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1 **The influence of multilevel innovation platforms on continuing utilisation of**
2 **smallholders' livestock feeding practices**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Agricultural research for development (AR4D) agencies in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)
14 have increasingly turned to innovation platforms to enhance the impact of smallholder
15 initiatives beyond program completion. Linking community-level IPs with IPs established at
16 higher levels has been suggested as a strategy for addressing institutional barriers through
17 linking actions across levels to create a conducive environment for innovation and achieve
18 durable impacts. This research aims to understand the activities, actions or arrangements that
19 were mediated by a multilevel set of IPs to sustain the use of livestock feeding practices in the
20 Ethiopian Highlands. Two years after the multilevel IPs had been phased out data was collected
21 to ascertain if innovation outcomes had been sustained. The study identified specific IP
22 activities, actions and arrangements that constrained or enabled sustained use of the livestock
23 innovations. The multilevel IPs and their activities were able to enhance technical changes
24 around feed innovations that initiated a transition towards a sustainable feed system. Results
25 showed that the sustained use of livestock feed innovation outcomes achieved depends on
26 different factors and varied largely depending on how the feed innovations were tailored to the
27 farmers' production objectives. Positive outcomes were identified for commercial-oriented
28 farmers, especially where the feed innovations had been tailored to specific enterprises based
29 on their needs for enhanced productivity, such as improved dairy farming. Conversely, for the
30 majority of the subsistence-oriented farmers sustained use of some technical innovations was
31 constrained by inadequate consideration of the subsistence farmers' emerging needs where
32 there was uncertain access to forage seeds and affordable interlinked input services (breeding,
33 financial, and veterinary). The study further discussed how livestock feed system transition
34 enabled in case of commercially-oriented farmers and constrained in case of subsistence-
35 oriented farmers and put a way forward in terms of mechanisms and strategies to inform similar
36 future interventions that facilitate a context-specific combination of technological,
37 organisational and institutional innovations necessary to make a difference. Finally, the study
38 suggested a future research area could focus on understanding the role of multilevel IPs in
39 dealing with multiple-scale demands across different sectors (such as cop-livestock-tree mixed
40 farming systems) with strategies focusing on a specific theme (such as livestock value chain).

41 **Introduction**

42 Agricultural research for development (AR4D) agencies in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have
43 increasingly turned to innovation platforms to enhance the impact of smallholder initiatives
44 beyond program completion. Homann-Kee Tui et al. (2013) define Innovation Platforms (IPs)
45 as “spaces for learning, action and change where groups of individuals (who often represent
46 organisations) with different backgrounds, expertise and interests come together to diagnose
47 problems, identify opportunities and find ways to achieve their goals”. IPs can be established
48 at single or multiple levels and are designed to foster innovation through deliberate facilitation
49 of interactions among various stakeholders – farmers, traders, food processors, researchers, and
50 government officials – who often depend on each other (Hall et al., 2006; Nederlof et al., 2011).

51 The premise that IPs can enhance and sustain the impact of agricultural innovations
52 relates to facilitation of a demand-driven and system-oriented approach to tailoring innovation
53 to specific needs of farmers (Schut et al., 2016). Hounkonnou et al. (2012) indicated that in
54 addition to technological innovations, institutional changes are necessary conditions to bring
55 about sustained improvements in agriculture in SSA and identified IPs as a promising
56 innovation systems approach to achieve such changes. They state that “...smallholders
57 themselves have insufficient power to change rules, norms, procedures, and laws, and to ‘pull
58 down’ the provision of interlinked services and access to value chains – in brief, the institutions
59 – that determine their opportunities” (p. 76).

60 At times, IPs are established at a single level and focus on addressing farm-level
61 technical problems; therefore, their focus on the interlinked institutional changes required
62 beyond the farm level to create opportunities for sustaining and scaling farm-level innovations
63 is limited (Hall et al., 2016). The lack of focus on the institutional aspects of innovation has
64 been traced mainly to the limited involvement of higher-level policymakers and value chain
65 actors in IPs and poor alignment of IP activities with other relevant public or private initiatives
66 (Lamers et al., 2017; Totin et al., 2020). The use of a multilevel system of IPs has been
67 recognised as a positive step towards system-oriented approach to engaging higher-level
68 decision-makers and other relevant actors (Nederlof et al., 2011; Schut et al., 2016), and linking
69 actions across levels (Tucker et al., 2013). Such structures (hereafter referred to as 'multilevel
70 IPs') involve the IPs that are established at the farmers’ level being linked with the IPs created
71 at higher levels (district and national), where a more strategic focus can be achieved (Lema et
72 al., 2021). Through their ability to connect various actors with different skills and competencies
73 from across different levels, multilevel IPs have the potential to engage with the multiple

74 actions required to address the interlinked barriers to innovation and bring both technical and
75 system-level change (Kilelu et al., 2013; Lamers et al., 2017).

76 Often IPs are implemented through donor-supported projects operating according to
77 short-term program cycles. Once the facilitated interactions and input support provided through
78 the IPs, which might serve as incentives to adopt technologies, are withdrawn, there are critical
79 challenges in scaling out the innovations beyond the intervention sites or even sustaining the
80 innovations within the intervention sites. Most studies of IP effectiveness are primarily
81 undertaken during the project lifetime and have thus concentrated on analysing how the
82 innovation processes and facilitation occurring within the IPs foster technological and
83 institutional innovations within this lifetime (Ayele et al., 2012; Davies et al., 2018;
84 Hounkonnou et al., 2018; Kilelu et al., 2013). This raises an interesting question about farmers’
85 continued use of innovations after the support and facilitation provided through the IPs has
86 ceased. For example, a post-intervention impact study in Ghana and Benin identified that
87 technological and institutional innovations that depend on artificial conditions created by short-
88 term research project support are likely to be discontinued once a project has ceased (Sterk et
89 al., 2013). Thus, post-intervention impact studies are important to understand whether and how
90 the innovations achieved specifically through multilevel IPs have been sustained during the
91 post-intervention period.

92 To understand the activities of a multilevel IP on enabling or constraining farmers’
93 sustained use of livestock innovations a case study of the Africa RISING Ethiopian Highlands
94 Phase I Project, which established multilevel IPs and was active from 2011 to 2016, was
95 chosen. The research has two aims: (a) to develop an in-depth understanding of the activities,
96 actions or arrangements that affect the sustained use of innovations after the multilevel IP was
97 phased out, and (b) to examine how the multilevel IP structure influenced those activities,
98 actions or arrangements beyond the active phase of the IPs. By identifying the key enabling
99 and constraining activities, actions or arrangements, this paper seeks to reflect on past
100 experiences to optimise the outcomes of IPs in the future towards sustaining impacts that last
101 beyond the initial short-term project period.

102 **Conceptual Framework**

103 Approaches to agricultural innovation have progressively co-evolved from the linear transfer
104 of technology approach towards an inclusive and system-oriented approach (For an overview
105 see Klerkx et al., 2012). These approaches vary according to the actor’s understanding of how

106 innovations emerge and who plays what role in this process. The linear approach, which
107 remains the dominant approach in SSA largely focuses on farm-level technical components of
108 innovations (Hounkonnou et al., 2012). It considers the generation of technologies, transfer
109 and utilisation as three separate activities performed by three groups of actors where
110 technologies are generated by researchers and transferred to farmers through extension agents
111 (Chambers and Jiggins, 1987). Acknowledgement that many actors play an active role in
112 agricultural innovation, and that innovation processes are dynamic and complex has led
113 scholars to progressively develop more inclusive and system-oriented approaches to innovation
114 (Klerkx et al., 2012).

115 To understand and facilitate agricultural innovation the concept of Agricultural
116 Innovation System (AIS) has gained currency as an inclusive and system-oriented approach to
117 innovation (Hounkonnou et al., 2012). AIS is defined as “a network of organisations,
118 enterprises, and individuals focused on bringing new products, new processes, and new forms
119 of organisation into economic use, together with the institutions and policies that affect the way
120 different agents interact, share, access, exchange and use knowledge” (Hall et al., 2006: vi-vii).
121 AIS has shifted the focus from “technology” to “innovation” and included not only farm-level
122 technological components but also above farm-level organisational and institutional
123 components that are critical for situating the innovations into economic use. According to
124 Leeuwis and Van den Ban (2004), the technological component of innovation refers to new
125 “hardware” such as farm-level technical components including fertiliser, seed, and planter,
126 whereas organisational component or “orgware” refers to new ways of organising groups,
127 production and/or consumption and finally institutional components or “software” refers to
128 new or revised institutional set-ups, partnerships and policies.

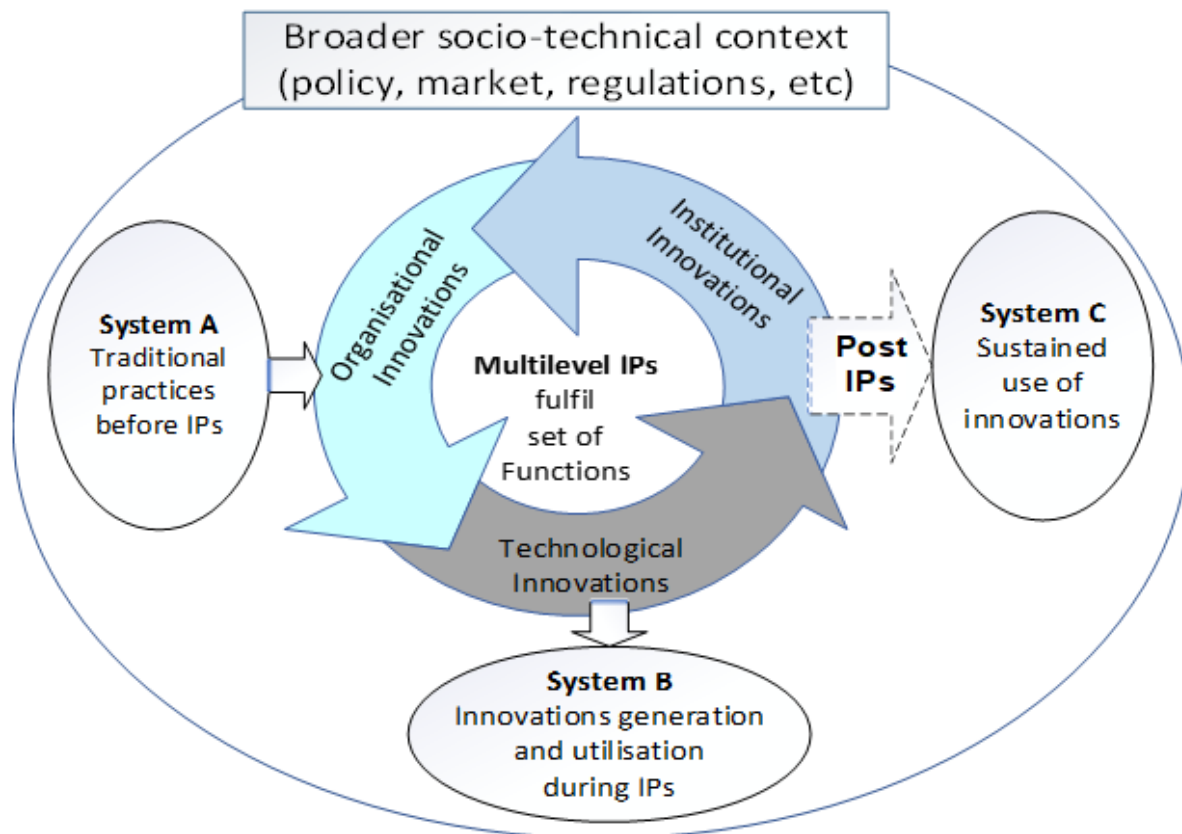
129 The AIS concept emphasises the need to foster conducive innovation environments
130 where researchers, policymakers, producers, end-users and entrepreneurs can mobilise their
131 collective knowledge towards effective innovation. To facilitate such arrangements in pursuit
132 of operationalising the concept of AIS, IPs have been widely applied as tools to foster
133 interactions between actors to jointly solve interlinked agricultural problems from a system
134 perspective (Klerkx et al., 2012). IPs have been conceptualised as intermediate structures that
135 fulfil a set of functions to bring system-level changes that enable farmers to benefit from
136 innovation and transition towards an improved system (Hounkonnou et al., 2018; Kilelu et al.,
137 2013; Lema et al., 2021). Through engaging a diverse set of actors, fostering linkages and

138 cooperation, and stimulating learning and mobilising resources, IPs aim to foster
139 complementary technological, organisational and institutional innovations (Schut et al., 2016).

140 In fostering such a mix of innovations across multiple levels the use of multi-level IPs
141 has been found to be promising. Multilevel IPs enable relevant actors including higher-level
142 decision-makers, farmers and other local actors to closely work together in experimenting with
143 socio-technical and institutional innovations, and thereby generate local evidence that can be
144 used to negotiate for institutional and policy change (Nederlof et al., 2011). These innovations
145 can occur at the farm level as well as across different administrative levels and are shaped
146 through facilitated processes that embrace reflexive learning and adaptive management (Kilelu
147 et al., 2013).

148 Evidence shows that IPs can progressively adapt and tailor innovation to the specific
149 socio-economic, biophysical and institutional context of smallholders (Hounkonnou et al.,
150 2018). The outcomes that IPs can achieve are not easily predicted (Hounkonnou et al., 2018)
151 and they may not quickly adapt to emerging issues as this is also affected by different factors
152 outside IPs (Kilelu et al., 2013). Thus, IP activities that strengthen feedback and learning to
153 adapt and shape the direction of the innovation to emerging issues are important for enhancing
154 the performance of IPs towards achieving tangible innovation outcomes that might be sustained
155 beyond the project period.

156 Based on the above definitions and concepts of AIS, innovation and IPs we have drawn
157 a conceptual framework (Figure 1) to understand how IPs foster different components of
158 innovations during their operation and their effect on the sustained use of innovation beyond
159 their lifetime. IPs facilitate change from System A (before IPs) to System B (during IPs in
160 operation where farmers receive support to test and adopt new practices). System C refers to
161 post-intervention where farmers may (dis)continue the use of innovations they adopted during
162 the support provided through the IPs.



163 Figure 1. Conceptual framework – own elaboration based on (Hall et al., 2006; Leeuwis and Van den Ban, 2004;
 164 Nederlof et al., 2011).

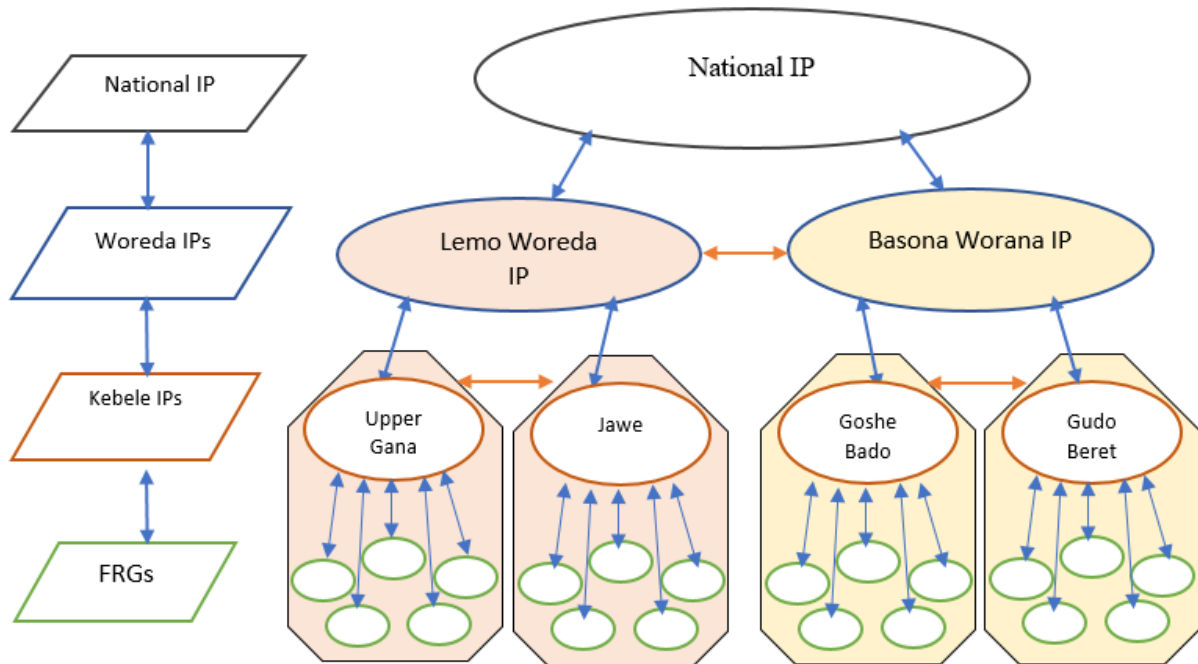
165 **Case study background and research design**

166 **Case study background**

167 *Africa RISING and its multilevel IPs*

168 First phase of Africa RISING (Ethiopia) was a project of the International Livestock Research
 169 Institute (ILRI) that aimed to address the complex challenges experienced by crop-livestock
 170 farmers in the Ethiopian Highlands in the efficient management of their farm resources and
 171 dealing with institutional factors that cut across value chains. The project background and the
 172 multilevel IP composition are fully described in Lema et al. (2021). The project had two phases.
 173 During the first phase (2011–2016), the project identified, adapted, validated, and deployed
 174 innovative farming technologies for sustainable intensification in four regions of Ethiopia. In
 175 its second phase (2016–2021), the project aimed to scale out the innovations validated in Phase
 176 I. During its first phase of operation, Africa RISING established multilevel IPs to facilitate the
 177 integration and coordination of efforts of various partners across three administrative levels.

178 The administrative levels were informed by the Ethiopian administrative government structure:
 179 national (federal), woreda (district), and kebele (lowest administrative unit equivalent to the



180 neighbourhood) (Figure 2).

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Figure 2: Schematic presentation of the multilevel IPs studied

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It illustrates levels, vertical and horizontal linkages, and information flows between and across levels as indicated by the arrows (FRGs – Farmers Research Groups) (Lema et al., 2021).

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The IPs are interlinked through representatives to exchange knowledge and information across levels during key learning events such as regular IP meetings, field days, and exchange visits. The lowest level of the multilevel IP structure was the FRGs where each FRG such as “tree lucerne FRG” comprised farmers who had similar issues/needs and tested one specific new technology on their farms and demonstrated these to other farmers. Kebele level IPs include men and women farmers representing each FRG and government department representatives including kebele administrators, livestock and crop development agents (DAs). DAs are frontline public extension workers in the kebeles who are assigned to promote the adoption of improved agricultural practices and inputs and provide close technical support to farmers. Kebele IPs were established to technically support and facilitate knowledge sharing and scaling among and beyond FRGs. Each of the two woredas’ administrative centres shared the same capital towns with that of the encompassing zone, offering a unique opportunity for the woreda-level IPs to engage diverse actors representing key government organisations at the zone level, including regional universities, regional research centres, NGOs, and agricultural

200 offices such as crop, livestock, water and other sectors. The national IP members were mainly
 201 representatives of the research partners mainly CGIAR¹ centres that were leading the
 202 implementation of Africa RISING research projects and government research organisations
 203 from national and regional levels who were involved as implementing partners with CGIAR
 204 centres.

205 As illustrated in Figure 2, this research focused on four kebeles, two in the Lemo
 206 woreda located in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People Region (SNNPR) region,
 207 and two in the Basona Worana woreda located in Amhara region. Of the two research kebeles
 208 in each woreda, Africa RISING ensured that one of the kebeles selected had better access to
 209 the market than the other kebele for comparison. The farmers in both woredas operate within
 210 the Ethiopian highlands mixed crop-livestock farming system context, but there are some
 211 differences in land use, population density characteristics and biophysical conditions (See
 212 Table 1). For example, farmers in Lemo woreda have smaller average farm size, lower
 213 proportion of grazing lands and farms at relatively lower elevation range (thus lower incidence
 214 of frost) compared with farmers in Basona Worena woreda.

215

216 **Table 1.** Land use and population characteristics of *woreda* study locations

Land use and population characteristics	Basona Worena woreda	Lemo woreda
<i>Land area (km²)</i>	1,399	354
<i>Elevation range (masl)</i>	1,980 – 3,000	1,501 – 2,500
<i>Main agro-ecology zone (%)</i>	Highland (<i>Dega</i>)	Midland (<i>Weyna Dega</i>)
<i>Average Annual rainfall (mm/yr.)</i>	1,100	1,100
<i>Minimum - maximum temperature (°C)</i>	6 - 20	15 - 20
<i>Total population in 2007</i>	120,930	118,594
<i>Percentage of population in rural areas (%)</i>	95	92
<i>Population density (km²)</i>	100.1	437.1
<i>Land use (%): land under cultivation</i>	47	86
<i>Grazing land %</i>	13.1	4.2
<i>Forest, shrubs and bushland %</i>	8.5	6.2
<i>Other land %</i>	31.1	3.6
<i>Average farm size (ha)</i>	1.7	1.2
<i>Major soil type</i>	Cambisols, Vertisols	Nitisols, Cambisols
<i>Major crops</i>	wheat, barley, faba bean, <i>teff</i> , oat and pea	wheat, faba bean, <i>Enset</i> (<i>Enset ventricosum</i>), oat, coffee, pea and fruits
<i>Major livestock enterprises</i>	cattle, sheep, horse, donkey and poultry	cattle, sheep, donkey and poultry

217 **Sources:** Population data are from CSA (2007); other data *woreda* reports

¹ CGIAR - Consultative Group of International Agricultural Research

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219 *Rationale for the focus on livestock innovations*

220 This study narrowed its focus to investigating the innovation processes associated with
221 livestock systems for two main reasons. First, a broad focus on both crop and livestock systems
222 would have spread research resources too thinly to enable the depth of analysis needed to
223 inform policy and practice usefully. Second, livestock systems have received limited attention
224 in Ethiopia from research and development actors, despite livestock productivity remaining
225 low and domestic demand for livestock products expanding (Negassa et al., 2012). This is
226 despite Ethiopia having the largest livestock (mainly cattle) population in Africa with strong
227 potential to contribute to its economy (Shapiro et al., 2017).

228 Livestock systems in Ethiopia mainly comprise a mixed crop-livestock production
229 system in the highlands and a pastoral production system in the lowlands. The sector
230 underperforms compared with Kenya and other East African countries with similar potential
231 (Negassa et al., 2012). In the highlands, livestock provides multiple benefits: draft power,
232 animal source foods, transport, assets for security, and income sources. According to Negassa
233 et al. (2012), highland farmers primarily keep cattle for draft power (about 45%) and dairy for
234 domestic consumption (about 25%), with commercial sales of dairy products and meat being
235 of secondary economic significance. Despite the increasing domestic demand for livestock
236 products presenting a new opportunity for farmers, their ability to benefit from this opportunity
237 is constrained by interrelated productivity challenges related to feeding, animal health, and
238 breeding (Shapiro et al., 2015). These farmers are mainly supported by state-driven and crop-
239 dominated agricultural development strategies (Asresie et al., 2015), which are largely
240 concerned with increasing the productivity of cereal staple crops (Shapiro et al., 2017).
241 Compared to the crop sector, the livestock sector has received limited attention from successive
242 Ethiopian governments, and its productivity in terms of meat and milk output remains very low
243 (Negassa et al., 2012). Livestock feed scarcity is the major national issue where the majority
244 of the farmers in Ethiopian highlands largely depend on low quality crop residue to feed their
245 livestock. The high cost and low availability of good quality feed from forage and fodder is
246 one of the major constraints to increasing productivity of livestock (Shapiro et al., 2015).

247 The focus of the multilevel IPs in respect of livestock systems was on feed scarcity, as
248 this issue was identified as the main issues through diagnosis studies conducted by the national
249 platforms (For more details see Lema et al., 2021). Table 2 presents the livestock technological
250 options introduced by the multilevel IPs to reduce feed loss and enhance the availability of

251 quality feed. Our study aimed to understand their sustained utilisation two years after the
252 multilevel IPs ceased to function.

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Table 2: Livestock technologies introduced through the multilevel IPs in the study woredas

<i>Options to address livestock feed scarcity</i>	<i>Livestock feed technologies</i>	<i>Number of farmers in FRGs</i>	
		Lemo	Basona Worana
<i>Facilities to reduce feed losses and improve feed quality</i>	Improved livestock feed storage shed	10	14
	Improved cattle feed trough	6	9
<i>Cultivated forages to increase quality feed biomass</i>	Oat-vetch mixture (rain-fed)	35	42
	Tree lucerne	60	56
	Sweet lupin and fodder beet	12	8
	Faba bean-forage intercrop	64	20
	Oat-vetch mixture (irrigated) for sheep fattening	7	0

256

Source: Author's own compilation based on interviews and review of project documents

257 Case study methods

258 To explore directly what IP activities, actions and arrangements account for the sustained use
 259 of innovations with participating farmers and other members of the multilevel IPs and provide
 260 in-depth insights, a case study research method was used that involved multiple evidence
 261 sources that were interrogated using a range of methods (Yin, 2013). Africa RISING was
 262 selected for this study due to its multilevel IP structure and its significance to focus on various
 263 technologies introduced to improve the livestock system, as discussed in the previous section.
 264 The University of New England (HE18-220) and ILRI (ILRI-IREC2018-19) granted human
 265 research ethics approval for this research.

266 In 2018, 48 key informant interviews (KIIs) and four focus group discussions (FGDs)
 267 were conducted for this study (Table 3). At the time of data collection, two years had elapsed
 268 since the multilevel IPs had ended in 2016. This time gap allowed assessment of the degree to
 269 which innovation outcomes had been sustained post-intervention. Three criteria were used to
 270 recruit participants who had been members of the multilevel IP: (1) level of IP membership
 271 (FRG/kebele, woreda, or national), (2) type of stakeholder group they represented (farmers,
 272 researchers, university, government, or NGOs), and (3) a degree of engagement in livestock-
 273 related IP activities (all high). Concerning criterion 3, farmers as FRG members were only
 274 considered for selection if they had adopted two or more of the introduced livestock
 275 technologies listed in Table 2. Each of the KIIs and FGDs took around one to two hours to
 276 complete. They were audio-recorded and carefully transcribed from the native dialect into
 277 English.

278

279 Table 3: Data collection methods, sample size, and types of data gathered

Data collection methods (Total)	Sample size per IP (number of participants)			Data gathered
	National IP	Woreda IPs	Kebele IPs /FRGs	
48 KIIs with national, woreda, and kebele IPs and FRG members representing researchers, universities, government, NGOs, and farmers.	5	15	28*	Individual IP members' views and their experiences with the IPs, their participation and roles in events and on-farm activities, incentives, outcomes attained, and issues faced in sustaining the outcomes.
2 FGDs with woreda IP members (one per woreda IP with 6–7 participants each).	N/A	2	N/A	Collective view on outcomes obtained, their roles in sustaining the outcomes, woreda-specific issues, support available, the effect of multilevel IPs, and lessons learnt to sustain outcomes.
4 FGDs with FRGs (one per kebele with 6–8 farmers each)	N/A	N/A	4	Collective farmers' views on their participation in multilevel IPs, the outcomes they obtained, and issues they experience in sustaining the feed innovations.

280 *23 farmers and five DAs

281 Interview and focus group discussion transcripts were coded and analysed using qualitative
 282 data analysis software QSR International's NVivo® version 12 followed the key steps to code
 283 and identify themes based on data, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). Accordingly,
 284 transcripts were coded in a step-wise process to actively identify and examine themes in context
 285 and according to the study's research questions. Following an iterative process of multiple
 286 rounds of coding to themes and critically reflecting on these themes, they were finalised. The
 287 analysis categorised the themes that affected the sustained use of the technological innovations
 288 through multilevel IP interventions. Under each of these, the particular themes, which
 289 sometimes overlapped, were identified as either enabling or constraining activities, actions or
 290 arrangements concerning sustained use of the feed innovations two years after the support of
 291 the multilevel IPs ended. The final selection of themes presented was based on the strength of
 292 coding from the KII and FGD. Where there was minimal coding, these themes were not
 293 considered further in the analysis. Using NVivo software matrix query, a comparative analysis
 294 between sites, stakeholder groups, and across levels was undertaken to examine the variation
 295 in subthemes.

296 Results

297 The extent of farmers' adoption of farm-level technological components of livestock

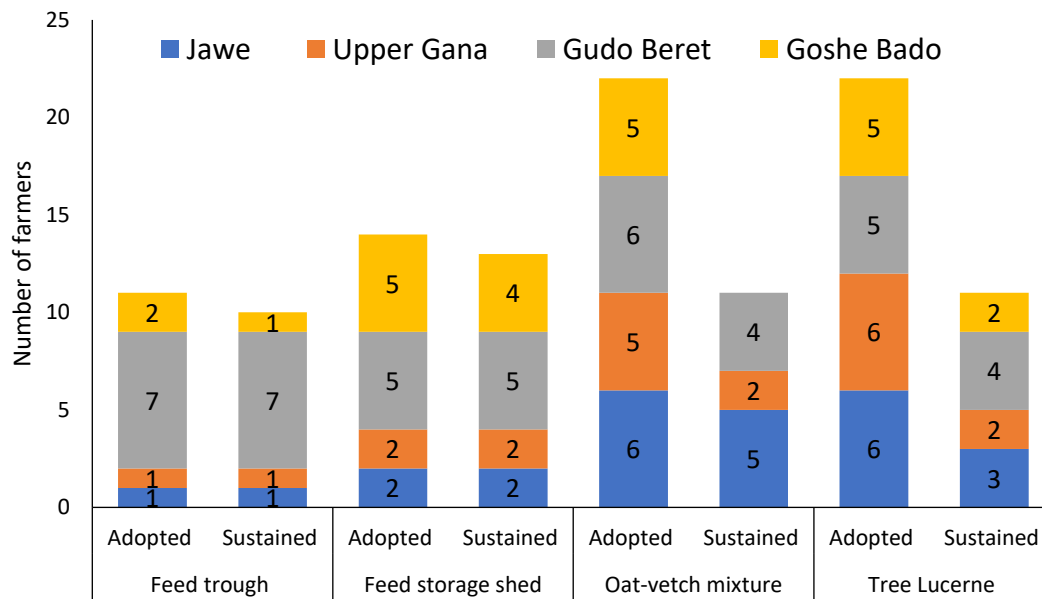
298 innovation and their level of sustained use varied depending on the technology and the kebele
299 in which it was applied (Figure 3). Figure 3 **Error! Reference source not found.** compares the
300 number of farmers who adopted while the IPs remained in operation with the number who had
301 sustained adoption two years after the IPs ceased. Four technologies which are feed trough,
302 feed storage shed, oat-vetch mixture and tree lucerne were used for this analysis as these were
303 identified by Africa RISING in Phase 1 as being the “farmer-preferred” livestock technologies
304 to be widely scaled out to other woredas during Phase 2 (2017–2021). Feed trough and feed
305 storage shed technologies were structures that were durable once constructed. However, they
306 were not necessarily used as intended, and other structures were observed worn and in
307 disrepair. These structures were costly and initially adopted by fewer farmers compared to the
308 technologies of growing oat-vetch and tree lucerne, even though most of the costs of these
309 structures were covered by Africa RISING. However, oat-vetch and tree lucerne were the least
310 sustained technologies when compared to the initial adoption because they require farmers to
311 annually apply inputs and allocate land (Figure 3). Further detail of the findings that identified
312 activities, actions and arrangements of the multilevel IP that enabled or constrained the
313 sustained use of the feed technologies through thematic analysis are presented below.

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Feed technologies adopted versus sustained

318 *Figure 3: Comparing initial adoption versus sustained use of feed innovations per kebele (23 FRG members*
 319 *interviewed and data examine uptake at kebele level)*

320 **(a) Enhancing farmers’ technical skills in feed innovation**

321 The data indicated that due to the farmer-centric learning activities facilitated through the
 322 multilevel IP there were significant changes in farmers’ know-how about improved livestock
 323 feed systems that enabled sustained use of feed technologies. The outcome related to farmers’
 324 improved technical knowledge was the most significant outcome attained through the
 325 multilevel IPs learning activities facilitated as perceived by the stakeholders and farmers
 326 interviewed. The learning and knowledge exchanges were facilitated both vertically across the
 327 levels and horizontally between same-level IPs and beyond. These outcomes are related to
 328 three areas: knowledge of the feed innovations, forage seed production and dairy value chain
 329 knowledge through knowledge exchange visits to advanced dairy farmers in neighbouring
 330 kebeles.

331 Firstly, farmers improved their technical know-how to produce, manage using
 332 improved feed storage sheds, and use the new feed innovations using improved feed troughs,
 333 thus enhancing productivity and efficient utilisation of the feed innovations with existing feed
 334 resources. According to all the woreda stakeholder groups interviewed, previous attempts to
 335 introduce feed technologies had achieved limited success, not because of a lack of
 336 technologies, but rather because of a lack of the embedded “know-how” to use those
 337 technologies effectively. For example, in Basona Worana, the stakeholders indicated that

338 despite annual government distribution of millions of tree lucerne seedlings to farmers over the
339 last 30 years to establish tree lucerne on soil bunds², farmers lacked basic knowledge on how
340 to effectively plant, manage and utilise tree lucerne for livestock feed and other uses. Before
341 the multilevel IP interventions, farmers in Gudo Beret kebele complained about the already
342 established tree lucerne trees on soil bunds were unutilised that grew too tall and attracted birds
343 that destroyed their crops. The multilevel IP structure addressed the technical knowledge
344 problems related to tree lucerne utilisation for feed and other multiple uses by bringing together
345 the diverse capabilities at the farm level and through to the national level using IP regular
346 meetings and training linked to on-farm trials and field days. On-farm demonstrations were
347 held where farmers were trained on planting, harvesting, storing and mixing tree lucerne
348 foliage both as a green or dry fodder with crop residues to feed and nourish their livestock.
349 During field days, the multiple benefits of tree lucerne were demonstrated to farmers, and
350 information was provided on its high nutritional value, its use as a green fodder during the dry
351 season, its value for bee feeding, and the possibility of using the stems to make farm tools.
352 Almost all farmers across the study sites reported improved technical knowledge to produce,
353 manage and effectively utilise both the newly introduced and existing (crop residue) feed
354 resources.

355 Secondly, the national-level IP researchers' deliberate integration of training on forage
356 seed production techniques addressed the lack of forage seed supply for interested farmers. It
357 directly enabled farmers to retain seed after harvesting so they could continue to produce
358 improved forage crops independently. As stated by one IP member, who was a university
359 representative on the Lemo woreda IP:

360 *The lack of private or public forage seed sources was the main problem for*
361 *advancing improved forage technologies in rural areas. Even if seeds are*
362 *found, it is expensive. Enabling Africa RISING farmers to produce their own*
363 *seeds is creating access to forage seeds locally.*

364 Thirdly, farmers' exposure to commercial production systems through informal links with
365 dairy farmers in neighbouring kebeles and their increased knowledge about market
366 opportunities empowered them to pursue further advances in commercial production. The
367 farmers claimed that feed innovations were the first and vital step towards realising their

² Soil bunds are constructed on the farm to slow down the runoff from erosion to conserve soil and water.

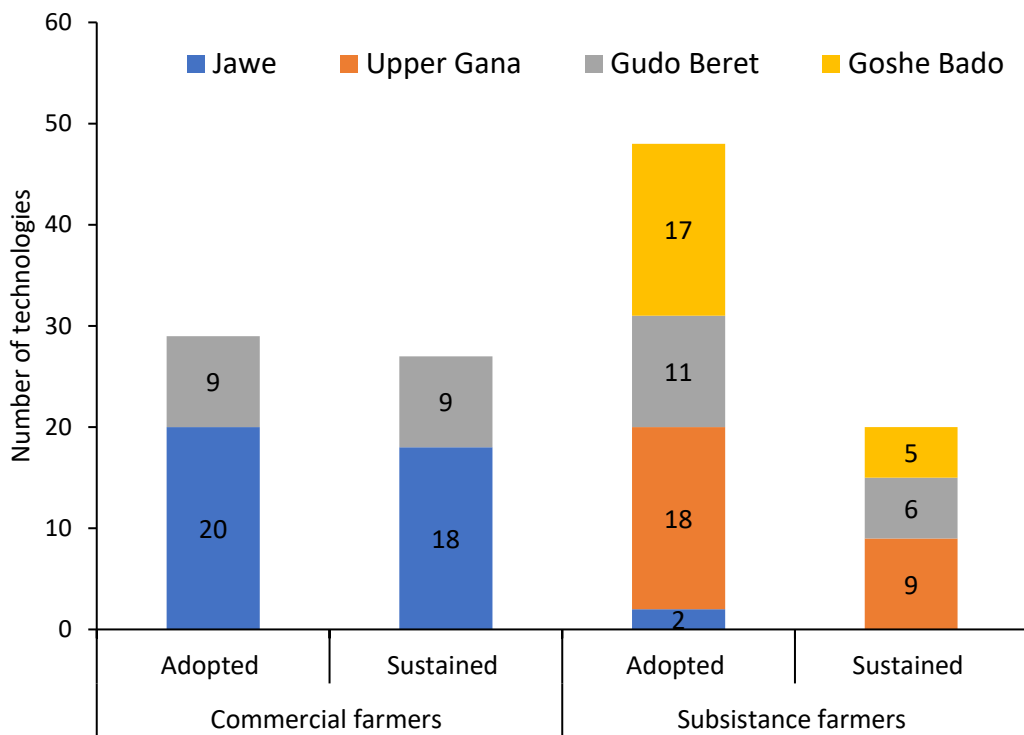
368 commercial production goals. The multilevel IP structure was instrumental in facilitating
369 farmers' exposure through exchange visits and learning events organised within and outside
370 their kebeles, including a visit to an advanced crossbreed dairy farmers' cooperative. The
371 structure helped to facilitate cross-site learning between the woredas (kebeles) and beyond. For
372 example, the national IP facilitated learning across woredas during the national IP meetings
373 and through organising exchange visits between woreda and kebele IP members. Similarly, the
374 woreda-level and kebele-level IPs facilitated more cross-scale learning between kebeles and
375 FRGs, respectively.

376 Overall, farmers and stakeholders developed capacities that enabled them to make more
377 informed decisions on improving livestock feed systems. Despite some farmers reducing their
378 use of introduced feed innovations once short-term support from the multilevel IPs ceased
379 (Figure 3), their capacity for innovation had nevertheless been enhanced, thus helping them to
380 make informed decisions on producing feed resources at a low cost. For instance, farmers
381 started using their knowledge to improve the utilisation of existing feed resources (crop
382 residues) and initiated dual-purpose crop varieties as a low-cost feed option based on criteria
383 that maximised both grain yield and crop residue biomass. Also, interviews with livestock
384 nutrition scientists represented on the national IP revealed an improved collaboration with crop
385 breeders because of their interaction within the IPs. They indicated that breeders who used to
386 focus solely on grain yield were now also aware of the value of crop residues in their crop
387 breeding activities, thus shifting their focus to maximising the benefits of dual-purpose crops.
388 Such improvements in the innovation capacity of farmers and shifts in crop breeders' activities
389 are examples of innovation and partnerships that endure beyond the funded program period.

390 **(b) Addressing differences in farmers' needs for feed technologies**

391 The study found that the feed technologies were tailored to the general feed scarcity problem
392 farmers were facing but were less aligned to meet the specific needs of individual farmers,
393 which affected the level of sustained use of feed innovations. *Figure*Figure 4 presents data on
394 two types of farmers distinguished according to type of livestock production, and shows how
395 continued use of the feed innovations differed between these types. The first type is subsistence
396 production (65% of the group), i.e. farmers who traditionally depend more on crop production
397 and keep local livestock breeds primarily for subsistence use (such as draft power and
398 transport) rather than for direct economic benefits. These farmers represent the majority of the
399 farmers across the four kebeles. The second type is commercial production (35% of the group),

400 i.e. farmers running crossbred livestock for commercial purposes, such as small-scale
 401 commercial dairying, established before multilevel IP initiation. For the latter type of farmer,
 402 use of feed innovations complemented their investment in crossbred dairy cows that give more
 403 milk and is likely to lead to improved economic returns. However, these farmers were in the
 404 minority. Figure 4 shows that all of the commercial farmers were from Jawe and Gudo
 405 Beret research kebeles, which Africa RISING initially identified as kebeles with relatively
 406 better market access compared with the other two kebeles, from Lemo and Basona Worena
 407 worda respectively. The two farmer types differ in terms of resource opportunities and the
 408 income-generating potential from their livestock, which affected their decisions to allocate land
 409 and other resources for continued utilisation of feed innovations.



410

411 *Figure 4: Number of feed technologies adopted and sustained by commercial (n=8 or 35%) and subsistence*
 412 *farmers (n=15 or 65%) interviewed in the four kebeles.*

413 As illustrated in Figure 4, there was a greater difference between the initial and sustained
 414 adoption of the feed technologies among subsistence farmers than among commercial farmers.
 415 Despite their increased technical knowledge, subsistence farmers were more likely to
 416 discontinue the use of the feed technologies and only retain a few feed innovations two years
 417 after the multilevel IPs were phased out.

418 Although both types of farmers regarded the feed technologies as important, their
 419 respective decisions to continue utilising these technologies depended on their preferences.

420 Commercially-oriented farmers were already familiar with raising livestock for commercial
421 production (e.g., crossbred dairy farms or fattening of oxen) before the multilevel IP
422 intervention and hence had an existing business interest in improved feed technologies that
423 would improve their potential livestock productivity and income. Despite being fewer in
424 number, these commercially-oriented farmers reported that the feed innovations they adopted
425 reduced feed costs and increased milk production, as they used higher-productivity cattle
426 breeds such as crossbred dairy cows for increased milk production and improved income. Some
427 of them started thinking ahead to establish dairy cooperatives. For example, in Lemo, farmers
428 who experienced an exchange learning visit to advanced dairy farmers, in another kebele,
429 spoke of the advantages of organising themselves as a cooperative to improve access to inputs
430 and services. To realise such advantages, however, farmers need to formally organise
431 themselves with institutional support. An exception to this was in Jawe kebele, where one
432 commercial dairy farmer who was the kebele's ex-administrator and who transported his milk
433 to his shop in Hosanna town motivated other resource-rich farmers to operate collectively. He
434 stated that:

435 *I invested USD2,150 for electricity supply to start milk processing and establish a dairy*
436 *cooperative by extending membership to farmers to increase our production scale. I am certain*
437 *that once farmers realise the benefits, they will buy crossbred dairy cows. I also plan to provide*
438 *a breeding bull service to members.*

439
440 Through the participatory joint learning activities among farmers during the on-farm
441 trials, field days, and IP meetings, close relationships developed between farmers and
442 knowledge was exchanged horizontally that attracting many of the subsistence farmers to a
443 commercially oriented farm business. All farmers indicated that their practical experience in
444 improved feed production and utilisation with the IPs improved and they spoke of a rise in new
445 demand among farmers for starting a dairy or livestock-fattening business. They recognised
446 such a transition requires significant investment and risk management, and indicated how they
447 are constrained by limited access to affordable finance, breeding, and veterinary services.

448 However, only a few of the better-off farmers from the subsistence-oriented farmers
449 started to take risks and invest in commercial production to improve their income. These
450 investments included purchasing crossbred dairy heifers from commercially oriented farmers,

451 allocating more land for oat-vetch cultivation, constructing larger feed storage sheds, and
452 constructing multipurpose traditional feed troughs to feed and water their livestock.

453 In contrast, the resource-poor, subsistence-oriented farmers achieved no short-term
454 economic benefits from investing in feed innovations. This is important given that this type of
455 farmer was in the majority. As one such farmer explained:

456 *Although we know improved cultivated forages increase milk production, we do*
457 *not benefit that much because of low productivity of indigenous cows. We lack the*
458 *resources to buy crossbred cows to increase our productivity.*

459 Type of farmer influenced the sustained use of several feed technologies. First, individual
460 farmers' feed technologies were not sufficiently tailored to address the competing demands of
461 producing high-biomass crops over high-quality forage crops. Subsistence farmers who kept
462 local (less productive) cattle breeds found it uneconomical to increase land allocation to
463 produce high-quality forage biomass or invest in the feeding and storage structures to minimise
464 feed loss. Furthermore, the estimated 30–50% reduction in feed loss using the feed trough and
465 feed storage sheds was apparently not sufficient to convince subsistence farmers to invest in
466 their construction. In the end, most of the subsistence farmers chose to remain with their
467 traditional practices of producing high-biomass crops for crop residue that can be produced at
468 minimum cost.

469 **(c) Addressing location-specific contexts**

470 The actions taken by multilevel IPs to tailor technologies to the different locations were not
471 sufficiently strong to ensure continued use of the new feed technologies. The location-specific
472 issues identified were related to land size, type of grazing management, and the kebeles'
473 exposure to adverse weather conditions such as frost. Although woreda-level IP stakeholders
474 appreciated farmers' decisions to allocate their limited land to forage production as a
475 significant outcome of the IP, sustaining such land-use changes was affected by local land
476 scarcity. Farmers allocated a fraction of their productive cropping land to sow introduced
477 forage crops such as oat-vetch mixture.

478 In Basona Worana woreda the average farm size per household is 1.7 ha, which is larger
479 than the 1.2 ha average farm size in Lemo woreda (Table 1). For instance, subsistence farmers
480 in Goshe Bado kebele (in Bason Worana woreda) produced sufficient crop residues for
481 livestock needs, and some even had a surplus to sell to urban dairy farmers. Hence, there was

482 less demand for new feed technologies, limiting their uptake. Within this kebele, two other
483 farmers modified the feed storage and feed trough innovations for other purposes (housing
484 sheep and domestic dwelling). Some subsistence farmers in Goshe Bado kebele indicated that
485 they reverted land allocated for oat-vetch forage to other crops (see Figure 4) because they
486 produced enough crop residue, but also because of the negative impact of weeds, which
487 remained for several years following the use of the land for oat-vetch forage.

488 Commercial farmers who produced limited crop residues due to small land holdings,
489 particularly in Lemo woreda, were nevertheless able to integrate and sustain forage production
490 using alternative areas. Despite limited land available, for the alternative feed options
491 introduced by the IPs, farmers were able to select and integrate low-cost and productive
492 (biomass) feed technologies capable of addressing feed scarcity. These inexpensive
493 technologies included: oat-vetch mixtures, faba bean-oat intercrops and Desho³ grass. One of
494 the commercial farmers from Jawe kebele stated that:

495 *So, I produce limited crop residue from my small cropland and depend more on*
496 *livestock. I manage to integrate productive forages such as oat-vetch with a short*
497 *growing season that allowed me to double-crop forage and food crops.*

498 The introduction and promotion of different types of forage provide a choice for farmers that
499 fitted their land holding. Desho grass and faba bean-oat intercrops were the two most highly
500 preferred forage options among commercial farmers in Lemo, as they were productive and
501 adapted to agroecology. The highly productive Desho grass was planted on soil bunds and
502 marginal and unused lands and farmers would harvest up to three times per year and “cut and
503 carry” for livestock feed. The faba bean-oat intercrop was developed due to researchers’
504 observations of the traditional practices of farmers in both woredas. During critical feed
505 shortages, farmers traditionally allow self-sown weeds to grow among the faba bean or wheat
506 crops and use the “cut and carry” method to feed their livestock on these weeds. By replacing
507 the self-sown weeds with a more productive improved forage crop, the researchers effectively
508 demonstrated the benefits of intercropped forage without compromising the productivity of the
509 main crop.

510 Traditional unrestricted or “free” livestock grazing without fences presented a
511 constraint to the establishment of tree lucerne on the soil bunds. It was intended that the tree

³ Desho grass was not introduced, but rather promoted through the multilevel IPs in Lemo.

512 lucerne would stabilise soil erosion, improve soil health, and provide a regular harvest for feed.
513 According to researchers represented on the national-level IP, tree lucerne requires both the
514 exclusion of livestock from the new plantation for two years and constant care until it grows
515 tall enough to be beyond the reach of grazing animals. Woreda and kebele government
516 stakeholders indicated that restricting grazing was a solution, but farmers indicated this
517 restriction would be difficult to implement because they have insufficient feed for stall feeding.
518 An exception was a case in Gudo Beret kebele where an NGO supported farmers to plant tree
519 lucerne on soil bunds and free grazing was also temporarily restricted through community by-
520 laws. Finally, adverse weather conditions were a constraining factor. Frost, in particular,
521 negatively affected the production and survival rates of vetch seed production and the growth
522 of tree lucerne in Basona Worana.

523 The effective response of the woreda IPs to some of these challenges was limited due
524 to various issues including lack of a deliberate effort to recognise non-technical issues such as
525 supporting farmers to develop community by-laws to restrict grazing. Interviews with the
526 Africa RISING site coordinators identified three main challenges encountered when attempting
527 to respond to free grazing or frost issues. First, there was no specific budget for the woreda IP
528 to stimulate local actors to take joint responsibility to identify and address local issues
529 independently. Second, given the competing demands on stakeholders' time, it was difficult to
530 schedule a learning event at a time that suited all IP members. Third, insufficient time was
531 allocated for discussion and negotiation during single-day IP events, as all technical issues
532 concerning crop, livestock, and natural resource management needed to be covered.

533 FGDs with woreda IP members highlighted that some of the issues were related to the
534 membership of the IPs. Most national IP members were CGIAR researchers and implementing
535 partners from government departments, and there were no members who had the authority to
536 negotiate institutional arrangements in respect of devolving the roles between organisations.
537 The participants believed that if decision-makers from relevant organisations, such as a woreda
538 cooperative office, were involved within their mandates, they could not only assist farmers to
539 organise themselves as cooperatives but also develop community by-laws to partially restrict
540 free grazing. Similarly, the regional research centres could also introduce different vetch
541 varieties, engage farmers to identify frost-resistance varieties or connect farmers to forage seed
542 producers in areas not affected by frost.

543 There was also tension between the actors representing the crop and livestock sectors,
544 as the livestock experts continued to push for greater attention on their sector, including within

545 the IPs. Woreda stakeholders and farmers often raised similar issues about the limited
546 government attention for many years on the livestock sector and how the IPs had favoured crop
547 interventions over livestock innovations. Examples are given included interventions, including
548 by Africa RISING, which targeted kebeles producing major crops such as wheat when selecting
549 project intervention sites that have been clustered by the national government to inform crop
550 technology interventions. A specific example was mentioned during FGD with Basona Worana
551 woreda IP members where Woreda Office of Agriculture officials subsequently abandoned
552 faba bean-oat intercropping for livestock feed that began through on-farm trials and had
553 maintained farmers' interest. This abandonment arose because officials annually planned to
554 increase land allocations to major staple crops, and viewing the integration of forage into the
555 wheat crop was contrary to this plan. These decisions indicate a greater focus on crop
556 production than on livestock management.

557 The development of multilevel IPs was an institutional innovation in itself. During their
558 period of operation, they were the primary source of technical knowledge and input support
559 available to farmers adopting the feed innovations. The multilevel IP structure improved the
560 existing weak linkages and collaboration specifically among the technical actors, and enhanced
561 learning within and across the levels to enhance feed innovations. However, insufficient
562 negotiation with decision-makers across levels limited their impact across levels and addressed
563 the important institutional arrangements that constrained farmers' sustained use of feed
564 innovations.

565 **(d) Establishing farmers' access to forage seeds**

566 Sustaining and enhancing forage use requires a reliable supply of forage seeds and associated
567 technical knowledge to produce, manage, and utilise feed technologies. To make seeds
568 available and provide technical support locally, the focus of the multilevel IPs was on building
569 individual farmers' or livestock experts' technical capacity. However, such individual-level
570 capacity is constrained by a lack of economic benefits for the subsistence farmers and frost
571 damage in specific areas that limit forage seed production and retention by individual farmers,
572 resulting in a shortage of seed supply. Except for tree lucerne seedlings in Basona Worana,
573 there was no reliable source of forage seeds in the study sites.

574 Woreda-level and kebele-level FGD participants identified two opportunities for
575 creating and strengthening existing local institutions to address access to forage seeds. The first
576 involved supporting interested FRG members in establishing a forage seed business, as some

577 of them saw a significant advantage in the forage seed business due to premium prices. A
578 researcher from the Lemo woreda IP stated that:

579 *FRGs could have specialised in community forage-seed multiplication and linked to*
580 *reliable markets because forage seeds are expensive and are currently being sold*
581 *from USD 10–35 per kilogram and are also locally unavailable, opening new*
582 *opportunities for farmers.*

583 The second opportunity involved strengthening the Farmer Training Centres⁴, an existing
584 government initiative across the kebeles. A typical example was found in the Upper Gana
585 kebele, where the crop and livestock DAs had established nursery and forage sites within the
586 Farmer Training Centre that they managed. The DAs were taking on this initiative on top of
587 their regular workload, so the output of seeds/seedlings was not high. The woreda FGD
588 participants indicated that the activities of the multilevel IPs could have been more strategically
589 aligned with such existing initiatives to support the establishment of a forage seed supply
590 system and help farmers to capture new opportunities. Both of these opportunities were
591 recognised after the multilevel IPs had ceased to operate. The interviews and discussions
592 undertaken for this research provided all participant stakeholders with the opportunity to reflect
593 on their work as platform members, and they had come to question the sustainability of the
594 livestock innovations. Once the multilevel IPs ceased to operate, the ownership and support
595 levels for the livestock feed innovations from the woreda and kebele technical stakeholders
596 faded. As the technical stakeholders involved were not decision-makers, they could not address
597 the interlinked and emerging issues that are crucial for farmers to sustain and enhance feed
598 innovations.

599 In summary, the results identified how the multilevel IP activities, actions and
600 arrangements influenced the sustained use of the feed innovation outcomes. In some cases, the
601 activities, actions or arrangements constrained the sustained utilisation of the introduced feed
602 technologies, but in other ways, they enabled their continued use. The multilevel IPs engaged
603 expertise from various levels and decentralised to provide farmer-centric and on-farm technical
604 support that enhanced innovation capacity around feed innovations, which elevated farmers’
605 interest in commercial livestock production such as dairy. However, the expected innovation
606 outcomes of the multilevel IP structure were not fully realised. The multilevel IP support

⁴ Government established Farmer Training Centres, which are managed by Development Agents in each kebele with the aim to improve the reach and effectiveness of agricultural extension and farmers inclusion in technology development.

607 generally focussed on feed systems transition at farm level but the farmers were constrained
608 by problems above the farm level, which constrained the sustained use of livestock feed
609 innovations. The farm-level technical interventions were uniform and less tailored to meet the
610 distinct needs of subsistence farmers and location-specific contexts. Above all, most farmers
611 (i.e. subsistence farmers) were unable to put the new and improved feed technologies they
612 initially adopted into economic use mostly because of interlinked barriers they faced, which
613 would have required actions above farm level. Creating a conducive environment requires
614 multilevel IP interventions above the farm level such as organising farmers to have access to
615 better and reliable inputs and services, supporting the establishment of community bylaws to
616 reduce the impact of free grazing and other complementary changes through facilitated
617 negotiation among diverse actors and these were somewhat overlooked. Overall, while some
618 commercial farmers did experience a sustained economic benefit, most subsistence farmers
619 seemed not to see the benefit in continuing their use of the feed innovations, and they appear
620 to be returning to their traditional practices.

621

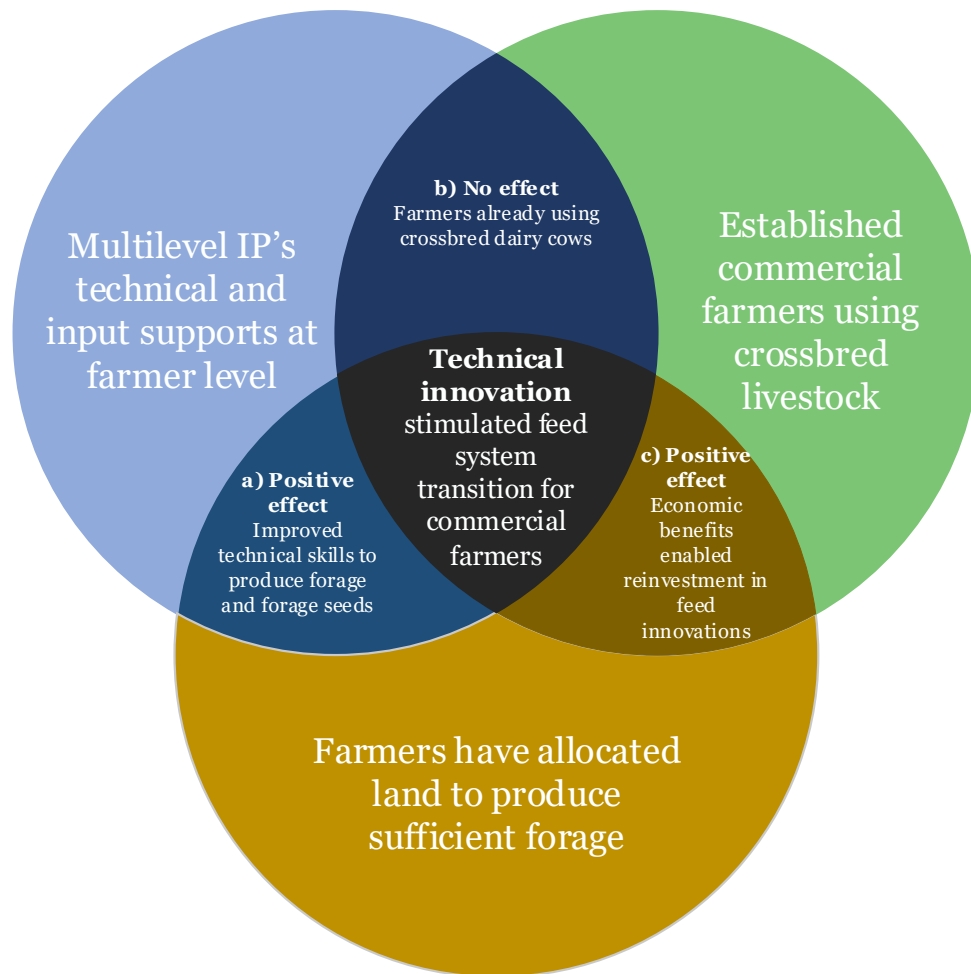
622 **Discussion**

623 This study examined whether and how the activities, actions and arrangements of multilevel
624 IP influenced the continued use of livestock feed innovations during the post-intervention
625 period. The main enabling learning activities, actions by different actors and institutional
626 arrangements facilitated through the multilevel IP were associated with farm-level activities
627 that increased farmers' technical knowledge about the feed innovations, increased productivity
628 arising from the innovations among commercially oriented livestock farmers, and low-cost
629 feed technology options that provided increased feed biomass for farmers with limited
630 cropland. The main constraining activities, actions and arrangements were related to activities
631 above farm level that resulted in low returns for subsistence farmers from their investment in
632 adopting some of the innovations, particularly where they were operating in a weak value chain
633 characterised by inadequate access to inputs and associated services. Addressing such higher-
634 level issues requires negotiation among key decision makers across levels to align or create
635 new institutional or organisational support systems to enable farmers to make the transition to
636 improved feed and livestock systems. Other specific constraining issues are also related to
637 uncontrolled grazing and frost damage. In the discussion below, the multilevel IP structure's
638 intermediary role in these enabling and constraining themes are illustrated using Venn
639 diagrams (Figure 5 and 6). This synthesis of the findings is based on the earlier

640 conceptualisation of the multilevel IP (Figure 1) as a model for fostering a combination of
641 farm-level technological and system-level organisational and institutional changes that could
642 ensure sustained changes and a durable impact.

643 **The role of the multilevel IPs in enabling sustained use of feed** 644 **technologies**

645 As conceptualised in Figure 1, the focus of the multilevel IPs on technological feed innovations
646 was to enable farmers to make transition from a traditional, low-quality livestock feed system
647 (System A) to an intensified, high-quality feed system (System B) that improves livestock
648 productivity and income to sustain the improved feed system beyond project period (System
649 C). Such technological innovation is considered crucial for transforming the smallholder food
650 systems, as identified in a recent study by Herrero et al. (2020). As illustrated in Figure 5, the
651 multilevel IPs activities, actions and arrangements resulted in positive effects in two areas,
652 which complemented existing opportunities with commercial-oriented farmers to achieve
653 sustained use of feed innovations. Firstly, the multilevel IPs contributed through the technical
654 interventions to improved technical skills when combined with farmers' willingness to increase
655 allocation of land to produce forage (a). The improved technical skills and knowledge for
656 utilising feed technologies effectively (a) was where the multilevel structure of the IP addressed
657 the technical limitation and lack of know-how and enabled farmers to continue using the feed
658 technologies (Figure 5).



659

660 *Figure 5: Identified activities, actions or arrangements with the outcome - technical innovation – stimulated feed*
 661 *system transition at the centre of the two-way interactions*

662 Secondly, the multilevel IPs indirectly contributed to improved income for commercially-
 663 oriented farmers, who had allocated land for forage production because they could
 664 economically benefit from feeding it to productive crossbred dairy livestock. The two-way
 665 interactions in Figure 5 between themes of farmer type (commercial) and the multilevel IP (b),
 666 produced no ‘new’ outcomes as commercial farmers were already using complementary
 667 innovations, including crossbred dairy cows. Other studies similarly found that farmers who
 668 are already using improved breeds and engaged in market activities were primed to achieve the
 669 economic benefits of feed innovations once they were introduced (Ayele et al., 2012;
 670 Ravichandran et al., 2020).

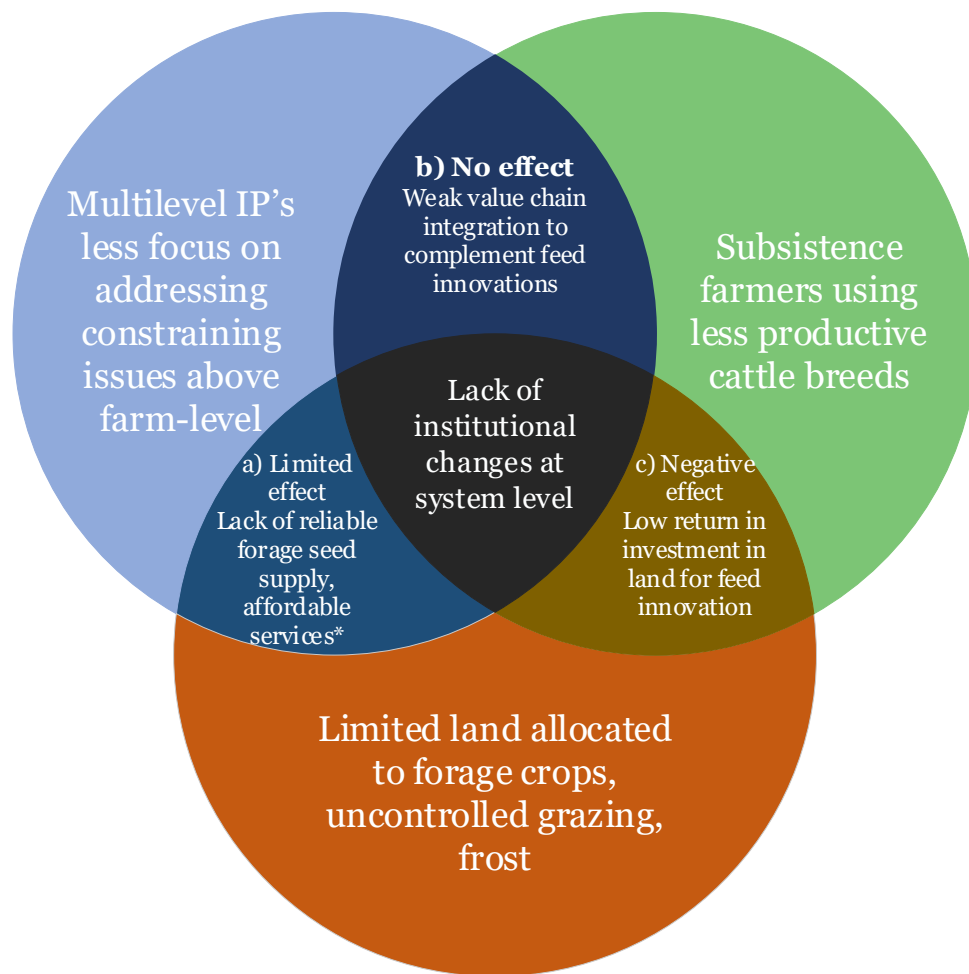
671 The multilevel IP activities, actions and arrangements also enhanced interest in
 672 commercial production among both commercial and subsistence farmers by facilitating
 673 informal links through exchange visits where farmers learnt from advanced peers in dairy and
 674 experts within and outside their kebele and IP membership. Multilevel IP did so by facilitating

675 iterative learning within IPs (vertically) and between IPs or beyond (horizontally), where the
676 higher-level IPs facilitated cross-learning for the immediate lower-level IPs or FRGs. Farmers’
677 practical learning for transitioning to a more sustainable feed system is one of the significant
678 outcomes of the innovation process, and this assisted commercial farmers to initiate collective
679 action for commercial production, as observed in the dairy farm in Jawe kebele. Although
680 institutional changes are an essential condition for innovation (Hounkonnou et al., 2012), in
681 our case with commercial farmers it is a farm-level technical innovation combined with
682 learning activities that complemented farmers' earlier engagement in commercial production
683 that triggered feed system transition.

684 **The role of the multilevel IPs in constraining sustained use of feed** 685 **technologies**

686 For the majority of farmers, however, the finding indicates that the multilevel IP’s farm-level
687 technical innovations triggered demands for institutional changes that were unrealised during
688 the IPs in operation. The sustained use of the feed technologies, in this case, was constrained
689 by a lack of support from the multilevel IPs in enabling subsistence farmers to have affordable
690 access to services (such as credit and breeding services) and inputs (forage seeds) to invest in
691 complementary innovations for the use of feed innovations to provide economic benefits and
692 sustain (Figure 6). In some instances, the broader socio-technical context characterised by a
693 predominantly top-down approach to innovation and government priority of crop over
694 livestock contradicts an inclusive and bottom-up approach to livestock innovation facilitated
695 through the multilevel IPs. This was observed where conflicts in prioritising innovation for
696 crop over livestock where, for example, woreda agricultural officials halted the faba bean-
697 forage intercrop due to contradiction with their priority while in other instances the platforms
698 facilitated better understanding between livestock and crop researchers. The strongest
699 identified constraining theme was that farmers did not benefit economically from selling forage
700 seeds, nor did they benefit from improving feeding practices that enhanced their livestock
701 productivity. Thus, the subsistence farmers were operating under different pressure and were
702 not sufficiently motivated to improve their livestock feeding practices given their current
703 dependency on low-quality and low-cost feed systems that could only support less productive
704 livestock.

705



706

707 *Figure 6: Identified activities, actions or arrangements and the outcome - lack of institutional changes –*
 708 *constraining innovation (farmers transition to improved feed systems) at the centre of the two-way interactions*

709 Therefore, it is necessary to determine how these farmers can reverse the low return on
 710 investments (c) to sustain feed innovations. Two important interactions between the
 711 subsistence farmers and limited land allocated to forage crops related to value chains and seed
 712 supply, respectively could be assisted by the multilevel IP (Figure 6). Greater emphasis on
 713 institutional interventions by the multilevel IPs to support farmers to operate collectively to
 714 benefit economically is recommended. For instance, community, forage seed producers
 715 (organisational innovation) needed to be established and connected to markets to ensure that
 716 the identified negative interactions between activities and actions that led to a lack of a reliable
 717 seed supply system (a) and low return on investment from selling forage seeds (c) could be
 718 reversed. The feed seed shortage is a critical national problem constraining actions to support
 719 market-oriented livestock production and to address this problem providing land and credit for
 720 private sectors, including farmers cooperatives, to establish feed seed companies was suggested
 721 in Ethiopia livestock masterplan (Shapiro et al., 2015). Such higher-level arrangements are

722 vital for subsistence farmers operating under weak institutional support who lack the economic
723 power to address institutional issues individually and need to operate collectively, as earlier
724 studies in the SSA context have identified (Davies et al., 2018; Hounkonnou et al., 2012).

725 There were also constraints to the sustained use of the feed innovations because the
726 multilevel IPs failed to link farmers to other complementary innovations (b) (Figure 6).
727 Subsistence farmers expressed their emerging need to have collective access to a breeding bull
728 service (b) (Figure 6) in their kebele and that they were prepared to contribute financially
729 (Lema et al., 2021). However, because they lacked access to such complementary innovations
730 (c) they then chose not to allocate land to forage crops, as it would not eventuate in economic
731 benefits, especially for unproductive local cattle breeds. This led subsistence farmers to
732 develop new demands including the need to have access to breeding bull services to shift
733 towards commercial production to achieve economic benefits. Such emerging needs articulated
734 by subsistence farmers arose after farmers developed confidence in the production and
735 utilisation of feed technologies and when working closely with commercial farmers. This
736 finding suggests the need for facilitating multilevel IP learning activities dynamically and
737 paying more attention to accommodate emerging issues during planning and evaluation
738 meetings to carefully identify and adapt actions to address such emerging needs. This could be
739 restricted by the resources allocated to the project, but multilevel IPs have a structural
740 advantage in identifying resources and linking actions across levels through aligning emerging
741 needs with existing initiatives (Lema et al., 2021; Totin et al., 2020; Tucker et al., 2013).

742 A multilevel structure should have been advantageous in linking actions across levels
743 to enable the higher-level institutional changes required by farmers to pursue collective action
744 through cooperatives in producing and commercialising both forage seeds and dairy products.
745 However, this potential was not fully realised due to insufficient action by relevant actors to
746 bring about institutional changes and create a conducive environment for innovation. Similar
747 IPs in SSA that have succeeded have addressed institutional changes by paying conscious
748 attention to integrating these changes from the outset (e.g., improved value chains) through
749 organising farmers under cooperatives to attract affordable services and inputs and linking
750 them to markets (Hounkonnou et al., 2018; Kilelu et al., 2013).

751 **The way forward**

752 This study found that initiating complementary institutional changes at higher levels of
753 the innovation system and tailoring innovations to the different needs and location-specific

754 contexts of farmers are the most critical activities for enabling sustained use of feed innovations
755 by participating farmers. Although institutional innovation is central, our findings also indicate
756 that technical innovations can also trigger the need for other interrelated organisational and
757 institutional changes, as similarly noted by Kilelu et al. (2013). Due to the complex nature of
758 the issues dealt with during each IP learning event, the expected effect of these events on
759 engaging higher-level decision-makers and initiating higher-level institutional innovations
760 above the farm level was not fully realised. In establishing multilevel IPs to facilitate the
761 combination of the technological, organisational and institutional changes needed for sustained
762 livestock feed innovation, it is important to look beyond the multilevel structure itself and
763 foster the range and quality of stakeholder reconfiguration needed for more integrated problem-
764 solving.

765 We found that the role of multilevel IPs should focus on facilitating long-term impacts
766 by ensuring system-level change that complements the short-term goal of addressing farm-
767 level technical issues such as feed scarcity. In our case, such system-level change can be
768 achieved, if, at the start, farmers' needs are categorised to aid the development of innovations
769 that complement their production objectives (commercial versus subsistence). Such
770 categorisation helps redefine the starting system (System A) as indicated in Figure 1 where,
771 before IP interventions, subsistence farmers operate in a different system and capability
772 compared to commercial farmers. This could help tailor low-cost feed innovations that can
773 increase forage biomass production for subsistence farmers' needs while high-input feed
774 innovations can satisfy commercial farmers' needs. Although feed innovation to solve the
775 short-term problem was used as an entry point for both types of farmers more focus is needed
776 on facilitating a dynamic innovation process that responds to context-specific emerging needs
777 triggered through the feed innovations. Without such active interventions, subsistence farmers
778 could be excluded from economic benefits as observed in this study. As other authors noted
779 facilitating such dynamic innovation processes requires high-level facilitation and negotiation
780 skill with decision makers that pay closer attention to linking multiple actions across levels
781 through identifying resources beyond the project fund and aligning IP activities with existing
782 initiatives to adapt to emerging issues (Cullen et al., 2014; Kilelu et al., 2013; Totin et al.,
783 2020).

784 Another important strategy that has emerged from this study involves creating informal
785 links to relevant people and organisations outside the IP structure that could bring in the
786 specific learning experience, expertise or decision makers that are lacking within IPs to initiate

787 specific institutional experiments, as similarly identified by Nederlof and Pyburn (2012). One
788 example is the exchange visits facilitated by higher-level IPs through informal links where
789 participating farmers visited established dairy farmers' cooperatives in neighbouring kebeles
790 were important in empowering farmers to redefine their production objectives toward the
791 commercial production system. Considering most projects operate over a relatively short-term
792 period and have funding limits, sustained outcomes are best achieved if IPs focus on
793 developing the local capacity and aligning IPs activities with existing initiatives.

794 Stimulating institutional changes within multilevel IPs requires not only decentralising
795 the structure at community levels to engage farmers and local actors to implement pre-
796 identified technical interventions but also, more importantly, decentralising the innovation
797 process to enable farmers and local stakeholders to jointly prioritise site-specific interventions
798 tailored to the needs of different farmer groups. This outcome can be realised if sufficient
799 attention, from the beginning, is given to prioritising the institutional issues linked with the
800 technical changes and determining the strategic engagement of relevant actors and their role in
801 supporting farmers to address institutional constraints. Notably, exit strategies for IP
802 interventions need to be negotiated early in the process among the key potential actors
803 representing existing public and private organisations during its functioning so that their
804 activities can be subsequently embedded within their organisations to sustain the changes
805 beyond the active intervention phase.

806 A critical challenge exists for multilevel IPs, which are intended to focus on broader
807 system issues across multiple sectors such as crop-livestock-tree systems intensifications in
808 addressing livestock-sector-specific (and value chain issues even more narrowly) while still
809 maintaining their original focus. This was beyond the scope of this research and can be a focus
810 for future research to understand the role of multilevel IPs in dealing with multiple-scale
811 demands across different sectors with strategies focusing on a specific theme (such as livestock
812 value chain).

813

814 3.1. References

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