iisd International Institute for Sustainable Development / Institut international du développement durable

http://www.iisd.org

Conserving the Peace:

Analyzing the links between conservation and conflict in the Albertine Rift

Anne Hammill and Oli Brown

March 2006

Strategy Report prepared following the Project Inception Meeting in Nairobi, 1–2 February 2006

Published by the International Institute for Sustainable Development

The International Institute for Sustainable Development contributes to sustainable development by advancing policy recommendations on international trade and investment, economic policy, climate change, measurement and assessment, and natural resources management. Through the Internet, we report on international negotiations and share knowledge gained through collaborative projects with global partners, resulting in more rigorous research, capacity building in developing countries and better dialogue between North and South.

IISD's vision is better living for all—sustainably; its mission is to champion innovation, enabling societies to live sustainably. IISD is registered as a charitable organization in Canada and has 501(c)(3) status in the United States. IISD receives core operating support from the Government of Canada, provided through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) and Environment Canada; and from the Province of Manitoba. The institute receives project funding from numerous governments inside and outside Canada, United Nations agencies, foundations and the private sector.

International Institute for Sustainable Development
161 Portage Avenue East, 6th Floor
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Canada R3B 0Y4
Tel: +1 (204) 958-7700
Fax: +1 (204) 958-7710
E-mail: info@iisd.ca
Web site: http://www.iisd.org/

Conserving the Peace: Analyzing the links between conservation and conflict in the Albertine Rift
Anne Hammill and Oli Brown

Table of Contents

1. Introduction

In September 2005, the MacArthur Foundation awarded IISD a US$325,000 grant to undertake a project examining and addressing the links between conservation interventions and conflict in the Albertine Rift.

Specifically, the project seeks to minimize the risk of conservation NGOs exacerbating conflict through their projects, and to maximize their potential for contributing to cooperation and peacebuilding by encouraging the integration of conflict-sensitivity into their work.

In an effort to finalize the design and ensure the successful implementation of the project, this paper has been prepared to clarify some of its conceptual and methodological underpinnings. The purpose of the paper is threefold:

1. to provide an overview of the project's understanding of conflict and the different types of conflicts relating to conservation activities in the Albertine Rift;

2. to identify the aspects of conservation-conflict situations this project will seek to address; and

3. to review a sampling of tools and methodologies available for addressing these conflict situations, highlighting specific components that might be used for this project.

The paper is structured according to these aims.

2. Conservation and Conflict in the Albertine Rift

The Albertine Rift is host to some of Africa's richest biodiversity, as well as the site of some of its most intense social and political upheavals. Conservationists working in the region are faced with mounting socio-economic pressures that not only threaten biodiversity but make their jobs more challenging and potentially dangerous. This calls for adaptive and innovative approaches to planning, implementing and evaluating conservation interventions so that they minimize risks and address some of the root causes of threats to conservation.

For the purposes of this paper, we define **conservation interventions** as any project or program, large or small, which attempts to reconcile the seemingly contradictory interests of biodiversity conservation with development. This definition covers a wide spectrum of projects—from small-scale integrated conservation and development (ICD) projects to the gazetting of new protected areas where some social provision has been made for expelled residents.

2.1 What do we mean by conflict?

Conservation interventions are affected by, address and sometimes contribute to conflict. **Conflict** is a multi-dimensional social phenomenon, indicative of social change and transformation (see Box 1).[1] Depending on how conflict is diagnosed and managed, it can lead to a range of outcomes, from constructive development opportunities to violence and human suffering.

BOX 1: CONFLICT

Conflict takes place when two or more parties perceive that their interests are incompatible, express hostile attitudes, or pursue their interests through actions that damage the other parties.

When resolved peacefully and non-coercively, conflict can be a force for positive social change. It can be a sign of a society adapting to changing economic, social and environmental realities, and an opportunity for marginalized groups to redress injustice.

When conflict is ignored or suppressed, it often leads to increased frustration and tension, which, when left unchecked, may result in violence.

Conflict can be characterized according to:

- Causes: Socio-cultural, economic, governance and security issues that generate grievances.
- Actors: The individuals and groups contributing to or affected by conflict.
- Geographic scope: The physical scale and spread of the conflict.
- Intensity: The spectrum of conflict intensity ranges from *violent conflict*, characterized by "open acts of hostility," to *non-violent*. The latter can include *latent conflict*, where tensions exist but parties have not decided to act, or *manifest conflict*, where parties decide to act, but not through the use of violence.

Given the wide range of factors that drive conflict, it is clear that if conflicts are to be adequately addressed, their context must be clearly understood.

2.2 What kinds of conflicts are related to conservation in the Albertine Rift?

Conservationists working in the Albertine Rift deal with very different types of conflict. These conflicts fall into two broad categories: a) local conflicts that are the direct result of conservation interventions. On the whole these disputes tend to be non-violent; and b) regional armed or violent conflict that is not the direct result of conservation interventions, but of deeper-rooted social, cultural and economic factors.

This section provides a summary of some of these different conflict situations. Under each broad category, we list a number of specific types of conflict to attempt to refine the typology.

[1] International Alert. 2003. *Resource Pak for Conflict Transformation*, London.

2.3 Local-level conflicts resulting from conservation

That conservation is closely linked to conflict is not surprising. As Castro and Nielsen state, "natural resource management is in many ways a form of conflict management".[2] In developing countries, where dependence on natural resources is high, interventions that affect access to and management of natural resources have impacts on livelihoods, the distribution of wealth, established power structures and group identities. When these interventions take place against a background of social inequality, poverty, corruption and ethnic tension, the potential for conservation to become politicized and generate grievance is high.

Local-level conflicts take place between communities and conservation actors, as well as between and within communities themselves. These conflicts rarely turn violent, but perceived injustices can lead to tensions and disputes that, when inadequately addressed, can escalate—even turn violent—and threaten the effectiveness and sustainability of conservation interventions. Conservation interventions in the Albertine Rift can create local-level conflicts in the following ways:

a) Restricting access to livelihood resources: Interventions such as the establishment of Protected Areas, buffer zones and multiple use zones are designed to control—and usually reduce—community access to natural resources in order to protect and enhance biodiversity in the face of mounting population and development pressures. These interventions result in physical displacement of communities, or restricted access to lands and resources.

   The socio-economic implications are acute, as rural communities around protected areas have limited development opportunities and tend to be heavily dependent on natural resources to sustain their livelihoods. Without appropriate alternatives or compensation schemes, conservation interventions can represent a loss of assets and income to local communities, which can contribute to social disarticulation, loss of identity and increased marginalization.[3]

   Conflicts over restricted resource access tend to take place between local communities and conservation actors, but sometimes they can fuel tensions between different communities or community members. These conflicts focus on issues such as:

   - *Compensation for expropriated land or housing*: Communities seeking (better) compensation from conservation organizations or government authorities for giving up land and/or housing to accommodate the conservation intervention. Where compensation was not offered, communities may demand it, and where compensation was offered, communities may perceive it as inadequate.

[2] Castro, A.P. and E. Nielsen. 2003. Natural resource conflict management case studies: An analysis of power, participation and protected areas. Rome: FAO. Pg. 1.
[3] Cernea, M. M. 2005."Restriction of access" is displacement: A broader concept and policy. Forced Migration Review, Volume 23: 48–49.

- *Provision of resource alternatives*: Linked to the compensation issue above, this refers to communities seeking productive resources to substitute those they are no longer permitted to harvest. Alternatives that do not yield desired socio-economic benefits—i.e., cash income, construction materials, energy or medicine—cause community resentment towards conservation actors.

- *Illegal harvesting or use of restricted resources*: Conflicts arising as a result of community members who disregard conservation rules through activities such as poaching, fishing or harvesting of firewood in a protected area. These activities can lead to direct confrontations between perpetrators and conservation authorities (e.g., rangers), as well tensions between perpetrators and community member who report illegal activities to authorities.

b) Introducing or increasing the costs of conservation: For communities living in park-adjacent areas, the close proximity to wildlife can lead to considerable economic burden and personal risk. These costs include:

- *Crop loss and property damage*: Many livelihoods around conservation areas are based on mixed agriculture, where crops are produced both for cash income and home consumption. Loss of these crops to wildlife such as birds, and mountain gorillas affect household income and food security.

- *Opportunity costs of protecting against wildlife damage*: In an effort to minimize or counteract crop loss and property damage, communities spend a lot of time protecting their property. Men often guard at night, while women and children guard during the day. For children, this can undermine their education.

- *Physical threats to people from wildlife*: Park-adjacent communities suffer from attacks by wildlife such as baboons, elephants, buffaloes and gorillas. The attacks can cause school closures, relocation, and human injury and deaths—all of which have profound livelihood implications.

- *Loss of livestock and disease transmission*: For communities who keep livestock in proximity to wildlife, their animals may become prey to larger carnivores. Diseases transmitted from wildlife to domestic stock can lead to animal deaths and the additional costs of treating these diseases.[4]

The socio-economic costs of living beside conservation interventions can contribute to tensions and confrontations between communities and conservation actors. Efforts at reducing or offsetting these costs—e.g., guarding, physical buffers, income-generating activities—can minimize or resolve these conflicts.

c) Unequal benefit sharing: In an effort to offset the costs of conservation, some interventions involve provisions whereby a portion of conservation-related revenues

[4] Musaasizi, J. 2004. "*Reducing the conservation costs in agrarian communities in Western Uganda"*. Paper presented at Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Biodiversity Forum, June 9–11, 2004. Available at http://www.gbf.ch/Session_Administration/upload/musaasizi.doc

(park fees, tourism permits) is reallocated to surrounding communities for small-scale development projects such as health clinics and schools. When benefits are inequitably distributed—i.e., captured by elite groups rather than those in greatest need of the benefits—conflict can arise between different community members (elite vs. marginalized), as well as between marginalized community members and conservation actors, who are perceived as reinforcing power asymmetries.

2.4 Regional-level conflicts resulting from deep-rooted social, cultural and economic factors

Shifting our focus to the macro-level, conservationists in the region are also dealing with the risk and immediate aftermath of violent or armed conflict. By regional conflicts, we refer to the complex array of tensions and violence stemming from issues such as socio-economic disparity, political representation, identity, citizenship, and weak governance. Looking at these conflicts on a regional scale is more appropriate than emphasizing the artificial dichotomy between intra- and inter-state conflicts. As the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) notes in the conflict analysis of the Great Lakes Region,

> *The violent conflicts have tended to expand geographically and the epicentre of the conflicts is shifting from one country to another. The conflicts in the region have a dual character: even if most of the conflicts have a distinct local and/or national anchorage, they are at the same time fuelled by or fuelling regional conflicts. A regional approach is necessary, for both analysis and management of the conflicts.*[5]

Over the past 15 years, the central part of the Rift—particularly the shared borders of eastern DRC and western Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi—has been marked by civil war, genocides, and mass refugee movements. Conflicts that were initially confined within national borders spilled across boundaries and drew the four countries into a recurrent cycle of armed conflict and proxy war. Uganda and Rwanda, for example, allied in 1997 to remove the leader of DRC (then called Zaire) Mobutu Sese Seko and then fought three major battles over control of resources in the eastern Congo between 1998 and 2002.

It is impossible to summarize the complex history of regional conflict in the Albertine Rift in a couple of paragraphs but a few statistics highlight the extent of the problem. In the DRC the mortality rate from war-related causes (mainly disease and malnutrition) is still over 30,000 people per month. Also in DRC, the continued presence of 8,000 to 10,000 Hutu rebels with links to the 1994 genocide continues to give Kigali some motive for interference in Congo. Meanwhile over 300,000 Burundian refugees are still living in Tanzanian refugee camps.

The situation in the region is changing fast. The 2005 elections in Burundi have transformed the political landscape. The February 2006 elections in Uganda look to cement Museveni's position in power for a third term, and DRC is planning elections in 2006. Whether these

[5] Sida. 2004. A Strategic Conflict Analysis for the Great Lakes Region. Pg. 23.

elections support or weaken stability in the region remains to be seen, as it remains one of the most troubled regions of Africa, if not the world.

Against this volatile background, conservation actors have been working to protect and manage the region's natural resources. Violent conflict remains a concern—and a genuine threat—for conservation in many parts of the Albertine Rift. Ongoing armed conflicts between militia groups pose direct threats to personnel and resources. Refugees, Internally Displaced People (IDP) and demobilized troops often turn to the unsettled lands and resources of protected areas, intensifying park-people conflicts and even sparking new conflicts between surrounding communities as resource competition increases. Furthermore, a post-conflict setting or unstable peace can translate into volatile socio-political dynamics that raises the stakes of conservation management decisions, such as gazetting.

Below are examples of the ways in which conservation interventions interact with regional-level conflicts.

a) Conservation interventions are affected by armed conflict: Much of the early work on the links between conservation and conflict focused on the impact of ongoing conflict on the environment in general and on protected areas in particular. In times of conflict, conservation work is threatened from many sides. To pick just a few examples: warring factions can threaten the safety of staff or base themselves within protected areas with an ensuing free-for-all for the park's resources, patrolling park boundaries can become hazardous and international funding sources can dry up. (See BSP's 'Trampled Grass')

b) Conservation activities contribute to regional tensions: Conservation is not just passively influenced by conflict. Because access to or control over natural resources is at the heart of many conflicts in the Albertine Rift, interventions that influence the availability of these resources risk creating or exacerbating tensions. The examples listed in section 2.3 highlight how tensions result directly from a conservation project in a local setting. In a regional context, the relationship between conservation and conflict can be both direct and indirect:

    - *Direct*: In a region where development needs are high and political relationships are characterized by mutual suspicion (and in some cases aggression), the management of natural resources can become highly charged political issues that lead to disagreement and conflict between local authorities and between governments.

      This can be the case with transboundary natural resources, particularly those with high economic value such as timber and wildlife. Conservation interventions that affect the distribution of these resources and revenues can create tensions. For example, in 2005 Rwandan conservation authorities were accused of excessive gorilla monitoring on their side of the Virunga transboundary complex. Authorities in DRC and Uganda felt that this monitoring risked letting the gorillas become dependent on humans, preventing them from leaving the Rwandan parts of the park, and keeping all of the associated tourism revenues in the country. Tensions between the governments and protected areas authorities

ensued, but were eventually resolved through a tripartite agreement on revenue sharing.

In those parts of the Albertine Rift where the risk of violence persists, the potential to fuel tensions through any intervention is high. The proposed gazetting of Itombwe in DRC provides a conservation-related example. Itombwe has been the scene of violence and conflict in recent years, largely stemming from insecurity in neighbouring Burundi and Rwanda, as well as ethnic tensions between Tutsi pastoralists and Bembe farmers on the Plateau. Gazetting will involve the relocation of thousands of encroachers 500 km to the west of Itombwe.

While most of the encroachers are aware of the relocation, the potential for conflict is high. The interruption of livelihoods may undermine the ability of people to meet basic needs. The distribution of resources during the transition period may be perceived as benefiting certain groups over others. The settlement of previously conflicting groups in close proximity to one another without any provisions for local dispute resolution may rekindle long-standing tensions.

- *Indirect*: Because of the volatile context, conservation interventions may also inadvertently contribute to regional conflict through its operational procedures. That is, in addition to **what** conservationists do (e.g., monitor gorillas, establish parks), **how** they do it may also lead to the escalation of conflict. For example, in DRC a conservation organization seeking to reduce the incidence of crop raids by buffalos in park-adjacent communities instituted a protection program. Community members were trained to build protective walls around their crops and compensated with cash or food. Research conducted in 2005 found that compensated individuals became targets of violence, as armed groups raided households for food and money—valuable resources in conflict zones.

2.5 Links between local-level and regional conflict

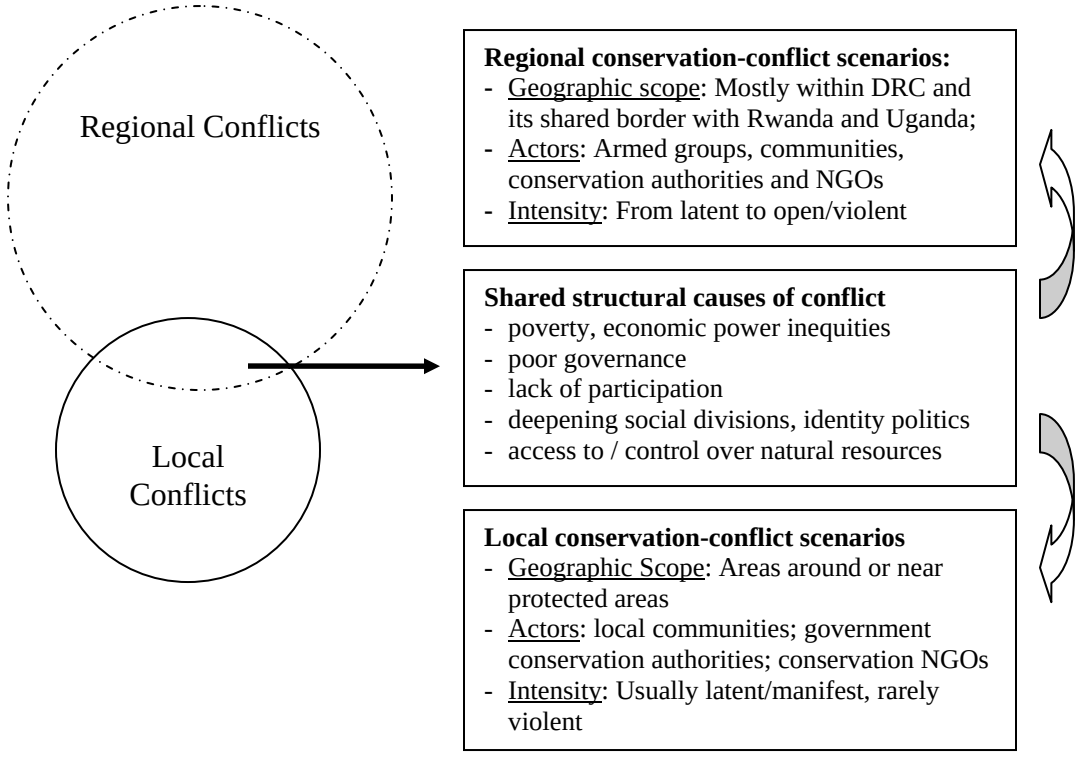
The MacArthur project seeks to provide a better understanding of the links between conservation and conflict in the Albertine Rift so that conservation projects can be designed and implemented in such a way that: (a) they avoid creating or exacerbating conflict; (b) they include provisions for mitigating or managing conflicts; and (c) they maximize opportunities for cooperation and peacebuilding.

But considering the various ways in which conservation is linked to different types of conflict, the question remains whether the MacArthur project should be considering all of the conservation-conflict scenarios described above. Given the extensive work that has already been done by the Biodiversity Support Programme (BSP) and its publication *Trampled Grass*, we would argue that our project need not "reinvent the wheel" by examining the impact of conflict on conservation in any detail. That said, these links will certainly be considered when "unpacking" and contextualizing conservation interventions, as armed conflicts present a range of risks and conditions that shape the design of some projects in the region, but they will not be the focus of our work.

Rather, the MacArthur project will focus on how conservation contributes to violent and non-violent conflict as well as peacebuilding in a region that is characteristically prone to or affected by violence. But narrowing our focus to this still leaves us with a wide range of conservation-conflict scenarios, grouped into the two categories above (i.e., sections 2.3 and 2.4). The first refers to more localized conflicts that result from the implementation of a conservation intervention, and the second to conflicts that result when an intervention interacts with a broader set of socio-political dynamics to exacerbate existing tensions and grievances. The former signifies a direct, causal role of conservation, while the latter implies a more passive, indirect role where the risk of conflict is attributed to forces beyond the scope and control of the project. Can both be included in the MacArthur project?

The short answer is yes. The two conservation-conflict categories are related. In many ways, the regional conflict examples of transboundary gorilla conservation and the gazetting of Itombwe are similar to the localized, non-violent conservation-conflict scenarios described in section 2.3. They relate to issues such as unequal benefit sharing and restricted access to livelihood resources. This suggests that both categories share some of the same structural causes of conflict, such as poverty, intensified competition for natural resources, lack of political participation, weak governance and deepening social divisions (both in terms of identity and rural/urban disparities). Figure 1 below attempts to demonstrate this relationship.

Figure 1: Linking local- and regional-level conflicts in the Albertine Rift



In the regional conflict context, the stakes are usually higher. In other words, the potential for conservation interventions to "do harm" in areas that have recently or historically been affected by violence is more acute. But even areas where the risk for violence is low, the potential for escalation might exist. At the very least, conservationists would do well to better understand the structural or root causes of conflict, so they can be more effectively addressed and contribute to positive change.

2.6 Conservation and peacebuilding

While the emphasis to this point has been on the role of conservation in contributing to conflict, its potential role in regional peacebuilding must not be overlooked. Well planned, conflict-sensitive conservation interventions can actually contribute to community peacebuilding. By extension conservation interventions could play a role, albeit minor, in regional moves towards reconciliation. For example, the shared management of transboundary resources can establish a process of cooperation, open channels of communication and demonstrate the benefits of collaboration over conflict. Likewise, protected areas can support livelihoods, generate tourism and finance some degree of post-conflict reconstruction.

BOX 2: PEACEBUILDING

Peacebuilding is a process involving measures that address the root causes and effects of conflict, and strengthen capacities to manage conflict. The aim is to create conditions for a sustained peace.

Apart from addressing socio-economic causes of conflict, peacebuilding emphasizes the strengthening of interpersonal or inter-groups relationships through activities that promote:

- Cooperation
- Dialogue
- Participation
- Strengthening of existing customary and quasi-legal dispute resolution mechanisms

That is emphatically not to say that conservationists should cast themselves as "peacemakers." Conservationists can't expect to transform a larger inter or intra-strate conflict—but they can make sure their interventions don't exacerbate existing tensions. If appropriate they can also design their conservation interventions in a way that could help, in a small way, to build community reconciliation. No one would suggest, for example, that a joint school trip of Protestant and Catholic school children in Northern Ireland is going to resolve a centuries old and bitter conflict—but it's a small step in the right direction.

3. Conserving the Peace: What does this project address?

As the discussion above explains, conservation is both affected by and contributes to conflict. Much of the Albertine Rift has been affected by violent conflict over the last 30 years. Even in countries characterized as "post-conflict" or relatively stable, deep tensions over structural injustices and economic grievances persist. These injustices and grievances underlie both the (potential for) regional or national violence, as well as local conservation-related disputes. Warner (2001) observes:

> Projects in areas of latent conflict sometimes provoke or awaken disputes. In turn, these disputes sometimes feed on existing political or economic tensions, and can escalate into hostilities and violence.[6]

Conservationists in the Albertine Rift can therefore not afford to be "conflict-blind." Like it or not they are political actors engaged in highly charged political activities—namely restricting local access to resources in the name of the higher, often abstract (to local people) goal of biodiversity conservation.

So what do we want to do to help conservationists deal with the different types of conflict described in the previous section? Simply stated, we want to help them become more "conflict sensitive."[7] That is, we want to help conservationists: (a) obtain a better, more systematic understanding of the conflict(s) in their project area; (b) assess how their interventions affect the conflict (s), and (c) use this understanding to design and implement activities that will avoid or mitigate these conflicts. The desired result would be conservation interventions that "do no harm" and contribute to peacebuilding.

By helping conservationists become more conflict sensitive, they will also enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of their interventions. Figure 2 below summarizes the guiding questions for the project, and how they relate to one another given our understanding of the links between conservation and conflict.

---

[6] Warner, 2001. Complex Problems, Negotiated Solutions: Tools to Reduce Conflict in Community Development. London: ITDG Publishing. Pg. 8.

[7] The Resource Pack. 2004. Africa Peace Forum, Center for Conflict Resolution, Consortium of Humanitarian Agencies, Forum on Early Warning and Early Response, International Alert and Saferworld 2004. Conflict-sensitive approaches to development, humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding: A Resource Pack. London. Available at http://www.conflictsensitivity.org

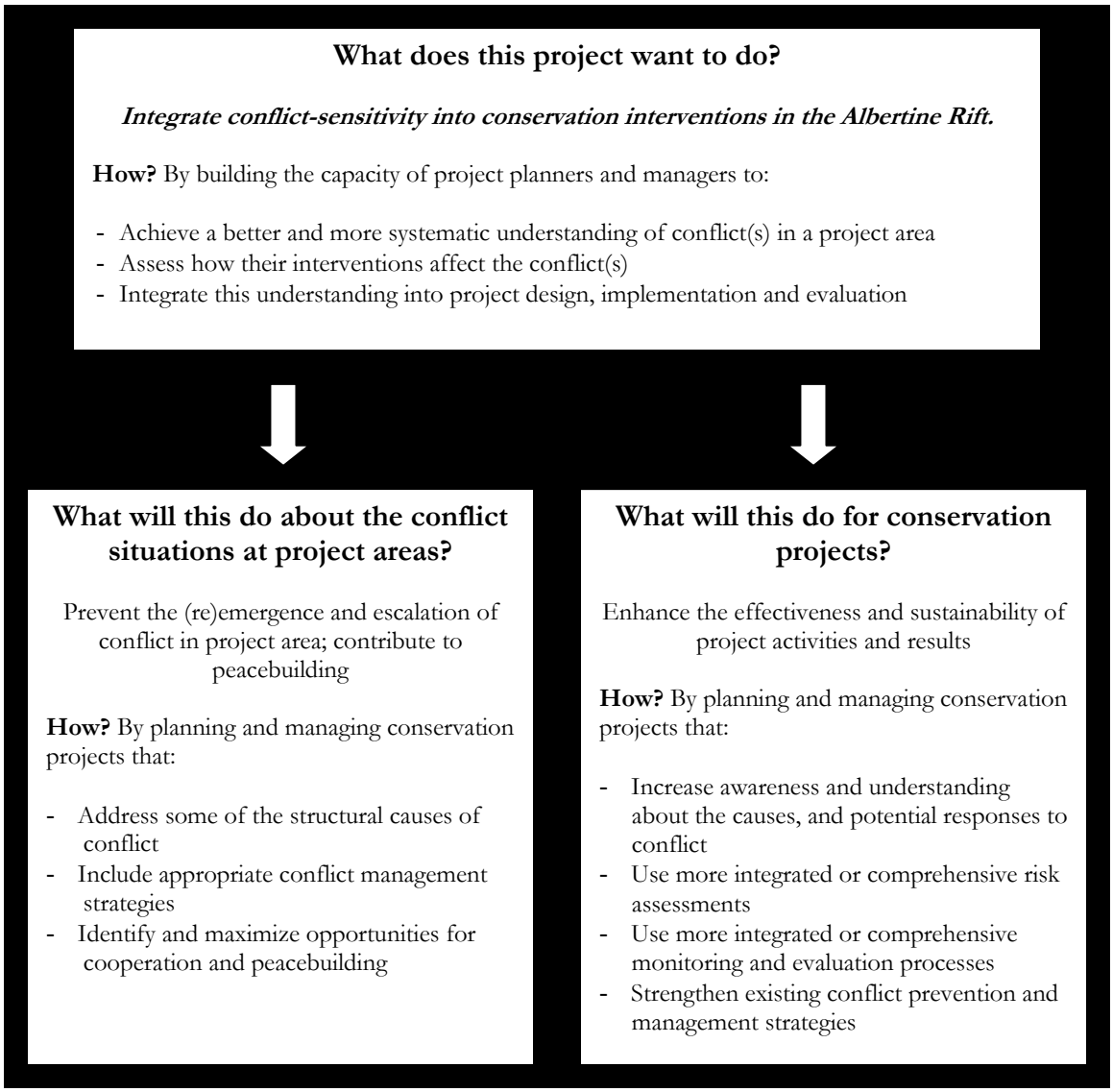


Figure 2: Conserving the peace: conflict-sensitive conservation in the Albertine Rift

3.1 How do we want to integrate conflict sensitivity?

We argue that a conflict-sensitive approach should not just be about post-facto assessments of completed projects. Neither should it be limited to the design phase of a planned project. Rather there are a variety of "entry points" for conflict-sensitive approaches throughout the project cycle:

Conflict-sensitive approaches have entry points at the pre-project design phase, the mid-project implementation phase and the post-project assessment phase. In each phase conflict-sensitivity analysis should help mould decisions as to the process, beneficiaries, scope, objectives and resources (both human and physical) of the project, as well as the indicators that are used to determine its success or otherwise.

Our fieldwork will, somewhat inevitably, present a "snap-shot" picture of the degree of conflict-sensitivity of a project. However, that shouldn't mean that we are inherently endorsing one-off assessments of projects.

On the contrary the MacArthur project, through repeated field visits, training and workshops, quite specifically attempts to incorporate and encourage conflict-sensitive approaches throughout the project cycle.

4. Tools and Methodologies for Analyzing Conflict

Our project draws from a number of existing approaches, tools and methodologies. Broadly speaking, we need methodologies that will help conservationists:

- systematically understand the (conflict) context in which they operate;
- assess how their intervention affects that context; and
- integrate this understanding into the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their conservation interventions.

This section provides examples of existing approaches and methodologies on conflict-sensitivity, which have been developed and tested in different contexts. Some are more relevant and useful than others. Although few of these methodologies have been specifically designed for conservation interventions, they offer a framework for conducting our own work. We can assemble a flexible and well-informed methodology using elements from each of the examples below. A summary of the discussed methodologies is provided in Table 1, followed by brief descriptions for each example.

Table 1: Summary of conflict-sensitivity analysis tools/methodologies

Purpose	Level	Potential Users	Assumptions	Methodology	Resources
1. Conflict-Sensitive Resource Pack (International Alert *et al.*)					
Conflict analysis; project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation	Project, program, sector	Donors, local and international NGO staff	Conflict analysis as the foundation; use project cycle to integrate results of analysis	Desk-based and field research, consultations	Varies, depending on needs of user
2. Do No Harm (CDA)					
Conflict analysis, project monitoring and impact assessment	Local	Donor, NGO (local and international) staff	Focus on dividers and connectors of conflict	Workshop, integration into standard procedures	Limited, for workshop
2. Benefits/Harms Handbook (CARE)					
Analysis, impact assessment and project (re)design	Local mainly project level	NGO project managers, field staff	Focus on rights-based approach	Desk-based and field research, possible workshop consultations	Varies – few hours in emergencies to more detailed consultations
4. Hands-on PCIA (K. Bush)					
Peace and conflict mapping; impact assessment	Local, national	Local communities and NGO staff; donors, international staff	Peace impacts should be emphasized; process should empower locals	Participatory assessments; field research, consultations	Varies, depending on level of analysis
5. Strategic Conflict Assessment (DFID)					
Country/regional strategic planning; also projects/ programs	Regional, national, local	DFID and partner bilateral/multilateral agencies desk officers	Combine political and economic dimensions; greed/grievance; structures and actors	Combination of desk study and field consultations	Assessment team (five people). Consultation meetings in-country
6. Drivers of Change (DFID)					
Improving aid effectiveness; project/program design	Regional, national, local	Donor agencies	Examines agents, structural features and institutions that enable pro-poor change	Typically in-house assessment during project design phase	In-house staff
7. Conflict Analysis Framework (M. Warner)					
Conflict analysis; represent views of local people in conservation policy and planning	Local project level	Conservation planners; Protected Areas authorities	Draw from conflict resolution and environmental impact assessment	External institutional stakeholder assessment and internal PRA	Stakeholder consultations; PRA research and workshops

4.1 Conflict-sensitive approaches to development, humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding: A Resource Pack (International Alert et al.)[8]

The Resource Pack is a compendium of concepts, approaches, tools and lessons-learned to help humanitarian and development practitioners understand the relationship between programming and conflict.

Developed through a two-year project by a consortium of six Southern and Northern NGOs,[9] it is guided by the concept of "conflict sensitivity." The aim of applying conflict sensitivity is to minimize the potential for inadvertently encouraging conflict, decrease levels of violent conflict or the potential for violent conflict, and increase project effectiveness.

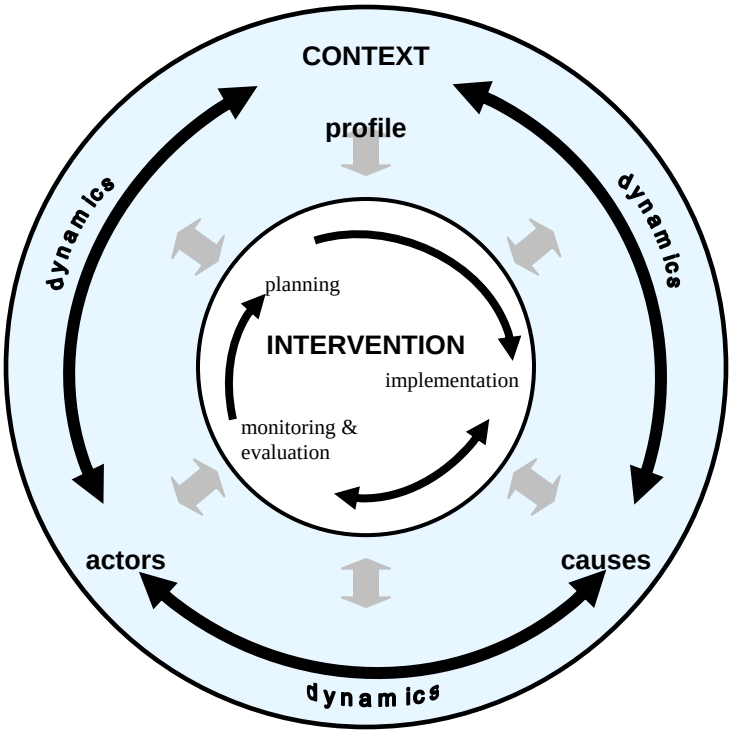


Figure 3: Linking an intervention with its context

Putting conflict sensitivity in action involves:

1) conducting a conflict analysis of the pre-existing context (profile, actors, causes and dynamics of conflict), and updating it regularly—i.e., the outer circle in the diagram above;

2) linking the conflict analysis with the programming cycle of the intervention (planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation)—i.e., the inner circle in the diagram above; and

3) Planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the intervention in a conflict-sensitive manner (including redesign when necessary).

[8] The Resource Pack. 2004. Africa Peace Forum, Center for Conflict Resolution, Consortium of Humanitarian Agencies, Forum on Early Warning and Early Response, International Alert and Saferworld 2004. Conflict-sensitive approaches to development, humanitarian assistance and peacebuilding: A Resource Pack. London. Available at: http://www.conflictsensitivity.org

[9] These organizations were: Africa Peace Forum (Kenya); Center for Conflict Resolution (Uganda); Consortium of Humanitarian Agencies (Sri Lanka); and Forum on Early Warning and Early Response, International Alert and Saferworld (all U.K.).

The Resource Pack offers guidance for undertaking each of these steps, drawing from experiences in current practice. It consists of five stand-alone sections: (i) introduction to conflict-sensitivity; (ii) conflict analysis; (iii) applying conflict sensitivity at the project and program level; (iv) integrating conflict sensitivity into sectoral approaches; and (v) institutional capacity building for conflict sensitivity. Rather than offering new tools, the authors present "broad recommendations on conflict-sensitive practice that organizations will need to further adapt in light of their operating context, their needs, and their operational structures."

The Resource Pack is especially useful for its inventory of conflict analysis tools. While all conflict analysis tools/methodologies are designed to gain a better understanding of a particular context, some are more appropriate than others depending on the nature of the conflict and needs of the user. For example, some tools are more suited to examining economically-driven conflicts, while others emphasize socio-cultural factors. Some may offer quick and easy methodologies (matrixes, worksheets, checklists) while others emphasize "thick," in-depth analysis.

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- The Resource Pack offers a conceptual framework for "conflict-sensitivity."

- It is broad enough in scope that it is probably useful to all project case studies. It covers humanitarian, development and peacebuilding interventions; includes tools for analyzing micro and macro-scale conflicts and interventions; considers a wide spectrum of conflict, from latent to violent conflicts; and looks at how conflict sensitivity can be integrated into all stages of the project cycle.

- It is one of the few available resources on how to integrate conflict sensitivity into projects and programs—i.e., moving beyond and actually using the information generated through a conflict analysis and assessments.

- Needs more concrete examples of the integration process, as this is one of its defining features.

- URL: http://www.conflictsensitivity.org/resource_pack.html

4.2 Do No Harm (Collaborative for Development Action)

The Do No Harm (DNH) Analytical Framework (Figure 4) provides a tool for mapping the interactions between aid and conflict. It was developed in the mid 1990s for field staff of international or local NGOs working in conflict zones to "plan, monitor, evaluate both humanitarian and development assistance programs."

DNH is based on the understanding that in situations of conflict, aid and how it is administered can strengthen capacities for war or for peace. Specifically, assistance interventions interact with "dividers" (sources of tension) and "connectors" (factors

bringing people together) through resource transfers or implicit ethical messages to increase or diminish the risk of conflict.

The Framework itself is a descriptive (not prescriptive) tool that identifies categories of information that are important for understanding how assistance affects conflict. It organizes these categories in a visual layout that highlights their actual or potential relationships, and helps to predict impacts of programming decisions. It consists of seven steps: (1) Understand: the conflict context; (2) Analyze: dividers and sources of tension; (3) connectors and local capacities for peace; (4) the specific assistance intervention; (5) the assistance intervention's impact on dividers and connectors; (6) Generate: programming options; and (7) Test: options and redesign program.

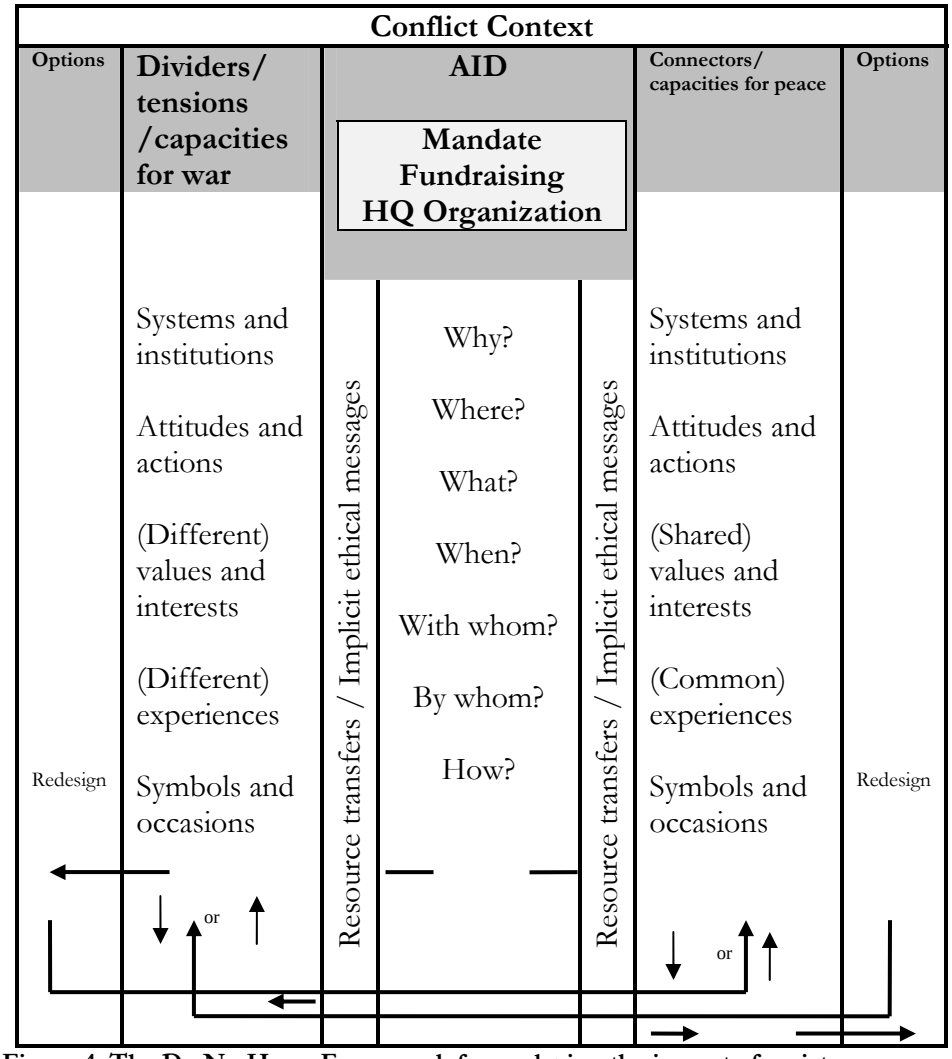


Figure 4: The Do No Harm Framework for analyzing the impact of assistance on conflict

The DNH approach is most suited to analyzing destructive conflicts at the micro-scale, rather than latent conflicts or conflicts at the regional scale. It is generally used by groups of practitioners familiar with the context and the project, and assumes that most of the required information is already available from project staff.

The Framework is widely used among international and local NGOs. In Sri Lanka, for example, CARE modified its position and guidelines on the establishment of welfare centres, the settlement and resettlement of Internally Displaced Peoples (IDPs) and land tenure issues as a result of integrating the DNH framework into their work. Program assessments, case studies, and training of trainers workshops have been conducted worldwide, yielding a number of "fundamental findings":

- First, it is possible—and useful—to apply Do No Harm in conflict-prone, active conflict and post-conflict situations.
- Doing so prompts users to identify conflict-exacerbating impacts of assistance much sooner than is typical without the analysis.
- It also heightens awareness of inter-group relations in project sites and enables users to play a conscious role in helping people come together.
- It reveals the interconnections among programming decisions (about where to work, with whom, how to set the criteria for assistance recipients, who to hire locally, how to relate to local authorities, etc.).
- It provides a common reference point for considering the impacts of assistance on conflict that brings a new cohesiveness to staff interactions and to their work with local counterparts.
- And perhaps most important, applying Do No Harm enables users to identify programming options when things are going badly.[10]

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- The DNH methodology is valuable for analyzing micro-level conflicts but would be less applicable for analyzing macro-level peace/conflict dynamics—e.g., transboundary conservation.

- The concept of *dividers* and *connectors* may be a useful way to link conservation interventions with different types of conflict.

- Given the relative prevalence of this approach in Africa, as well as its role in influencing other tools and methodologies that are used in the region (e.g., CARE's Benefits-Harms Handbook), DNH would provide a useful basis upon which to develop this project's own conflict-sensitivity methodology.

- URL: http://www.cdainc.com/publications/dnh_publications.php

[10] Collaborative for Development Action. Six Fundamental Findings of Do No Harm. http://www.cdainc.com/dnh/six_fundamental_findings_of_do_no_harm.php

4.3 Benefits-Harms Handbook (CARE)

In the late 1990s, CARE International began developing its benefits-harms methodology following a review of its work in Sudan. The resulting methodology draws from the Do No Harm framework but uses a rights-based approach, and borrows from CARE International's own Household Livelihood Security approach.

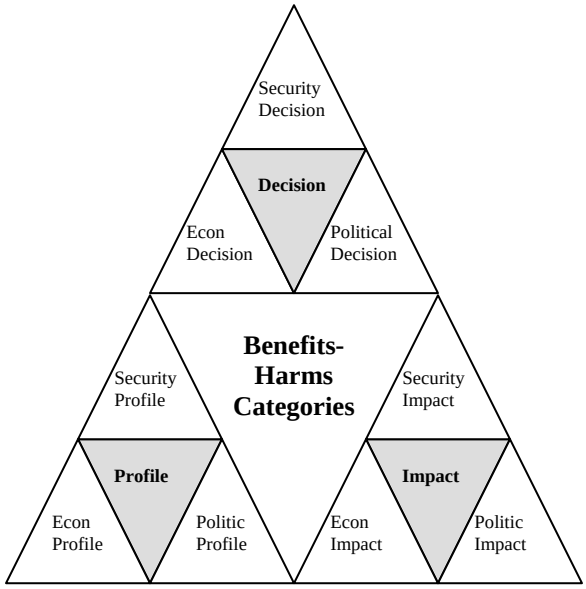


Figure 5: CARE's Benefits-Harms Tools

The Handbook offers a set of simple interrogative tools to assist programmers to identify and address the human rights impacts that may result from any relief or development project. The analysis operates on two core ideas: (1) human rights can be usefully organized into three categories (political rights, security rights, and economic, social and cultural rights); and (2) unintended impacts can happen for three different reasons (lack of knowledge about context; lack of thought about unintended project impacts; and failure to take action to mitigate unintended harms or capitalize on unforeseen benefits).

Three different types of tools were developed to address these challenges:

a. *Profile Tools*, to help users strengthen their understanding of the contexts in which they work or plan to work;
b. *Impact Tools*, to help users look at the causes and effects that may lead to unintended impacts; and
c. *Decision Tools*, to help users choose a course of action to minimize unintended harms and maximize unforeseen benefits.

The Handbook therefore offers total of nine tools—i.e., one profile, impact and decision tool for each of the three categories of rights—which allows for flexibility of use. For example, in some contexts users may want to focus on security issues, using all three security tools. Similarly, depending on the stage of the project, users may want to employ only one type of tool, such as profile tool (for all rights categories) at the project planning stage.

As with the DNH approach, the handbook assumes that most of the information needed to answer the tools' question is already available from field staff. Further information can be gathered from local experts who are invited for consultation. If the organization has been active in the area for some time, the methodology advises holding a workshop for middle-level and field staff as well as local experts. The amount of time required to apply the tools depends on the amount of research required. In emergency situations, for example, local

staff can talk through the profile tools in a few hours. Otherwise, workshops and consultations are recommended.

Care projects in East Africa are now required to conduct a benefits/harms analysis before implementation. However, it is important to remember that it is not possible to design a totally "harm-free" intervention upfront. As a result, continued application of the benefits-harms analysis during project implementation is recommended.

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- The Benefits-Harms Handbook does not emphasize conflict, *per se*, but context, which may render it more useful for analyzing projects situated in non-violent settings.

- The rights categories provide a useful way of organizing the information.

- CARE Uganda, a potential project partner, is already familiar with this approach in its work.

- URL: http://www.careusa.org/getinvolved/advocacy/policypapers/handbook.pdf

4.4 Hands-on PCIA: A handbook for peace and conflict impact assessment (K. Bush)

Developed by Ken Bush, who introduced the term and concept of peace and conflict impact assessment (PCIA) into the development and peacebuilding lexicon in the mid-1990s, the Hands-on PCIA (HoP) seeks to provide a practical, user-friendly framework for assessing the ways in which an intervention "may affect, or has affected, the dynamics of peace or conflict in a conflict-prone region." It is designed for individuals, communities, and organizations that are working in, or planning to work in, areas affected by violent conflict (or that are at risk of becoming violent).

HoP is divided into 3 general steps: (1) Assessing the environment/analyzing the conflict; (2) Assessing how the peace and conflict environment may affect a project or initiative ('risk and opportunity assessment'); and (3) Assessing how a project or initiative may/does/has affect(ed) peace or conflict in the immediate area and beyond. Figure 5 below depicts the relationship and differences between steps 2 and 3.

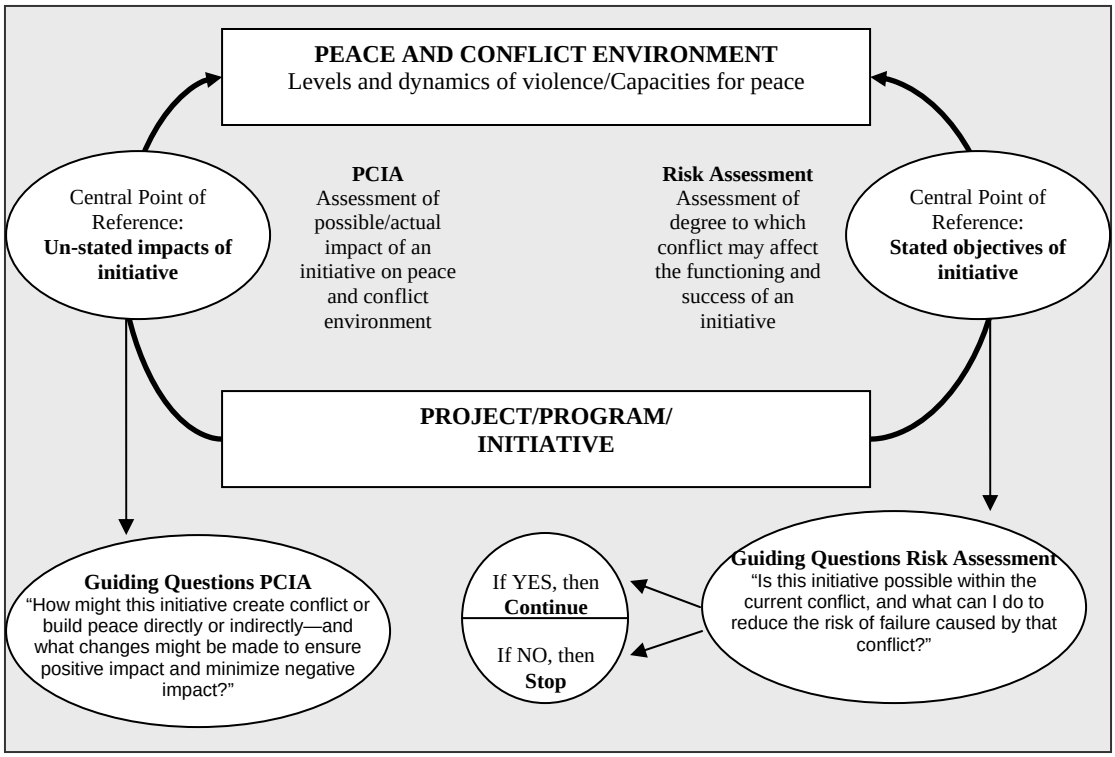


Figure 5: Comparison of Risk Assessment and Peace and Conflict Impact Assessment (adapted from K. Bush, 2003)

The framework identifies five thematic areas in which projects or initiatives may have peace and conflict impacts: conflict management capacities; militarized violence and human security, political structures and processes; economic structures and processes; and social empowerment. Under each thematic area, HoP asks a number of questions prompting users to think about the links between the project and peace/conflict.

The Handbook itself uses a "PCIA for dummies" format that includes quick references, examples, question-answer sections, illustrative tables, diagrams, etc. It also includes a number of worksheets that may be used directly in the field or for capacity-building exercises. Information can be collected from a variety of sources using a variety of methods, although emphasis is placed on involvement of local communities in analyzing and interpreting peace and conflict issues.

While HoP is presented as an assessment process that can be used by program staff at any stage of the project cycle, the author also highlights its potential role in empowering local communities to: (i) identify the real and potential peace and conflict impacts of an intervention; and (ii) suggest ways of addressing these impacts in a manner most appropriate to their context and needs.

The HoP framework is now being used as a basis for capacity building in various parts of the world. More broadly, Bush's PCIA approach has been used at the macro scale to analyze how development assistance priorities and strategies affect peace and conflict dynamics. For example, in 2000 the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) did a

peace and conflict impact scan (i.e., analysis limited to desk-based research) on five Swedish development projects in Sri Lanka. As the projects were largely recent or ongoing, there was insufficient time for peace and conflict impacts to become apparent. Rather, the PCIA process was used as an analytical programming and planning tool to flag questions/issues before moving ahead with a project, suggest possible modifications to amplify peacebuilding impacts and avoid peace-destroying impacts, and help guide the monitoring of a project. The recommendations are being used in reviewing cooperation between Sweden and Sri Lanka.

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- The categories of peace and conflict impact, as well as prompts/questions contained in each of the worksheets, can be used or adapted.

- The discussion and supporting diagrams explaining the difference between standard risk and opportunity assessments, and peace and conflict impact assessments can be adapted and used when introducing the project's methodology to local partners.

- The mapping of conflict and peace stakeholders is over-simplified (especially compared to other approaches) and does not provide a snapshot of the conflict situation, address conflict dynamics, or reveal the relationships between different peace/conflict stakeholders. The root causes of conflict are the focal point, which is fine since conflict management and peacebuilding require that root causes be addressed. But these root causes are also embedded in relationships, which are not depicted in this step.

- There is not step that requires users to "unpack" or map the intervention, which can be important in terms of systematizing and organizing information.

- The mechanisms/concepts linking the intervention with the peace/conflict map are not clear. Users jump from conducting a Risk and Opportunity Assessment to assessing the impacts of an intervention in five impact categories—a transition step (or explanation) is needed to better explain the process.

- The use of the term "Peace and Conflict Impact Assessment" can be confusing and controversial, as it encapsulates different concepts and approaches. For some, it is a general framework for evaluating the links between conflict and programming. For others PCIA is tool for post-project evaluation or a tool for screening the impacts of a conflict on a project.

- URL: http://action.web.ca/home/cpcc/en_resources.shtml?x=46859

4.5 Strategic Conflict Assessments (SCAs)

The U.K.'s DFID (Department for International Development) developed the Strategic Conflict Assessment (SCA) approach in early 2002 as a conflict analysis and planning tool. It was originally designed to help DFID staff prepare country and regional strategies but it is also applicable to individual projects and programs. It was intended as a flexible framework to be adapted as needed rather than a standardized approach. It has since been applied in a

number of different countries including Nepal, Kyrgyzstan, Nigeria, Sri Lanka and the Caucasus.

The conceptual basis for the SCA is the combined use of the following analytical lenses:

- The "political economy" approach that focuses on the political and social interests of those engaged in conflict, drawing attention to those who may benefit from the continuation of the conflict
- Analysis of the causes of conflict in terms of "greed" and "grievance"
- Combined analysis of structures and actors and how they interact with one another
- Identification of the different layers/ dimensions of the conflict (international, regional, national and local)
- Recognition of the dynamic character of conflicts, which may mean that root causes of violent conflict change and are reshaped in protracted conflicts.

The methodology for the assessment is based on the following three analytical steps:
Conflict analysis → Analysis of (international) responses → Developing strategies and options

The conflict analysis consists of investigating the structures (long-term factors underlying conflict), the actors (interests, relations, capacities, incentives) and the dynamics (triggers for increased violence, capacities for managing conflict). The analysis of (international) responses involves mapping the international actors (interests and policies, coherence, impact), development actors (focus, approaches, capacities, potential to influence) and the interactions between development interventions and conflict (impacts of conflict on development programs, and impact of development programs on conflict). The final stage—developing strategies and options involves developing common donor approaches, adjusting current activities, etc.

The information is gathered through a mix of desk study and field work (internal consultation with donor staff, stakeholder consultations, debriefing workshop with donor staff and small expert group). It is suggested that an assessment group should constitute about six local and international experts working a cumulative total of 73 days.

DFID believes the approach has improved the quality of U.K. government analysis and provided a framework within which to assess new proposals and design strategic, coherent interventions. The degree of in-country participation has varied greatly—the Nigerian case was much more participatory than the Nepali one with consequences for local "buy-in." If carried out in its entirety the approach is detailed and rather cumbersome—and the information can go out of date quite quickly. Consequently there's a call for it to be buttressed by "lighter" and more continuous analysis.

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- Although the SCA provides a very comprehensive form of conflict analysis that can be tailored to suit specific contexts and end users, it is most useful at the national level.

- We can draw from the lessons-learned in using the SCA including: defining our audience (and therefore what information can be included in the analysis); timing the analysis to coincide with a natural pause or turning point in a program cycle; using multi-disciplinary teams with a combination of external and local consultants; balancing contextual analysis and program design; and generating precise recommendations.

- URL: http://www.dfid.gov.uk/pubs/files/conflictassessmentguidance.pdf

4.6 The Drivers of Change approach (DoC)

In 2004 the Drivers of Change (DoC) approach emerged, again from the U.K.'s Department for International Development (DFID), as a way of applying political economy analysis to the development of donor strategy. The theory is that donors are reasonably good at identifying *what* needs to be done to improve the lives of the poorest in developing countries. But they are not always clear about *how* to make it happen. The DoC methodology tries to identify the political institutions, structures and agents that can act as levers to enable pro-poor change and improve the effectiveness of aid.

In essence the DoC analysis looks at the interactions between Agents (individuals and organisations pursuing particular interests), Structural features (history of state formation, natural and human resources, economic and social structures, demographic changes, regional influences etc) and Institutions (rules governing behaviour of agents—both formal and informal).

Rather than encourage a blueprint approach those conducting the analysis are encouraged to think about the dynamics of pro-poor change loosely grouped into one of six levels:

1/. *Basic country analysis* – covering the social, political, economic and institutional factors affective the dynamics and possibilities for change
2/. *Medium-term dynamics of change* – covering policy processes, in particular the incentives and capacities of agents operating within institutions
3/. *Role of external forces* – including the intentional and unintentional actions of donors
4/. *Link between change and poverty reduction* – covering how change is expected to affect poverty and on what time-scale
5/. *Operational implications* – covering how to translate understanding into strategies and actions
6/. *How we work* – covering DFID's organizational incentives

DFID country offices individually carry out the analysis and their methodology varies widely. Typically the DoC approach is an in-house assessment particularly used in the design phase of development interventions designed to promote "good" governance. Since inception fairly detailed DoC studies have been carried out in 20 countries[11] to identify the opportunities, incentives and blockages to pro-poor change in a given country.

[11] Eg. Angola, Bangladesh, Bolivia, Cambodia, Georgia, Kenya, Kyrgyzstan, Malawi, Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Uganda, Zambia

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- DoC studies tend to be used to promote internal learning rather than dialogue with external stakeholders. According to one assessment, the studies are beginning to influence donor policy by emphasizing the importance of political factors in shaping development outcomes, and in highlighting political and institutional issues in program design across sectors.

- However, the process seems to vary in quality and output—and relies on the institutional knowledge and motivation of one or two key players in each country office.

- URLs: http://www.grc-exchange.org/docs/doc59.pdf and http://www.grc-exchange.org/docs/doc84.pdf

4.7 Conflict Analysis Framework (M. Warner)

Finally, focusing specifically on conservation interventions, the Conflict Analysis Framework was developed by Michael Warner to facilitate community participation in conservation / protected areas planning. It draws from conflict resolution and environmental impact assessment to provide a systematic, participatory analysis of local resource use. The Framework was developed and piloted in Zambia in 1995.

The overall goal of the Framework is to summarize conflicts between the local and external uses of natural resources. Information is gathered through consultations with internal stakeholders (i.e., local residents) using Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques, as well as through assessments of external stakeholders (conservation authorities, NGOs, private business). In fact, it is recommended that the PRA fieldwork be preceded with a separate institutional stakeholder assessment that identifies—from an outsider's perspective—the conservation, economic and political forces acting upon the resource base of local people.

Table 2. Extract from a summary matrix generated in the Zambia pilot studies

Community Activities	Community Resources	Conservation Conflicts	Community-Perceived conflicts/ Concerns	Primary Resource Stakeholders					
				Men			Women		
				Mag.*	Resol'n**	Imp.***	Mag.	Resol'n	Imp.
Shifting Cultivation	Land with Adequate Regrowth	Elephant habitat loss	Distance/ time	25%	Prohibitive	Med	25%	Prohibitive	Med
	Logs for charcoal	Elephant habitat loss	Loss of regenerative potential of forest	50%	Prohibitive	High	50%	Prohibitive	High
Fishing	Fish stocks	Loss of food sources for endangered bird species	Progressively reduced catches & size of fish	50%	Internal	Med	50%	Internal	Med
Hunting	Buffalo and other game species	Declining game populations	Hunting restrictions	80%	External	Med	--	--	--

* Mag = Magnitude, or proportion of a resource or service lost/absent as a result of the conflict
** Resol'n = Resolution, options for resolving perceived resource conflicts (Internal, External, Prohibitive)
*** Imp = Importance, or the significance of a conflict/concern to livelihood security or welfare

Table 2 shows an extract from one of the summary matrices generated in the Zambia pilot studies. The first column summarizes the principal livelihood activities of local people, while the second column identifies those natural resources important to each livelihood activity. This information can be gathered using PRA techniques such as historical profiles, time trends, transects, and village resource maps. Results of the external assessment are entered into the third column, and reflect the priorities of stakeholders such as conservation authorities and NGOs. The fourth column shows not only community-perceived conflicts but also their concerns—i.e., resource issues that do not cause direct conflict with external stakeholders but are seen as important by local people. Addressing these in conservation interventions may increase the chances of success. The final columns help to prioritize the community's resource conflicts and concerns in terms of magnitude and importance, and list options for resolving their perceived resource conflicts.

Clearly, the CAF is designed to address the local conservation-related conflicts described in section 2.3, rather than those linked to regional-scale conflict. This does not discount its potential utility in areas prone to or affected by violence. It may be embedded in a broader conflict analysis, which would be useful in identifying how local conservation conflicts are linked to the more macro causes of conflict in the Albertine Rift.

Specific notes relating to the MacArthur Project:

- The CAF may provide a starting point for understanding and summarizing local conservation-related conflicts in the region

- The process for prioritizing conflicts and concerns may be useful in devising our own project methodology

- The combination of an external stakeholder assessment and internal, PRA-based assessments would allow for a more balanced representation of the conservation-conflict scenario

- However, it is limited in its analytical scope to localized conflicts over resource access, and does not involve a systematic assessment of a conservation intervention—i.e., project "mapping," which is important if we want to closely examine the links between an intervention and its context.

5. The Proposed Project: Beyond tools, drawing from different frameworks and targeting conservation

The previous section outlined a number of different analytical frameworks that vary in terms of the specific information they seek and the way in which they ask questions. This project draws on these frameworks to design an appropriate approach to assessing conservation interventions in the Albertine Rift. The resulting methodology will inevitably be something of a trade-off between the best possible methodology and the resources, time constraints and capacities of the project personnel.

Tools associated with increasing conflict-sensitivity—whether in the form of data collection methodologies, analysis guidelines, or decision-support exercises—must be open and flexible, where they can be "adapted, localized, and developed as the context and purpose demands."[12] While tools are important for introducing and promoting conflict-sensitivity, they must not cloud the significance of the *process*.

Applying any tool or set of tools for the purpose of integrating conflict sensitivity into policies and operations will only be successful if accompanied by an increased awareness and understanding of why conflict sensitivity is relevant and important, local ownership of the evaluation process, increased local capacity to identify and address peace and conflict impacts of interventions, and a genuine commitment to learn and adapt.

The MacArthur project will therefore draw from the frameworks described above, using a range of tools for designing and conducting conflict-sensitivity analyses of conservation interventions in the Albertine Rift, and use this process as a basis for building awareness of,

[12] Barbolet, Adam, Rachel Goldwyn, Hesta Groenewald and Andrew Sheriff. 2005. The utility and dilemmas of conflict sensitivity. *New Trends in Peace and Conflict Impact Assessment (PCIA)*. Berghof Research Center for Constructive Conflict Management.

capacity for and commitment to conflict-sensitive conservation. The exact data collection and analysis process will depend on the conservation intervention being examined, but will follow the general steps laid out in many of the frameworks:

1. **Analyze the conflict situation**: Research team members will use a combination of desk-based research, stakeholder consultations and community meetings to analyze the profile, actors, causes and dynamics of the conflict affecting the project site.

   ➢ This step will draw from the conflict analysis section of the Resource Pack, as well as the Do No Harm framework used by CARE Uganda and the Drivers of Change approach developed by DFID.

2. **Review the conservation intervention**: Researchers will work with managers and staff at the project sites to identify and describe the purpose, objectives, location, timing, beneficiaries, personnel, operational partners, physical and financial resources associated with the conservation intervention

   ➢ This step will draw from the Do No Harm approach's questions for "analyzing the assistance program" (DNH Step 4), and the Resource Pack's project cycle modules (modules 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3).

3. **Evaluate the interaction between the conservation interventions and the conflict:** Relying on consultations with local conservation managers and staff, researchers will examine how the conflict has affected the design, implementation and management of conservation activities, as well as any measures that have been taken to address these impacts.

   Similarly, research will be undertaken to identify how different aspects of conservation projects may contribute to conflict and/or peacebuilding in the area—i.e., do they address some of the root causes of conflict, such as poor governance and corruption, lack of socio-economic opportunities, inequitable access to natural resources, and lack of participation?

   ➢ Again, this step will draw from many of the frameworks described above. For example, attention may be paid to "dividers" and "connectors" as well as "resource transfers" and "implicit ethical messages" associated with interventions (DNH Steps 2–5); while peace and conflict impacts may be examined in the three rights categories identified by CARE or the five thematic areas identified by Bush (HoP Step 3).

4. **Prepare recommendations on how to plan, implement and evaluate conflict-sensitive conservation interventions:** Based on the analyses of the links between conservation projects and conflict, researchers will work with partners to develop guidelines on how to plan, implement and evaluate conflict-sensitive conservation projects.

- Project Team members will draw from existing PCIA studies and reports—including those described above—to see how recommendations and guidelines have been structured.

Each of these steps also allude to the **process** that will be involved in collecting the necessary information—that is, the specific techniques such as workshops, consultations and PRA practices. Thus, while there is no pre-existing unified methodology that will meet all of the needs of the proposed projects, there are a number of frameworks that are evolving and appropriate to studying peace and conflict impacts in the Albertine Rift region. As the field continues to grow, experiences from specific regions and targeted sectors—such as conservation in the Albertine Rift—will be important in raising awareness and demonstrating the value of conflict-sensitive approaches.

Given IISD's current work on peace and conflict impacts of conservation in the Great Lakes region of Africa and its previous experience in developing and applying conflict-sensitive methodologies, IISD is well positioned to lead an initiative that will generate lessons from the Albertine Rift and in the field of conservation, and contribute to the overall understanding of how best to promote—and achieve—sustainable development in conflict-prone regions.