Off-farm labor	Crops	Government
	Off-farm labor	Government	Government	Off-farm labor
25–50	Government	Off-farm labor	Crops	Crops
	Crops	Crops	Government	Government
	Off-farm labor	Government	Off-farm labor	Off-farm labor
50–75	Government	Off-farm labor	Off-farm labor	Crops
	Crops	Crops	Crops	Government
	Live animals	Government	Government	Off-farm labor
	Livestock products			
Highest 25	Government	Off-farm labor	Live animals	Crops
	Livestock products	Crops	Off-farm labor	Government
	Live animals	Others	Crops	Others
	Crops	Live animals	Livestock products	Livestock products
			Live animals	

Overall, households in the study areas depended on many sources for their income (Table 8). The main sources for households in the lowest 25% quartiles in the four countries came from crop production, followed by off-farm labor and government employment. The highest welfare quartile was relatively more dependent on livestock products and selling of live animals, in addition to crop production, off-farm labor and government employment. However, the lowest quartiles were relatively more dependent on livestock compared to those in the highest quartiles.

#### Impact on household income and livelihoods

Previous assessments of the project indicated very encouraging impacts, and helped in the setting-up of agrobiodiversity programs in research institutions in Jordan, Lebanon and Syria; and in the creation of agrobiodiversity units in the Ministry of Agriculture of the Palestinian Authority and in the Forestry Department in Jordan. There has been a shift toward the use of wild relatives of fruit trees in forestation efforts. In Syria, 500,000 seedlings of target landrace species were planted in 2003, compared to 30,000 in 1999. Awareness has increased at all levels regarding the need to conserve agrobiodiversity. This has facilitated collaboration with tourism and education ministries and with other projects and nongovernmental organizations. Sites rich in agrobiodiversity have been identified and designated so by governments, after approval by local communities. Many accessions of target species have been collected and placed in gene banks. Protocols for ecogeographic/botanic survey database management have been set up and a policy framework developed and shared.

However, the impact assessment also explored a wide variety of changes or trends caused by the project in terms of financial and livelihood impacts, and hence, the impact assessment differed from conventional project reviews in

two ways. (1) It assessed impacts in terms of broad economic and livelihood change, not in terms of predefined project objectives and plans. This was because it sought to identify overall contribution to development, not to only assess accomplishment of planned activities for internal management purposes. Changes in livelihoods were adopted as a key measure of impact. (2) An assessment of commercial viability was an integral component, because the project interventions affected different household enterprises, and hence, viability determined sustainability. The commercial assessment was a complement to, rather than a component of, the analysis of local economic and livelihood impacts.

The impact assessments in this study explored changes and trends caused by the project for the households in the target areas, and analyzed these in terms of their financial and livelihood impact. Therefore, households who participated in the project were compared in terms of type of participation, wealth quartiles and income from agriculture, with those who did not participate in the project.

Increasing the average agricultural income is not necessary to have a positive effect on poor farmers, and other factors related to equity have to be taken into account. There are several ways to express the degree of income inequality in a society. As in many other studies<sup>27</sup>, the Gini coefficient is used in this study to measure income inequality. The main advantage of the Gini coefficient is that it is a measure of inequality of income—focusing more on the distribution and not on the central tendency as is the case with averages and medians, which can often be affected by the relative size of a few outliers.

The analysis of income from agriculture indicated higher average household incomes for households that participated in the project compared to households that did not. The estimated Gini coefficients varied among participating and non participating households.

The comparison was done between participants and non participants within each group of the wealth

**Table 9.** Comparison between average household income from agriculture by participation in agrobiodiversity enhancement activities (US\$/household).

Groups	Wealth quartiles (%)	Jordan		Lebanon		Palestine		Syria	
		Average US\$	Gini coefficient	Average US\$	Gini coefficient	Average US\$	Gini coefficient	Average US\$	Gini coefficient
Participants	Lowest 25	1923		4527		2765		1056	
	25–50	1274		3167		2765		2071	
	50–75	5070		3973		3105		1207	
	Highest 25	11,186		6195		6266		4265	
	Total	4280	<b>0.591</b>	4298	<b>0.401</b>	3897	<b>0.463</b>	2487	<b>0.477</b>
Non participants	Lowest 25	1473		2670		2125		1069	
	25–50	2103		2179		5390		954	
	50–75	2399		1460		3286		976	
	Highest 25	3577		3268		15,295		2663	
	Total	2526	<b>0.438</b>	2384	<b>0.391</b>	5351	<b>0.559</b>	1339	<b>0.476</b>

quartiles, which were classified based on household assets by using sub-indexes including cropland area, rangeland area, owned livestock numbers, vehicle and house ownership, on- and off-farm activities, access to credit, cooperatives membership and health care. Statistical analysis indicated that there were no significant differences between the averages of these variables in each wealth quartile. Therefore, notable increase in annual household income (Table 9) can be attributed to a large extent to household participation in agrobiodiversity enhancement project, compared to non participating households, which reflects the impact of the project on rural livelihoods. The annual increase, on average, was estimated at US\$1616 per household in the four countries; and the values of Gini coefficients, a measurement of income inequality emphasis on distribution rather than tendencies, were not significantly different, indicating that enhancing agrobiodiversity did not increase inequalities between poorer and better-off farmers.

## 576 Lessons Learned

Impact assessment is a critical element of the learning process in agricultural research and development. Impact studies may primarily be initiated to answer the question ‘what is the effect of research on the stated goals of the agricultural research program?’ Successful impact studies often involve collection of baseline information in order to capture the situation before program interventions are made. Collection of such baseline data makes it possible for a before–after type of analysis. In this project, the baseline survey was carried out in the year 2000, focusing more on the technical and biological aspects than the socio-economic information of the target population. Information related to agrobiodiversity conservation as well as farmer’s perception toward the project using a solid and extensive monitoring plan throughout the project life cycle.

Activities that help raise farmers’ awareness on the importance of conserving dryland agrobiodiversity are essential. However, that alone cannot allow sustainability of the conservation actions. Hence, raising the awareness of all stakeholders is an important activity, to get, among other things, the support of government institutions in scaling up the project impacts. Any *in situ* conservation efforts will require tackling the livelihoods of the custodians of the remaining agrobiodiversity and development of enabling policies and legislations to empower local communities. The impact of this pilot project cannot be extended to more communities in the countries or outside without having a follow-up program to continue the momentum created by the project and the required support by governments within rural development programs or/and by various funds established worldwide for sharing the benefits generated from the use of genetic resources. Most farmers are keen to receive monetary incentives to contribute to conservation and sustainable use of agrobiodiversity of global importance; however, there are several other non monetary incentives that could allow intensive participation of men and women of the communities to the efforts of better management of agrobiodiversity.

The success of an agrobiodiversity conservation project not only depends on farmers’ skills and knowledge but to a large extent on the overall policy environment. Policy related to agrobiodiversity conservation is part of the larger agricultural and environmental policy framework. Therefore, the policy environment has to be taken into consideration when planning, implementing and evaluating agrobiodiversity projects. As a primary task in evaluation, it is necessary to judge whether the general policy environment is conducive or hampering the implementation of projects that aim at the conservation of genetic resources. Stakeholders’ involvements in planning and implementation of such projects, as well as support capacity building for national policy makers, are needed.

632 Since impacts are expected, it is important to follow up  
633 the project at farm level to speed up the spread of the  
634 outputs of the project and hence adoption. Many research  
635 for development projects produce research outputs, but  
636 additional actions are required to promote and dis-  
637 seminate the technologies or methods developed by the  
638 project.

639 This study also showed the importance of traditional  
640 farming systems in contributing to the on-farm conser-  
641 vation of dryland and mountainous agrobiodiversity.  
642 However, the sustainability of on-farm conservation  
643 of remaining agrobiodiversity will require research into  
644 low-cost technologies to improve crop and livestock  
645 productivities, the empowerment of local communities,  
646 in addition to diversification of incomes through value-  
647 adding technologies and alternative sources of incomes of  
648 the main custodians of local agrobiodiversity. This study  
649 has demonstrated that there are several technological,  
650 institutional, value-adding and alternative sources of  
651 income, which can contribute to on-farm conservation  
652 of agrobiodiversity of local and global importance.

## 653 Conclusion and Recommendations

654 The ways people make a living, and the constraints  
655 they face and opportunities they have, can strongly affect  
656 the status and management of their resources, including  
657 agrobiodiversity. Livelihood strategies in dry areas are  
658 dynamic, particularly due to uncertainty in agriculture  
659 driven by variation in rainfall intensity and distribution.  
660 Therefore, people engage in different livelihood activities  
661 and are always looking for additional income sources.  
662 Farmers in dry areas and the agrobiodiversity they hold  
663 face both environmental and socio-economic conditions  
664 that make the incidence of poverty relatively high.

665 The analysis indicated that farm resources, including  
666 water, land, livestock, agrobiodiversity, crops and  
667 knowledge, were essential resources and assets in gen-  
668 erating livelihoods of families in the target areas.  
669 Although agriculture may not be the main source of  
670 household income, it is still a major component in dry  
671 areas. Access, control and management of these resources  
672 help shape which activities are pursued. When access is  
673 limited or opportunistic due to lack of institutions  
674 supporting this access by individuals, the ability to sustain  
675 the natural resource base and other human assets is  
676 endangered.

677 Data analysis also indicated that the average income  
678 from agriculture was higher for households that partici-  
679 pated in the project than for those that did not. The  
680 estimated increase in annual household income attributed  
681 to household contribution in the project could also reflect  
682 impact of the project on rural livelihoods. The average  
683 estimated annual increase was US\$1616 per household in  
684 the four countries, and ranged from US\$1148 in Syria to  
685 US\$1914 in Lebanon.

The results of this study highlighted the importance of  
agrobiodiversity conservation in improving the liveli-  
hoods of all segments of farming communities. However,  
to be effective, research should be based on the im-  
portance of targeted species for different farming groups.  
This study provides clear indications that the diversifica-  
tion of farming systems including livestock, field crops  
and fruit trees along with off-farm activities are essential  
for conservation and sustainable use of dryland agrobio-  
diversity.

Finally, to promote on-farm community-driven agro-  
biodiversity conservation and sustainable use for food and  
agriculture we recommend, at the community level, the  
following: (1) support on-farm conservation of agricul-  
tural biodiversity using incentives appropriate to the  
context; (2) support farmer-to-farmer seed exchange,  
including seed fairs and community seed banks, where  
it is effective; (3) enhance local-level seed production  
by providing technical backup and business advice;  
(4) promote integrated crop management; (5) commit to  
continuing natural resources research on agricultural  
biodiversity; (6) strengthen local community organiz-  
ations to increase farmers' voices on agricultural biodi-  
versity issues; (7) promote income-generating activities  
that use agricultural biodiversity; (8) strengthen local-  
level capacity for agricultural biodiversity management  
and use, including tools such as 'farmer field schools'; and  
(9) invest in developing local markets for biodiversity-  
friendly agricultural products.

The recommendations at the national level should  
cover: support to rural development in areas rich in  
agrobiodiversity, mainstreaming and better coordination  
of national genetic resources policies and programs,  
including wider stakeholder involvement in planning  
and implementation, and capacity building for national  
policy makers; and support the decentralization of  
agricultural research and extension services, including  
participatory plant breeding.

At the international level, equitable benefit sharing  
should target those farmers contributing to agrobiodiver-  
sity of global significance, including exchange of technol-  
ogies, marketing of local products and joining efforts with  
national government to support rural development.

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