HANDBOOK FOR NGO SUCCESS

WITH A FOCUS ON ANIMAL ADVOCACY

by Janice Cox

This handbook was commissioned by the World Society for the Protection of Animals (now World Animal Protection) when the organization was still built around member societies.
The World Society for the Protection of Animals (WSPA) was created in 1981 through the merger of the World Federation for the Protection of Animals (WFPA), founded in 1953, and the International Society for the Protection of Animals (ISPA), founded in 1959. Today, WSPA has 12 offices worldwide and over 640,000 supporters around the world.

The WSPA Member Society Network is the world’s largest international federation of animal protection organisations, with over 650 societies in more than 140 countries. Member societies range from large international organisations to small specialist groups. WSPA believes that there is a need for close cooperation amongst animal protection groups – by working together and sharing knowledge and skills, greater and more sustainable progress can be made in animal welfare.

Member societies work alone, in collaboration with each other or with WSPA on projects and campaigns. The Network also supports and develops emerging organisations in communities where there is great indifference to animal suffering.

The Member Society Manual was created for your benefit, and includes guidance and advice on all major aspects of animal protection work. It also details many of the most effective and useful animal protection resource materials available. We hope that it will prove to be a helpful operating manual and reference source for WSPA member societies.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Member Society Manual was collated by Janice H. Cox, MBA of Pioneer Training.

WSPA would also like to recognise the contributions made by the following people to this manual: Dr Michael Appleby, John Callaghan, Jasmijn de Boo, Rosalie e’Silva, Alistair Findlay, Leah Garcés, Jo Hastie, Dr Elly Hiby, Dr Roy Jones, Jonathan Owen, Charlotte Scott and Peter Stevenson.

WSPA also thanks the animal protection societies who have developed the excellent resources listed in this manual and the WSPA member society World Animal Net for the information from its archives and website www.worldanimal.net
The Member Society Manual has been divided into four parts: Animal Protection Issues, Ways of Tackling an Issue, Running an Animal Protection Society and Essential Skills.

**Part 1** looks at the welfare issues affecting companion animals, farm animals, wildlife, working animals, animals in entertainment and experimental animals, and offers practical strategies to tackle these issues.

**Part 2** of the Member Society Manual considers the various ways of raising the status and improving the treatment of animals. The two main routes, legislation and education, are examined first, followed by practical advice on how to campaign, lobby and use the media to your benefit.

**Part 3** discusses the main components of running an animal protection society. It outlines the key considerations for establishing a society, as well as how to develop a strategy, manage projects and fundraise. Finally, the importance of support services, libraries and publications is examined.

**Part 4** gives an overview of many of the professional and personal skills required to run an effective animal protection society: leadership, team building, time management, holding effective meetings, giving presentations, stress management, dealing with compassion fatigue, continuous learning and maintaining motivation.

To give a better understanding of animal welfare in the wider sense, the introduction to the manual outlines the basic concepts of animal welfare and explores how the animal protection movement has developed over the years. In addition, the ethical and philosophical considerations in relation to animal welfare and the role and impact of religion are discussed.
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INTRODUCTION

Animal welfarists believe that each individual animal has an intrinsic value and should be respected and protected. They recognise that animals have biologically determined instincts and needs and can experience pain and suffering. They believe that animals should therefore be permitted to live their lives free from avoidable suffering at the hands of humans. They should have a good quality of life and a humane death. However, good welfare is not only about the absence of cruelty or ‘unnecessary suffering’. It is much more complex.

Animal welfare is generally defined using a number of concepts including: the physical, mental and natural states; the five freedoms; needs and sentience. Each concept is elaborated upon further in this section.

Physical, Mental and Natural States

Assessing the welfare of an animal entails looking at its physical health (how fit it is), its mental health (including how it feels) and its capability to act naturally (referred to as ‘telos’ in this chapter). The welfare of an animal can be described as good if it is fit, healthy and free from suffering.

An animal can have a physical problem, such as a tumour, and not be affected mentally if it does not feel pain or discomfort. Equally, an animal may feel fear and anxiety that is not associated with a physical problem. A condition can therefore affect either the physical or mental state of an animal, or both.

The third state – telos – refers to the ability of the animal to fulfil its natural needs and desires. For example, a pig in a natural environment would spend over 70% of its time rooting and performing other oral behaviours. It would also engage in complex social interactions. However, pigs confined in sow stalls which are so narrow that they cannot even turn around, are prevented from exhibiting their natural behaviours. The frustration of its natural needs leads to repetitive unnatural behaviours, known as stereotypes, such as bar biting.

These three concepts are often used to define animal welfare, either individually, or in combination.

Traditional definitions focus mainly on the physical state of animals: “Welfare defines the state of an animal as regards its attempts to cope with its environment.” (Fraser & Broom, 1990).

Duncan (1993) advocates that feelings (the mental state) are critical and that this is not necessarily related to health or fitness: “… neither health nor lack of stress nor fitness is necessary and/or sufficient to conclude that an animal has good welfare. Welfare is dependent upon what animals feel.”

Rollin (1993) recognises that both mental states (pain and suffering) and telos are relevant to welfare: “Not only will welfare mean control of pain and suffering, it will also mean nurturing and fulfilment of the animals’ nature, which I call telos.”

Whichever definition is used, it is clear that the three concepts are interconnected and any significant compromise in one tends to affect the other two.

The Five Freedoms

Another popular concept used to quantify animal welfare is the ‘five freedoms’ framework, which takes a holistic approach and considers all three concepts outlined previously.

The ‘five freedoms’ were originally developed by the UK’s Farm Animal Welfare Council (FAWC) and provide valuable guidance on animal welfare. They are now internationally recognised and have

BASIC CONCEPTS OF ANIMAL WELFARE
been adapted slightly since their formulation. The current form is:

- **Freedom from hunger and thirst** by ready access to fresh water and a diet to maintain full health and vigour
- **Freedom from discomfort** by providing an appropriate environment including shelter and a comfortable resting area
- **Freedom from pain**, injury and disease by prevention or rapid diagnosis and treatment
- **Freedom to express normal behaviour** by providing sufficient space, proper facilities and company of the animal's own kind
- **Freedom from fear and distress** by ensuring conditions and treatment which avoid mental suffering

These represent a useful checklist to identify situations that compromise good animal welfare; that is any situation that causes fear, pain, discomfort, injury, disease or behavioural distress.

**Needs**

Needs, defined as "a requirement, fundamental in the biology of the animal, to obtain a particular resource or respond to a particular environmental or bodily stimulus" (Broom & Johnson, 1993), should be provided for to ensure an animal's welfare.

Needs may include a range of provisions such as food, water, comfort, environmental enrichment and avoidance of infectious disease and may be classified, in terms of relative importance, into:

- **Life sustaining needs**: must be met to ensure survival
- **Health sustaining needs**: avoidance of disease and injury
- **Comfort sustaining needs**: contribute to the quality of life

(Humik & Lehmen, 1985).

All of these needs should be met to ensure good animal welfare.

**Sentience**

Sentience implies a level of conscious awareness; having feelings and emotions and being able to suffer.

Sentience implies that animals:

- Are aware of their own surroundings
- Have an emotional dimension
- Are aware of what is happening to them
- Have the ability to learn from experience
- Are aware of bodily sensations: pain, hunger, heat, cold etc.
- Are aware of their relationships with other animals
- Have the ability to choose between different animals, objects and situations

There is now widespread recognition of the 'sentience' of animals, which reinforces the need to protect their welfare. The European Union has officially recognised animals to be 'Sentient Beings' since the inclusion of a protocol on animal welfare in the Treaty of Amsterdam signed in 1997.

**Science, Ethics and Law**

Animal welfare science considers the effects of humans on animals, from the animal's perspective. Scientific evidence is often used as the basis for the reform of animal welfare legislation, and has been instrumental in bringing about numerous changes for farm animals, animals used in research and zoo animals. Science is not the only criterion for judging welfare, as other less tangible factors are also involved.
Ethics looks at the morality of human actions towards animals; how humans currently treat animals, and how they ought to treat animals.

Legislation looks at how we must treat animals; it is a reflection of society's rules governing the use and treatment of animals. It is arguable that law is simply the practical application of the current state of science and ethics in a society, as accepted by consumers and ultimately politicians.

HISTORY OF ANIMAL PROTECTION

Understanding the history of the animal protection movement is important for a number of reasons.

Firstly, by studying the history of animal protection, we learn about the animal welfare problems that existed in the past, the efforts made to address them, and specific achievements. This helps us learn from history and helps us to avoid the same mistakes, or repeat successes.

In addition, understanding the history of the movement will help us understand how today’s efforts may lead to significant changes in the future and how gradual progress will finally help animals to receive better treatment in our society. We may not be able to see all the changes ourselves but by understanding the successes in history we can feel assured that our efforts are moving in the right direction.

Finally and most importantly, studying animal protection history teaches us that the movement cannot be isolated from social change, politics, culture and economics. In fact, the development of the animal protection movement is strongly connected to these areas.

Although each individual country has its own historical perspective, this section focuses primarily on the history of the movement in England. England has the longest history of animal protection and many of its themes are paralleled in the history of the movement in Europe and North America.

Human Attitudes Towards Animals

Historical evidence in England suggests that from 1500 to 1800 “it was conventional to regard the world as made for man and all other species as subordinate to his wishes.” However, people lived closely with animals. For example the keeping of pets was widespread and became a normal feature of family life as early as 1700.

Jeremy Bentham’s most notable claim in the 18th century, “The question about animals is not can they reason, nor can they talk, but can they suffer?”, provides the fundamental concepts for the animal welfare movement. During the same period, many writers and poets started to express their sympathy towards animals and criticised cruelty to animals and their exploitation.

Human-animal relationships have changed as a result of agricultural development, economic growth, urban expansion and political change. In Britain, 19th century industrialisation stimulated changes in attitudes towards the natural world and also affected the urbanisation of social life. With the industrialisation of society, people gradually lost contact and affinity with animals as traditional dependence on animals declined.

As contact with working animals decreased, people developed a closer relationship with their pets. By the 19th century, it was commonplace to keep household animals in Britain; this helped to develop an anthropomorphic view, in which human qualities were applied to non-humans.
INTRODUCTION

Historical Milestones in the Animal Protection Movement

“EVERY GREAT MOVEMENT HAS TO EXPERIENCE THREE STAGES: RIDICULE, DISCUSSION, ADOPTION.” ~ John Stuart Mill

In 1781, the first law relating to animals was passed, which scrutinised the treatment of cattle in Smithfield market in London. In 1786 legislation was passed requiring a license to slaughter. Although it was not passed, a bill to stop bull baiting was read in the British Parliament in 1800.

In 1822, Richard Martin’s Act to ‘Prevent the Cruel and Improper Treatment of Cattle’ was passed by the British Parliament. This was the first parliamentary legislation for animal welfare in the world, and made it an offense to beat or ill-treat a number of animals such as horses, sheep and cattle.

In 1824 the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (which became the Royal SPCA in 1840) was established. The society worked mainly on law enforcement and prosecutions. In 1835, the Act was amended and expanded to include protection of all domestic animals, such as dogs and cats.

The first American animal protection organisation, the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, was established in 1866. By 1900, several hundred other animal protection organisations had formed in America.

In 1860, Mrs Mary Tealby, who was the first woman to found a British animal welfare organisation, founded the Battersea Dogs Home, formerly named the Temporary Home for Lost and Starving Dogs. The organisation was the first place to provide a home for stray dogs.

Beginning in the 1870s, mammals, particularly dogs and cats, were used by vivisectors instead of reptiles, which had been used during the 1830s and 1840s. During the 1870s, groups were set up to fight vivisection, such as the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection and the National Anti-Vivisection Society. Although the SPCA condemned vivisection from the outset as an abuse of animals, legislation was not introduced until 1876. This ‘act to amend the law relating to cruelty to animals’, was the first of its kind in the world, and regulated a licensing procedure and general inspection of animal experiments.

In 1906 a famous event known as the ‘Brown Dog Affair’ occurred. Two medical students exposed shockingly cruel experimental procedures on animals used by medical institutions in the name of science. This led to a statue of a brown dog being erected in Battersea Park, London by the International Anti-Vivisection Council. It was a symbolic memorial for animals vivisected in laboratories. A year later, 100 medical students tried to remove the statue but local citizens successfully defended it. Although the statue disappeared in 1910, in the same year several thousand people attended a protest against vivisection in Trafalgar Square. The incident gained a great deal of publicity for the anti-vivisection cause and also stimulated considerable discussion in the press at the time.

The following year, in 1911, the Protection of Animals Act was passed in the UK, which consolidated all the existing animal protection legislation.

During the First and Second World Wars, the movement was not very active. Richard Ryder, a UK scholar, claims that the history of social reform suggests that war has a numbing effect upon conscience.

In the 1960s the cruelty of intensive farming of ‘food animals’ (so-called ‘factory farming’) was revealed to the public and shocked the world. Ruth Harrison’s seminal book Animal Machines, published in 1964, was instrumental in increasing both public and government awareness and
stirring public debate. In 1967, Peter Roberts founded Compassion in World Farming to protest against the abuse of farm animals.

However, at the official and legislative level little had changed in practice. The hope of campaigners turned to disappointment and frustration with government inaction. During the 1970s, public recognition of animal rights increased as the idea of stopping animal exploitation was raised. Activists became disenchanted by the failure of the government to take humane, effective action on animal issues. Animal Liberation, the highly influential book by Peter Singer, motivated many activists at this time and led to increased mobilisation of the movement. Public demonstrations, protests and petitions were organised. The removal of animals from laboratories and factory farms, as well as the sabotage of hunting, laboratories and breeding establishments, has continued since the 1970s. Such activities and events provided a controversial way to increase public awareness of the animal rights issue.

From the 1970s, the movement for the protection of animals started to split into two categories: animal welfare and animal rights. Those who believe in animal rights believe in an animal's natural right to life. They seek to establish basic rights for animals and stop the abuse and exploitation of animals by humans. Those who believe in animal welfare tend to accept human use of animals, as long as that use is humane. Both welfare and rights groups often refer to themselves as animal protection organisations. There are different views and ongoing debates regarding the difference between animal rights and animal welfare. Some argue that the philosophical differences between animal rights and animal welfare are irrelevant and that only ‘compassion, concern and respect for animals’ matters.

In 2002, Germany became the first European nation to protect animals in its national constitution, by stipulating that “The state takes responsibility for protecting the natural foundations of life and animals in the interest of future generations.” Switzerland also acknowledged that animals were ‘beings’ through a constitutional amendment. The change of status of animals in the legal systems of these two countries has served as a historic milestone for the animal protection movement.

As can be seen in the chapter on Animal Protection Legislation, the European Union has been an enormous force in carrying forward animal welfare advances throughout Europe. The European Union introduced a Protocol to its founding Treaty back in 1997, requiring European institutions to take account of animal welfare when considering legislation in the areas of research, transport, agriculture and the internal market. Another major influence in Europe has been the Council of Europe, which, despite being established in 1949 as the bastion of human rights in Europe, subsequently included animal welfare in its sphere of activities.

Colonial influences led to the setting up of many SPCA-type organisations in Asia, South America and Africa. Some of these were set up decades ago with the majority of groups tackling issues concerning dogs and cats, and most of the founders were ‘western’ expatriates. Nowadays, however, local people run many of these organisations and more new organisations are being set up by local people to tackle a wide range of animal protection issues.

In the last few decades, many groups in Britain and North America have started to shift their campaign focus from their own countries to countries abroad. Various international campaigns such as whaling, sealing, bear farming, long-distance transport and bushmeat, are calling for international attention and support. Many countries new to the animal protection movement have gained awareness from such initiatives and have started to develop their own animal protection programmes. Long-term support and resources for organisations in these countries is vital for the development of the animal protection movement globally.

Although philosophers through the ages have discussed the place of animals in the world order, the animal protection movement is a fairly recent occurrence in history. Many countries may not
have a 200-year history like Britain in defending animals. However, there are more and more individuals and groups who have started to cultivate the ground and sow the seeds for the global animal protection movement.

**ETHICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL VIEWS**

Ethics are, in effect, a set of moral principles or codes. They are highly personal and change and evolve throughout our lives. Various factors affect an individual’s code of ethics towards animals, including external factors, such as culture, religion, education and upbringing, and internal factors, such as an individual’s level of compassion, ability to empathise and depth of thinking.

"THE GREATNESS OF A NATION AND ITS MORAL PROGRESS CAN BE JUDGED BY THE WAY ITS ANIMALS ARE TREATED." – Mahatma Gandhi

The Evolution of Ethics
A historical study of certain societies illustrates that ethics evolve in line with cultural (and individual) development. Gradually, exploitation, injustice and oppression are recognised and rejected – as can be seen with examples such as the abolition of slavery, the banning of racism and the introduction of sexual equality.

It is interesting to note that many individuals who championed causes of human welfare also campaigned against cruelty to animals. These include: William Wilberforce, who campaigned to abolish slavery; great Victorian reformers, such as Lord Shaftesbury, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill; black spokesperson Toussaint L’Ouverture of Haiti; and even Abraham Lincoln.

Our ethical foundations, especially in the West, have evolved as a human-biased morality, but the past 20 to 25 years have brought a significant change. Animal exploitation and suffering is increasingly recognised and dealt with as ethical attitudes develop, but this invariably takes longer, as human identification with animal suffering requires a greater degree of empathy and compassion.

The moral and political importance of animal welfare is increasingly being recognised despite the fact that “exploitation of them has ingrained into our institutions” (Midgely). This is an indication of the moral strength of animal ethics. Governments throughout Europe and beyond feel growing pressure from their concerned electorates in respect of animal welfare issues. Consequently, parliaments debate and legislate on animal welfare, and respected forums such as the International Organisation for Animal Health (OIE) and the Council of Europe prepare conventions, recommendations and standards covering the protection of animals in different situations.

"UNTIL HE EXTENDS THE CIRCLE OF HIS COMPASSION TO ALL LIVING THINGS, MAN WILL NOT HIMSELF FIND PEACE." – Albert Schweitzer

Range of Views on Animal Issues
There are many different viewpoints concerning man’s relationship with animals. The variety of approaches to animal issues is entirely consistent with the fact that ethics vary from person to person:

Animal liberationists are fundamentally opposed to animal use or ownership by humans. Some will resort to illegal activities to release or rescue animals, believing that they have the moral right because existing laws are inadequate.
Animal Protectionist is a general term, which encompasses all categories of people seeking to improve the status and situation of animals. It covers a wider span of beliefs than animal welfare. The ethical standpoint of animal protectionists is based on the belief that each individual animal has an intrinsic value and should be respected and protected. They should be permitted to live their lives free from avoidable suffering at the hands of humans. In this regard, all animals kept by humans should be kept in circumstances appropriate to their species and where the needs of a species cannot be met, the species should not be kept.

Animal rights denotes the philosophical belief that animals should have rights, including the right to live their lives free from human intervention, and ultimate death at the hands of humans. Animal-rightists are philosophically opposed to the use of animals by humans, although some accept ‘symbiotic’ relationships, such as companion animal ownership.

Animal use signifies the legal use of animals, such as animal experimentation, farming etc.

Animal welfare denotes the desire to prevent unnecessary animal suffering; that is, whilst not categorically being opposed to the use of animals, wanting to ensure a good quality of life and humane death.

Conservationists focus on protecting species, populations and habitats, whereas animal welfarists focus on the individual animal. The conservation movement has gathered momentum over the last forty years.

Vegetarians do not eat any meat, poultry, game, fish, shellfish, or slaughter by-products such as gelatine or animal fats. The reasons for people becoming vegetarian are numerous, but many have an ethical objection to eating meat, or a concern about the suffering of animals, particularly in intensive farming systems.

Veganism is a way of life that seeks to exclude, as far as possible, anything derived from animals. Vegans do not consume any animal products, including eggs, dairy products or honey and also avoid the use of all products derived from animals, such as wool, leather and silk.

Summary of Philosophical Beliefs
Numerous philosophers have discussed animal ethics over the centuries. Examples of key philosophical views are highlighted below to illustrate how animal ethics continues to evolve.

Aristotle (Greek, 384–322BC) firmly held the view that animals were on the earth for the use of man: “Plants exist for the sake of animals and brute beasts for the sake of man – domestic animals for his use and food, wild ones for food and other accessories of life, such as clothing and various tools. Since nature makes nothing purposeless or in vain, it is undeniably true that she has made all the animals for the sake of man.”

He was arguably initially responsible for the superior attitude that many Western countries have taken towards animals. He believed that animals were devoid of reason, and reason was what clearly distinguished humans from animals.

Plutarch (Greek, 46–c.120 AD) spoke out strongly against animal cruelty. He did not support the view that animals were put on the earth to be preyed upon by man and pointed to the intrinsic value of animals, their beauty, grace and the way in which they enrich nature. Unfortunately, Plutarch and others were unable to change the general ethos of the times.

Michel de Montaigne (French, 1533–1592) denounced any form of cruelty, whether towards humans or animals. He pointed out that animals communicate effectively amongst their own
species and that it is arrogance in the extreme for humans to label animals as stupid and unfeeling simply because humans cannot understand them.

**Descartes** (French, 1596–1650) believed that animals were like machines and not capable of experiencing pain. Therefore, he had few qualms about experimenting on them without administering any form of anaesthesia. The main reason for his belief was that animals were not capable of using speech or exhibiting emotion.

The idea that animals act in a machine-like fashion with no conscious thought processes of any kind is one of the oldest ideas in philosophy. But the more we find out about animals, the more this idea is disappearing. Evidence is growing that animals have far more cognitive abilities than has traditionally been believed that they are sentient creatures.

In the period known as the 'Enlightenment' (18th century), philosophers' interests centred on the concept of 'rationality', stressing the superiority of the human mind, with its power to reason. Little regard was given to the laws of nature or to the importance of feelings; human rights and morals were defined from this basis.

**Voltaire** (French, 1694–1778) stressed that speech was not necessary in conveying feelings. In the same way that we could tell a person's mood from his demeanour, we could tell when animals were experiencing feelings such as pleasure, anxiety and suffering. He noted that the physiology of animals closely resembled that of man, having pain receptors, nerves etc.

> "PEOPLE MUST HAVE RENOUNCED, IT SEEMS TO ME, ALL NATURAL INTELLIGENCE TO DARE TO ADVANCE THAT ANIMALS ARE BUT ANIMATED MACHINES... IT APPEARS TO ME, BESIDES, THAT [SUCH PEOPLE] CAN NEVER HAVE OBSERVED WITH ATTENTION THE CHARACTER OF ANIMALS, NOT TO HAVE DISTINGUISHED AMONG THEM THE DIFFERENT VOICES OF NEED, OF SUFFERING, OF JOY, OF PAIN, OF LOVE, OF ANGER, AND OF ALL THEIR AFFECTIONS. IT WOULD BE VERY STRANGE THAT THEY SHOULD EXPRESS SO WELL WHAT THEY COULD NOT FEEL." ~ Voltaire

**Kant** (German, 1724–1804) was a rationalist philosopher who did not consider that man had any direct duties towards animals although he denounced cruelty and believed that man should be kind to animals because this would develop humane feelings towards mankind.

**Schopenhauer** (German, 1788–1860) felt the similarities between humans and animals were incomparably greater than any differences. He stated that “compassion for animals is intimately connected with goodness of character and it may be confidently asserted that he who is cruel to animals cannot be a good man”.

**Jeremy Bentham** (English 1748–1832) was the founder of Utilitarianism, a philosophy that believed in trying to find the action necessary to produce the best ratio of pleasure (happiness) to pain (suffering) amongst all those we affect. His most famous quote attacked the narrowness of the ‘rationality’ argument directly: “The question about animals is not can they reason, nor can they talk, but can they suffer?”

He likened the plight of animals to that of slaves, in that slaves represented a sector of the human species that were treated as ‘lesser beings’. He held that the day would come when the rest of animal creation would similarly acquire the rights withheld from them by the hand of tyranny, in the same way that the slaves had.
John Stuart Mill (British, 1806–1873) supported Jeremy Bentham’s viewpoint. He felt that it was entirely natural, and moral, for man to care about the pain and pleasure of another species.

Charles Darwin (English 1809–1882) felt it had been well established that ‘lower animals’ were excited by the same emotions as humans. He stated: “The lower animals, like man, manifestly feel pleasure and pain, happiness and misery. Happiness is never better exhibited than by young animals, such as puppies, kittens, lambs etc., when playing together, like our own children.” His observations showed that terror acts on animals in the same way as on people; causing muscle trembling, heart palpitations, sphincter relaxation and making hair stand on end. He also stressed the positive feelings and emotions of animals, such as the enduring love of a dog for its master and the maternal affection of animals such as primates and the display of altruistic emotions, such as sympathy.

Albert Schweitzer’s (German 1875–1965) most lasting legacy is the articulation of his basic philosophy ‘reverence for life’, culminating in his two-volume Philosophy of Civilisation. Schweitzer saw reverence for life as a practical lifetime ethic, rather than a philosophical message. He described it as the ethic of love widened into universality. Life was regarded as sacred and adherents would go out of their way to avoid injuring anything living.

Contemporary Views

Peter Singer did much to increase awareness of the inherent immorality of animal exploitation, which he felt was the last remaining form of discrimination. His seminal book Animal Liberation, published in 1974, explores the concept of ethics in the treatment of animals and asks such thought-provoking questions as “Why do we lock up chimpanzees in appalling primate research centres and use them in experiments that range from the uncomfortable to the agonising and lethal, yet would never think of doing the same to a retarded human being at a much lower mental level?”

Tom Regan and other philosophers, such as Stephen Clark and Bernard Rollin, have put forward the argument about animals having rights. This is a particularly attractive proposition in the USA, where human rights evoke such a strong response. However, the argument has its drawbacks, as rights are seen to come with responsibilities, which animals arguably lack, particularly in a legal sense.

Gary Francione, an American professor of law, has forced the animal rights movement to confront an enormous dichotomy that exists between the welfarist stance and the animal rightist philosophy. His viewpoint is that if animals have any moral significance at all (i.e. they are not things to whom we have no direct moral obligations), then we must extend to them one right – the right not to be
property. His is an abolitionist position. Francione differs from all other theorists who have gone before him, including Peter Singer, in that his theory does not rest upon cognitive capacity (beyond the ability to feel pain) for possession of this one basic right.

“NON-VIOLENCE LEADS TO THE HIGHEST ETHICS, WHICH IS THE GOAL OF ALL EVOLUTION. UNTIL WE STOP HARMING ALL OTHER LIVING BEINGS, WE ARE STILL SAVAGES.” ~ Thomas A. Edison

RELIgION

Religion is all about beliefs – beliefs about creation, purpose, destiny, life and love. It shapes the lives of believers, affecting all aspects of their being, including their day-to-day behaviour. The animal protection movement is about changing and shaping people's belief systems about animals. It follows, therefore, that religion can be important to the animal protection movement. Religion can affect attitudes towards animals and the way in which they are treated, either positively or negatively, and can also be used in support of the animal protection cause.

Religion Causing Animal Welfare Problems
There are cases where religious beliefs actually cause animal cruelty and/or suffering. Some examples follow.

Cruel Fiestas: Fiestas take place in villages throughout Spain and other countries each year, often to celebrate saints’ days. Not all involve cruelty to animals, but many do. Previous acts of cruelty have included:

• A donkey being beaten, paraded and crushed in the Pero Palo fiestas, at Villanueva de la Vera.
• Goats being paraded in the streets and then thrown from the church tower in Manganese de la Polvorosa.
• Chickens hung from a line and having their heads pulled off (by hand) by horsemen in Nalda.
• Chickens hung from a line and cut to pieces by blindfolded young girls with blunted swords in Tordesillas.

Village priests and nuns were reportedly involved in some of these fiestas, making the acts of cruelty appear acceptable.

Animal Sacrifice: Many religions have traditionally performed animal sacrifice. Despite remaining in the holy books of the world’s major traditional religions, most religions have rejected animal sacrifice in practice. However, it is still practised by the followers of Santeria and other ancient religions as a means of curing the sick and giving thanks to the gods, for example to mark significant events such as a birth, marriage or death for example.

Religious Slaughter: Humane slaughter involves pre-stunning, followed by killing. Stunning is performed by special equipment (a captive bolt to give a blow to the head for example) to render the animal unconscious. When performed properly, this makes the animal immediately unconscious and insensible to pain, until its subsequent death by bleeding. However, animals killed by Jewish shechita and Moslem halal methods are not stunned, and are fully conscious when killed by having their throats cut.

Both of these traditional methods are laid out in their respective religious texts and were probably the most humane slaughter methods available at the time these were written. However, as can be
seen with animal sacrifices, many religions review and reinterpret such texts in the light of current scientific knowledge and cultural acceptability. In practice, Muslims often permit pre-stunning (for example, in the UK), whereas Jews do not, although immediate post-cut stunning may be allowed.

**Summary of the Major Religions and their Attitudes Towards Animals**

For the great Eastern religions, Hinduism and Buddhism, nature is held as sacred and humans are not more significant than any other living thing. This contrasts markedly with Judaism, Islam and Christianity, which are human-centred religions.

**Hinduism:** There are many stories in Hindu mythology portraying animals treated with love and reverence. A principle of Hinduism is ahimsa (harmlessness), and in India this is even written into the constitution. Strict followers of Hinduism are vegetarian.

To a Hindu, animal souls are the same as human souls, progressing to higher means of conscious expression in each life. Hinduism teaches that every soul takes on a life for a particular reason and to kill an animal stops the progression of the soul and thus causes great suffering.

"ONE IS DEAREST TO GOD WHO HAS NO ENEMIES AMONG THE LIVING BEINGS, WHO IS NONVIOLENT TO ALL CREATURES." ~ Bhagavad Gita

**Jainism:** Jains believe that everything natural is living, and all life is sacred. Any kind of harm to any form of life is to be avoided or minimised. All living beings, humans and animals, have an equal right to life. Not only do humans have no absolute rights – to take, to control, or to subjugate other forms of life – but they also have extra obligations to practise nonviolence, and to be humble in the face of the mysterious, glorious, abundant and extraordinary phenomena of the living world. Almost all of India’s eight to ten million Jains are vegetarians, reflecting this nonviolence belief.

**Buddhism** is based upon a universal idea of compassion for all life. A man is holy if he has pity on all living creatures. Eating meat is not permitted to committed followers. The Buddhist faith also teaches that sentient beings are subject to rebirth as other sentient beings and that consciousness cannot be killed. Thus, there is an interconnectedness of all living beings. The first of the Five Precepts, which are the foundation of Buddhist ethical conduct, is not to harm sentient beings.

**Judaism** is as much a code of practice for living as a religion and frequently brings animals into the moral arena. For example, working animals, like people, must rest on the Sabbath. Judaism embraces the Hebrew concept of *tsa'ar ba'alei hayim* – the mandate to prevent the ‘sorrow of living creatures’. Jews are forbidden to hunt, but eating meat is left to the individual conscience. Vegetarianism was the first dietary law, but after the Flood, permission was given to eat meat, but only with many restrictions and with a sense of reverence for life. Animals that are permitted and forbidden to be eaten are listed in the Book of Leviticus. Permitted animals are domesticated animals which chew the cud and have cloven hooves. The pig, camel and hare are not permitted, and neither is the blood of any animal, which may not be eaten out of respect for the animal’s life.

"THE TZADDIK (RIGHTHEOUS PERSON) ACTS ACCORDING TO THE LAWS OF JUSTICE; NOT ONLY DOES HE ACT ACCORDING TO THESE LAWS WITH HUMAN BEINGS, BUT ALSO WITH ANIMALS." ~ The Malbim

**Islam:** The Qur’an, the Hadith and the history of Islamic civilisation offer many examples of kindness, mercy and compassion for animals. The holy prophet Mohammed said “A good deed done to an animal is as meritorious as a good deed done to a human being, while an act of cruelty to an animal is as bad as an act of cruelty to a human being.”
Muslims are directed by the Qur’an to abstain from eating certain foods, including pork and its by-products and animal blood.

The Hadith contain a great number of references to dogs. A few detail positive characteristics of the dog; their loyalty and their herding abilities. Thus, dogs used by shepherds or as guard dogs are religiously permitted. But many references denounce dogs as unclean, for example if the saliva from a dog touches the clothing of a Muslim, it becomes unclean for prayer.

One of the few Islamic scholars to write on animal welfare was Al-Hafiz B. A. Masri, who founded the International Muslim Association for Animals and Nature. Masri urged that religious beliefs be harnessed with practical reverence for all creation.

**THE ‘ANIMALS IN ISLAM’ CONFERENCE IN MOHARRAM, EGYPT**

A conference on ‘Animals in Islam’ was held at the Al Azhar University in Egypt in February 2004. It was organised by Brooke Hospital, the Donkey Sanctuary, Animal Friends and SPARE (Society for the Protection of Animal Rights in Egypt). The conference was attended by Islamic leaders, scholars in Muslim law and veterinary medicine, and representatives of other specialised government organisations.

This was an excellent initiative that raised awareness of animal protection issues and relevant messages in Islamic teachings. One important recommendation reached at the conference was that the concept of kindness to animals should be included in religious speeches and lessons.

Christianity shares Judaism’s creation story, which many Christians have interpreted as commanding respect for all of nature and its inhabitants. This sentiment was reflected in Jesus’ ministry, which stressed love and peace. Recognising this, many devout Christians have been leaders of pacifist, environmental and animal advocacy movements.

In general, however, established Christianity was not sympathetic to animals and some Christians still think that animals were put on the earth for human use. Thankfully, nowadays ‘dominion’ over animals has come to be interpreted rather more sympathetically as ‘stewardship’ (protective caring) of animals rather than power over them.

St Francis of Assisi is considered the patron saint of animals in the Christian tradition, encouraging respect and reverence for all life.

“IF YOU HAVE MEN WHO WILL EXCLUDE ANY OF GOD’S CREATURES FROM THE SHELTER OF COMPASSION AND PITY, YOU WILL HAVE MEN WHO WILL DEAL LIKENWISE WITH THEIR FELLOW MEN.” ~ St Francis of Assisi

The Roman Catholic Catechism, which is the codified text of dominant Roman Catholic views, contains many positive precepts about animals, including the fact that animals are ‘God’s creatures’. However, it also reinforces the concept of dominion and sets out acceptable uses of animals, including food and clothing, domestication, work and leisure, medical and scientific experiments etc. It also speaks against spending money on animals that could better go to the relief of human suffering and giving animals ‘the affection due only to persons’.
The Greek Orthodox Church has not been noted as having an historic appreciation for the plight of suffering animals, or any particularly marked recognition of the important role of animals in God’s creation. However, there was an important saint of the Greek Orthodox Church, St Modestos, who is still considered to be the patron saint of animals for the church (similar to St Francis of Assisi).

“I CARE NOT FOR A MAN’S RELIGION WHOSE DOG AND CAT ARE NOT THE BETTER FOR IT.” ~ Abraham Lincoln

**FURTHER RESOURCES**

**Basic Concepts of Animal Welfare**

**Websites**

The American Institute for Animal Science  
www.worldofanimalscience.com/

Animal Behavior Society  
www.animalbehavior.org/

Cambridge E-learning Institute (CEI)  
www.animal-info.net/edu.htm  
CEI has developed an online course in animal welfare. The postgraduate course introduces students to the main concepts of animal welfare science through online discussions between students and tutors.

The Institute for Animals and Society  
www.animalsandsociety.org/  
Animals and Society is a think tank, which provides education and training, including a course on ‘Animals and Society’ that examines the moral and legal status of animals in contemporary society.

International Society for Applied Ethology  
www.applied-ethology.org/

The Latham Foundation  
www.latham.org

UC Davis Questions about Animal Welfare  
www.vetmed.ucdavis.edu/vetext/FAQ-AN.HTML

**Books**

Animal Thinking  
D. R. Griffin  
Publisher: Harvard University Press  
ISBN: 0674037138

Animal Welfare  
Michael C. Appleby and Barry O. Hughes  
Publisher: CAB International  
ISBN: 0851991807
INTRODUCTION

Animal Welfare
Colin Spedding
Publisher: Earthscan
ISBN: 1853836729

Animal Welfare: A Cool Eye Towards Eden
John Webster
Publisher: Blackwell Science (UK)
ISBN: 0632039280

Animal Welfare
Bel Browning
Publisher: Heinemann Library
ISBN: 0431161496

Attitudes to Animals: Views in Animal Welfare
Francine L. Dolins (Editor)
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521479061

Encyclopedia of Animal Rights and Animal Welfare
M. Bekoff (Editor)
Publisher: Greenwood Press
ISBN: 0313299773

An Introduction to Animal Behaviour
A. N. Manning, M. S. Dawkins
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521578914

Stress and Animal Welfare
D. M. Broom, K. G. Johnson
Publisher: Kluwer Academic Publishers
ISBN: 0412395800

The Study of Animal Behaviour
F. Huntingford
Publisher: Kluwer Academic Publishers
ISBN: 0412223309

Through Our Eyes Only?
M. S. Dawkins
Publisher: Oxford University Press
ISBN: 0198503202

Unravelling Animal Behaviour
M. S. Dawkins
Publisher: Longman (2nd Edition)
ISBN: 0582218756
What Should We Do About Animal Welfare?
M. C. Appleby
Publisher: Blackwell Science Inc.
ISBN: 0632050667

WSPA Resources
Concepts in Animal Welfare
A syllabus to assist with the teaching of animal welfare in veterinary faculties (2003)

History of Animal Protection

Websites
Animal Rights International: Henry Spira
www.ari-online.org/pages/henry.html

A Brief History of British Animal Welfare
www.all-creatures.org/ca/ark-188history.html

Farm Animal Welfare – the focus of animal protection in the USA in the 21st century
www.tufts.edu/vet/cfa/faw.pdf

History of Animal Protection Laws
www.badgerland.co.uk/animals/animal_protection_laws.html

History of Animal Shelters and Protection Societies
petcaretips.net/history-aspca.html

History of the League and the campaign to abolish hunting 1802-2002
www.league.uk.com/about_us/history.htm

The History and Division of the Animal Protection Movement:
Animal Welfare vs. Animal Rights
www.parkc.org/history_division_apm.htm

HSUS: Protecting All Animals: A Fifty-Year History of The Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/ace/20480

Books
All Heaven in a Rage
E. S. Turner
Publisher: Joseph
ISBN: B0000CMA4T

Animal Century
Mark Gold
Publisher: Jon Carpenter
ISBN: 1897766432

The Animal Revolution
Richard D. Ryder
Publisher: Blackwell Publishers
ISBN: 0631152393
**Animal Rights**  
Hilda Keen  
Publisher: Reaktion Books Ltd  
ISBN: 1861890141

**The Animal Rights Crusade**  
James A. Jasper & Dorothy Nelkin  
Publisher: Free Press  
ISBN: 0029161959

**Animal Rights: History and Scope of a Radical Social Movement**  
Harold D. Guither  
Publisher: Southern Illinois University Press  
ISBN: 0809321998

**The Animal Rights Movement in America**  
Lawrence Finsen & Susan Finsen  
Publisher: Twayne Publishers  
ISBN: 0805738843

**Campaigning Against Cruelty: Hundred Year History of the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection**  
Emma Hopley  
Publisher: BUAV  
ISBN: 1870356160

**Compassion is the Bugler: Struggle for Animal Rights**  
Clive Hollands  
Publisher: Macdonald Publishers  
ISBN: 0904265358

**History of the Humane Movement**  
C. D. Niven  
Publisher: Johnson Publications.  
ISBN: 0853070288

**Man and the Natural World: Change Attitudes in England 1500-1800**  
Keith Thomas  
Publisher: Oxford University Press  
ISBN: 0195111222

**The Old Brown Dog: Women, Workers and Vivisection in Edwardian England**  
Coral Lansbury  
Publisher: University of Wisconsin Press  
ISBN: 0299102505

**Ethical and Philosophical Views**

**Websites**

Center for Environmental Philosophy  
www.cep.unt.edu
INTRODUCTION

Environmental Ethics
www.environmentalethics.ca

Ethical Matrix CIWF
www.animalsentience.com/features/ethical_matrix.htm

Ethics Updates
ethics.acusd.edu

Peter Singer website
www.petersingerlinks.com

Philosophical Discussion of the Moral Status of Nonhuman Animals
animalethics.blogspot.com

Selected Internet Resources on the Moral Status of Animals
ethics.sandiego.edu/Applied/Animals

Sentience website CIWF
www.animalsentience.com

Society and Animals Forum (formerly Psychologists for the Ethical Treatment of Animals)
www.psyeta.org

Books
All That Dwell Therein
Tom Regan
Publisher: University of California Press
ISBN: 0520045718

The Animal Contract
Desmond Morris
Publisher: ISIS Large Print
ISBN: 1856950964
Contains a ‘Bill of Rights’ for animals, which Desmond Morris believes is practical and feasible.

Animal Liberation
Peter Singer
Publisher: Pimlico
ISBN: 0712674446
This book did much to bring attention to ethical issues concerning animals – a classic philosophical
text on the modern animal liberation movement.
**Animals’ Rights: A Symposium**  
David Paterson (Editor) & Richard Ryder (Editor)  
Publisher: Open Gate Press  
ISBN: 0900000902

**Animal Rights: A Very Short Introduction**  
David DeGrazia  
Publisher: Oxford Paperbacks  
ISBN: 0192853600

**Animal Rights and Human Obligations**  
Tom Regan & Peter Singer  
Publisher: Prentice Hall  
ISBN: 0130375314

**Animal Rights: The Changing Debate**  
R. Garner  
Publisher: New York University Press  
ISBN: 0814730981

**Animal Welfare**  
Sir Colin Spedding  
Publisher: Earthscan  
ISBN: 1853836729

**Animals and Why They Matter**  
Mary Midgley  
Publisher: University of Georgia Press  
ISBN: 0820320412

**Attitudes to Animals: Views in Animal Welfare**  
F. L. Dolins  
Publisher: Cambridge University Press  
ISBN: 052147342X

**Bioethics: An Anthology**  
H. Kuhse & P. Singer  
Publisher: Blackwell Publishers  
ISBN: 0631203117

**The Case for Animal Rights**  
Tom Regan  
Publisher: University of California Press  
ISBN: 0520054601  
Rigorous exploration of the case for animal rights

**Defending Animal Rights**  
Tom Regan  
Publisher: University of Illinois Press  
ISBN: 025202611X
**Dominion**  
Matthew Scully  
Publisher: Saint Martin's Press  
ISBN: 0312261470

**Ethics, Humans and Other Animals: An Introduction with Readings**  
Rosalind Hursthouse  
Publisher: Routledge  
ISBN: 0415212421

**The Extended Circle**  
J. Wynne-Tyson  
Publisher: Open Gate Press  
ISBN: 0900001224  
A to Z of writings to promote compassionate and responsible attitudes – an anthology of humane thought

**The Human Use of Animals: Case Studies in Ethical Choice**  
F. B. Orlans et al  
Publisher: Oxford University Press  
ISBN: 0195119088

**In Defense of Animals: The Second Wave**  
Peter Singer  
Publisher: Blackwell Publishing  
ISBN: 1405119411

**On the Fifth Day: Animal Rights and Human Ethics**  
Richard Knowles Morris (Editor) & Michael W. Fox (Editor)  
Publisher: Acropolis Bks, US  
ISBN: 0874911966

**The Unheeded Cry: Animal Consciousness, Animal Pain and Science**  
Bernard Rollin  
Publisher: Iowa State University Press  
ISBN: 0813825768

**Religion**

**Websites**

**Animals and Religious Organisations**

**The Anglican Society for the Welfare of Animals**  
www.aswa.org.uk/

**An Animal Voice – website on animals and religion**  
www.animalsuffering.com/religion.html

**Animal Protection Institute: Religion and Animal Rights**  
www.api4animals.org

**Biospirituality and World Religions and Philosophies**  
www.vegsource.com/biospirituality/religion.html
Catholic Concern for Animals  
www.catholic-animals.org/

Christian Vegetarian Association  
www.christianveg.com/

A Communion of Subjects: Animals in Religion and Ethics  
Paul Waldau and Kimberley Patton  
environment.harvard.edu/religion/publications/books/book_series/animals/

Harvard University Center for the Environment  
environment.harvard.edu/

Jews for Animal Rights: Micah Publications  
www.micahbooks.com/JAR.html

Links to animals and spirituality websites and articles  
www.abc.net.au/religion/stories/s939818.htm

Society & Animals Journal of Human-Animal Studies: Animals in Religion  
www.psyeta.org/sa/sa2.2/sax.html

Religion and Animals: A Changing Scene  
Paul Waldau  
files.hsus.org/web-files/PDF/soa_ii_chap06.pdf

Religious Thought About Animals  
online.sfsu.edu/%7Erone/Religion/religionanimals.html#religion

Buddhism  
Buddhist Resources on Vegetarianism and Animal Welfare  
online.sfsu.edu/%7Erone/Buddhism/BuddhismAnimalsVegetarian/BuddhistVegetarian.htm

Buddhism and Animals  
www.anaflora.com/articles/oth-sharon/animal-bud.html

Buddha in the Deer Park  
www.anaflora.com/articles/ana-saints/saint-19.html

Christianity  
Christianity and Animals: An Interview with Andrew Linzey  
www.satyamag.com/feb96/linzey.html

The Fund for Animals: Frequently Asked Questions about the Bible and Animal Rights  

Is Christianity Anti-Environmental?  
www.godandscience.org/apologetics/environment.html

Catholicism  
The Catechism of the Catholic Church  
www.vatican.va/archive/ccc_css/archive/catechism/p3s2c2a7.htm
Humans and Animals in the Kingdom
www.jacwell.org/articles/1997-SPRING-Flanagan.htm

Patron Saints
www.catholic-forum.com/saints/patron08.htm

St Francis of Assisi
members.tripod.com/cathdev/francis.html
www.catholic.org/saints/saint.php?saint_id=50

St Francis Stories
www.americancatholic.org/Features/Francis/stories.asp

Hinduism and Jainism
Animals of Indian Mythology
www.kamat.com/kalranga/prani/animals.htm

Jainism and Jain Principles
www.cs.colostate.edu/~malaiya/jainhlinks.html

Islam
Animals
www.themodernreligion.com/an_main.htm

Imam Hafiz B.A. al-Masri Speaks on Islam and Animals
www.petatv.com/tvpopup/Prefs.asp?video=creatures_of_god

Islamic Concern
www.islamicconcern.com/default.asp

Pets and Animals in Islam
www.submission.org/pets/

The Prophet and Kindness to Animals
www.usc.edu/dept/MSA/fundamentals/prophet/prophetdescription.html#kindness

Judaism
Jewish Vegetarianism
members.aol.com/sauromalus/jewishveg.htm

Judaism and Animal Rights
www.bookch.com/1023-toc.htm

What does Judaism have to say about the Treatment of Animals?
online.sfsu.edu/%7Eronen/Religion/religionanimals.html#judaism

Orthodoxy
Humans and Animals in the Kingdom
www.jacwell.org/articles/1997-SPRING-Flanagan.htm

Orthodox Church and Animals
members.tripod.com/~Near_to_God/AllThings.html
INTRODUCTION

Animal Fiestas
FAACE: Blood Fiestas
www.faace.co.uk/bfiestas.htm
www.faace.co.uk/bfaqs.htm

Books
After the Ark
Religious studies source book
Available from CIWF: www.ciwf.org.uk

After Noah: Animals and the Liberation of Theology
Andrew Linzey et al
Publisher: Continuum International Publishing Group – Mowbray
ISBN: 0264674502

Animal Rights: A Christian Assessment of Man’s Treatment of Animals
Andrew Linzey
Publisher: SCM Press
ISBN: 0334000343

Animals in Islam
Publisher: Spectrum Books
ISBN: 9780292330

Animal Sacrifices: Religious Perspectives on the Use of Animals in Science
Tom Regan
Publisher: Temple University Press
ISBN: 0877225117

Christianity and the Rights of Animals
Andrew Linzey
Publisher: The Crossroad Publishing Company
ISBN: 0824508750

Is God a Vegetarian?: Christianity, Vegetarianism and Animal Rights
Richard Alan Young
Publisher: Open Court Publishing Company
ISBN: 0812693930

Judaism and Animal Rights
Roberta Kalechofsky
Publisher: Micah Publications
ISBN: 0916288358

Replenish the Earth
Lewis Regenstein
Publisher: SCM Press
ISBN: 033401395X
Examine the attitudes and histories of the world’s great religions in regard to their treatment of animals and the environment.
Status of Animals in the Christian Religion
C. W. Hume
Publisher: Universities Fedn. Animal Welfare
ISBN: 0900767103

Videos
Animals, Nature and Religion
Michael Fox
Washington: The Humane Society of the United States (2100 L Street, Washington, DC 20037)

We Are All Noah
Tom Regan
Raleigh: Culture and Animals Foundation (CIN Services, Inc., 3509 Eden Croft Drive, Raleigh, NC 27609)
PART 1

Animal Protection Issues

Chapter 1  Companion Animals
Chapter 2  Farm Animals
Chapter 3  Wildlife
Chapter 4  Working Animals
Chapter 5  Animals in Entertainment
Chapter 6  Animal Experimentation
Companion animals are common throughout the world and in many countries are revered for their positive effect on the physical and mental health of their human owners.
CHAPTER 1
COMPANION ANIMALS

1. Introduction

2. Background to Stray Animal Issues
   a) What is a ‘Stray’?
   b) Why are Strays a Problem?
   c) Where Do Strays Come From?

3. Stray Animal Control Strategies
   a) Addressing the Source of Stray Animals
   b) Reducing the Carrying Capacity
   c) Ways of Dealing with an Existing Stray Population

4. Companion Animal Veterinary Clinics

5. Case Studies
   a) RSPCA, UK
   b) SPCA Selangor
   c) Cat Cafés

6. Questions & Answers

7. Further Resources
Companion animals (restricted to cats and dogs for the purposes of this manual) are common throughout the world and in many countries are revered for their positive effect on the physical and mental health of their human owners. Companion animals are also used for work, such as hunting, herding, searching and guarding.

The relationship between dogs and humans dates back at least 14,000 years ago with the domestic dog ancestor the wolf. The opportunity to gain food from refuse and offered scraps brought the wolf closer to human settlements, where they may have provided an effective warning system. From this they graduated to a hunting partner and companion animal. Thus began the domestication of the dog, which has involved significant changes in behaviour and physical attributes through many thousands of years of selective breeding.

The cat was domesticated by man only 6,000 years ago, primarily for their role in rodent control. Many cats still fulfil this important role, but their position as a true companion animal is also very widespread. However, their breeding has been far less controlled by man, so the modern companion cat is still very similar to its African wild cat ancestor.

Unfortunately, of the 600 million dogs in the world around 80% are estimated to be stray and a similar percentage for cats. The problems arising from strays are significant, with human health issues such as rabies and injuries from bites being two of the more serious issues. There are also often serious welfare issues for the strays involved; hunger, cold, disease and fear from aggressive interactions with both humans and other animals. For these reasons, and because strays are very visible to the human populace, the stray companion animal population is often a prominent concern for both governments and animal welfare groups.

This chapter discusses the various subjects essential for understanding stray animal populations, in particular the true sources of the current stray animals. From this understanding, effective strategies for stray animal population management can hopefully be drawn.

**a) What is a ‘Stray’?**

‘Stray’ is a general term given to any domestic animal found roaming freely without human supervision. Strays depend on humans for most of their essential resources, such as food, although this may be found indirectly from rubbish discarded by humans. Because of this dependence on humans, stray animals are found roaming within and around human settlements.

‘Community animals’ are a type of stray animal that is cared for and provisioned by a particular community, but is still allowed to roam freely.

Animals that live and breed successfully independent of human society are termed ‘feral’ and are usually found outside, or on the fringes of human settlements.

These definitions of the different types of stray animals are to be used as guidelines, as many animals can fall in between two definitions.
b) Why are Strays a Problem?
Stray animals can become a problem for many reasons: they carry diseases that can be passed to humans and other animals (such as rabies), they can cause road accidents, harass citizens, damage property and pollute the environment.

There are also many welfare concerns for the stray animals themselves: disease, hunger, aggression between animals and persecution by humans in the form of cruelty, abuse and inhumane methods of killing.

c) Where Do Strays Come From?
When tackling the issue of stray animals, it is vital that we consider where these animals are coming from and address these sources. Irresponsible animal ownership, uncontrolled breeding and the carrying capacity of the environment must all be considered.

Irresponsible Animal Ownership
- Some owners allow their animals to roam unsupervised. These animals then become part of the stray population and cause the same problems as un-owned stray animals.
- Owners may also abandon their animals in the streets when they no longer want them. This can be a common fate for unwanted litters of puppies.

Uncontrolled Breeding
- Owned animals may be allowed to breed uncontrollably, leading to the problem of abandonment or over-capacity of re-homing centres.
- Breeding within the stray population can produce the next generation of stray animals. However, the survival rate of animals born stray may be low.
- Puppy farms and breeders can lead to a surplus of companion animals. This problem is made worse if the conditions in which the animals are raised are poor, as the puppies and kittens may be sick and poorly socialised, making them unsuitable pets and more likely to be abandoned.

Carrying Capacity
- Carrying capacity refers to the number of animals that a particular environment can sustain. The size of the carrying capacity is dependent upon the availability of the resources essential to those animals, such as food, water, shelter and a suitable climate.
- In most cases, it is the availability of food that will be the limiting factor in the size of the carrying capacity.
- Attitudes towards stray animals can override the impact that the carrying capacity has on the population size when tolerance for the presence of stray animals is very low.

The ‘end product’ of all these sources is the current stray population. These animals must be considered, but without also addressing the sources, any intervention on the current stray population will fail to impact the problem in the long term.

STRAIGHT ANIMAL CONTROL STRATEGIES

An effective, long-term stray control programme will need to address three main areas: the source of the stray animals, the carrying capacity of the environment and the current stray population.

a) Addressing the Source of Stray Animals
Addressing where stray animals come from is the most important consideration to reduce the number of stray animals in the long term. There are three main ways that this can be done: legislation, education and sterilisation.
“OUR CHALLENGE FOR THE NEXT 10 YEARS IS TO CHANGE FUNDAMENTALLY THE THINKING OF GOVERNMENTS IN MANY DEVELOPING COUNTRIES WITH REGARD TO STRAY ANIMAL CONTROL. WE NEED TO HELP THEM SEE THAT RESPONSIBLE PET OWNERSHIP, ACHIEVED THROUGH LEGISLATION AND EDUCATION, IS INSTRUMENTAL IN REDUCING THE CYCLE OF INCREASING STRAY ANIMAL POPULATIONS.”

- Trevor Wheeler, Middle East Projects Director, WSPA

Legislation

Legislation includes both national or primary laws that set out the main principles of stray control and animal protection, and by-laws that provide detail and allow for local differences. Of course, without enforcement, legislation is useless. Hence all legislation should be followed up with both national and local enforcement.

- Ideally, legislation should require that all owned animals are registered and identified. This enables lost animals to be reunited with their owners and also makes it possible for owners that persistently act irresponsibly to be fined. Registration can also be used to encourage neutering of owned animals by offering free or reduced registration of neutered animals.
- Legislation should require that all animals be vaccinated against zoonoses that can endanger humans.
- Abandonment and allowing dogs to roam unsupervised can be legislated against.
- Legal requirements can be set for breeding establishments and pet shops, to ensure that animals are kept according to good welfare standards and that puppies and kittens are raised in conditions that are good for their health and ensure they will be well adjusted pets.
- Legislation should also protect animals against cruelty, neglect and inhumane killing.
- Enforcement will require collaboration between police, legal representatives, members of the veterinary community and the public. Animal welfare officers can be employed to enforce the legislation at ‘ground level’.

Legislation is the responsibility of governments and local authorities. However, animal welfare organisations can lobby very effectively for changes in legislation and can play an important role in its development. Once legislation is in place, pressure and support from animal welfare organisations can help ensure that it is enforced. Successful ‘test cases’ brought by animal welfare organisations can also help to ensure that legislation is used effectively.

Education

Education is a long-term solution to stray animal control and should be aimed at both adults and children. There are many different ways of educating people, including printed material, the media, the internet, schools and public lectures. Education aimed at reducing stray populations should, at a minimum, touch upon the following:

- The biological and psychological needs of companion animals
- The responsibility of owning an animal, including registration, identification, vaccination and supervision
- Responsibility for an animal lasts for its entire life and for the life of any offspring it produces
- The problems and solutions of stray animals, including sterilisation of both owned and stray animals and the re-homing of unwanted and stray animals.

Animal welfare organisations can play a vital role in educating the public about responsible animal ownership and the problems of and solutions to stray populations. Investing in the next generation by educating children can be both rewarding and extremely effective in the long term. There are many educational resources available, some of which can be found in the ‘Further Resources’ section of this chapter.
CHAPTER 1

COMPANION ANIMALS

Neutering/Sterilisation of Owned Animals
Neutering owned animals prevents the problem of unwanted puppies and kittens that may become part of the stray population. It also helps the health of the individual animal by reducing the incidence of several diseases (such as pyometra and mammary tumours); it removes the energy costs of breeding and reduces metabolic rate so animals gain and maintain weight more efficiently. There are also behavioural benefits, such as reduced roaming in castrated males.

Animal welfare organisations can help by educating the public about the importance and benefits of neutering. Setting up a veterinary clinic that offers free or reduced price neutering and veterinary services to owners can be a very practical way of helping owners that couldn’t otherwise afford to treat or sterilise their animals. Providing transport and a donation towards the cost of the neutering at a private veterinary clinic can also be very effective. Shelters run by animal protection organisations should also only re-home dogs and cats that are sterilised.

b) Reducing the Carrying Capacity
Reducing the carrying capacity of the environment should always be carried out in conjunction with other methods aimed at reducing the overall population. This will prevent migration from surrounding areas into an area where the stray population is reducing.

Animal proof bins (such as those with heavy lids, or bins placed out of reach of animals) and more regular removal of waste can effectively reduce the carrying capacity of the environment. Specific problem areas such as parks, city centres and main roads can be targeted to ensure that stray animals do not enter these areas to forage, hence reducing the nuisance complaints and keeping animals away from fast moving traffic. Education programmes can also help to change people’s littering habits and encourage responsible waste disposal.

c) Ways of Dealing with an Existing Stray Population
There are many ways of dealing with an existing stray population. The suitability of each measure will depend on many factors, including the environment, the attitude of local people and availability of financial resources.

Reuniting Lost Animals
Any programme that involves collecting stray animals from the streets should take into account that some of these animals may be owned and provision should be made for owners to be reunited with their lost animals. Registration and identification will facilitate this process immensely. The public must also be informed as to the location and contact details of the local holding facility.

Ideally animals should be held for at least seven days to allow time for owners to reclaim their animals.

Re-homing
Animals that are not reclaimed can then be assessed for re-homing. A centre that offers a re-homing service must provide the following:

- A clean, safe and healthy environment that meets both biological and psychological needs of all animals kept in the centre
- Quarantine for all incoming animals to safeguard the current inhabitants from infectious diseases
- Veterinary treatment and prophylactic disease measures should be available for all animals
- Limitation on numbers housed at any one time to avoid compromising the welfare of the current inhabitants.
WSPA reluctantly accepts that it may be necessary to euthanise healthy animals in order to safeguard the welfare of the current animals and to allow new animals the chance of being re-homed. A re-homing shelter may decide to euthanise animals that have the least chance of finding new homes, for example old or aggressive animals.

Re-homing centres are expensive, require consistent funding and are extremely time consuming. The Humane Society of the United States (HSUS) suggests that a society that is considering opening a re-homing centre should ensure they have the funds for both the initial construction and running costs for at least the first year. The HSUS publication ‘Issues to consider before starting a shelter’ contains excellent advice and caution.

It must also be taken into account that the re-homing centre will reduce time available to the society for other important services such as education and campaigning, as well as the time available for fundraising. WSPA’s ‘Alternatives to Animal Shelters’ document offers advice on other avenues of work that can be effective and efficient ways of addressing companion animal welfare.

**Humane Euthanasia**

Humane euthanasia is a subject of ongoing debate amongst animal protectionists. Ideal philosophies on when euthanasia should be used can become unsupportable in the face of reality, leading to inevitable compromises. The challenge is to find when such compromises should be made and when principles of animal welfare should be upheld.

Humane euthanasia is defined as painless, rapid unconsciousness followed by cardiac and respiratory arrest, and ultimately death. WSPA believes that the killing of companion animals should only be done using humane euthanasia, which is administered by responsible and properly trained individuals.

WSPA believes that humane euthanasia is acceptable when an animal is experiencing a poor quality of life due to illness, injury or behavioural problems. WSPA reluctantly accepts that humane euthanasia of healthy animals may be necessary in order to avoid compromising their welfare or the welfare of other animals.

**Catch Neuter and Release (CNR) Programmes**

CNR comes under many names, including Trap, Neuter and Release (TNR) and Animal Birth Control (ABC). It essentially involves catching stray animals, sterilising them, vaccinating them, and then releasing them back to the place they were initially caught. The benefits of such an approach include:

- Reduction in zoonoses transmission.
- Sterilising stray animals can improve their health by taking away the energy costs of breeding and reduces the risks of injury and disease transmission of breeding.
- Sterilising a stray animal ensures that it will no longer give birth to offspring that would be likely to suffer and die at a young age.
- Returning a sterilised animal to its original territory reduces migration of other stray animals into that area.
- Stray populations can continue to function as biological control of rodents.

CNR can essentially lead to a stable and healthy population of animals, if the sterilisation rate is maintained at a high enough level. The percentage of animals that will need to be sterilised will depend upon reproduction rate and survival in the particular population of animals. However, CNR alone will not address the stray animal problem in the long term while there is an owned population that is not accessible to the catching teams and so not being neutered. Hence CNR on its own will not lead to a significant reduction in population size. CNR instead should be seen as a temporary method that stabilises the current stray population whilst the sources of stray animals are also addressed for the long-term.
It is also important to be aware that CNR may actually be counter productive for building a culture of Responsible Animal Ownership when some of the animals being caught are actually owned roaming animals or community animals. In this situation the responsibility for neutering and vaccination should lie with the owners or community, hence a neutering and vaccination programme that is based in community or owner participation and education would be more effective in the long-term than CNR.

The following is a list of requirements that must be in place for CNR to be considered as an appropriate method:

- The majority of the population of stray animals are unowned. If many of the stray animals are in fact community or roaming owned animals then the neutering and vaccination programme should be carried out using participation of local people rather than catching on the streets.
- Stray animals are a significant source of the next generation of stray animals, in other words when they are breeding successfully. If animals on the street do not seem to be able to raise a litter to maturity this indicates that the source of the stray animals is coming from owned animals, hence these should be the target for the neutering programme.
- The environment can support free roaming animals in a good state of welfare. For example traffic flow is slow or light and there are reliable food sources available.
- Local people want to maintain the local free roaming animal population as part of their community. Without support from local people the programme will not only be difficult to run but also the safety of the returned dogs will not be guaranteed.
- There is support from both local and national government, without such support, again the safety of returned animals cannot be guaranteed.
- There is an understanding that CNR will achieve stabilisation for the short term and will be replaced in the long-term with a programme that will address the sources of stray dogs and increase Responsible Animal Ownership, working towards the ultimate goal of all companion animals having responsible and caring owners.

Although CNR can be effective, there are many important limitations on its use. It is an important principle to consider that the welfare of every animal that is caught, sterilised and returned becomes the responsibility of the CNR programme. The return of the sterilised stray animal to the streets does not signal the end of this responsibility; hence the likely fate of returned animals must be considered.

The following is a list of examples of situations where a Catch Neuter and Release technique is not suitable:

- Where there is indiscriminate killing of stray animals. In this situation it is pointless to waste money on catching and sterilising animals that will then later be killed.
- Where the environment is unsuitable. Large urban areas with fast flowing traffic are not suitable for CNR programmes. Releasing an animal into an environment where it is likely to be run down does not constitute good animal welfare.
- Where the local community has intolerance. Not all people like stray animals and there may be strong religious and cultural reasons for negative views towards certain species. Efforts should be made to educate people about the positive consequences of a CNR programme, however the opinions of local people should be considered as they have a right to a view on their local environment. It is also very important to consider how local people will react towards stray animals once they have been returned. Cruelty and abuse towards stray animals is an unfortunate reality that must be considered.

From the above discussion, it is clear that CNR will only be suitable in a restricted number of situations and is often more suitable for cats than dogs.

If CNR is deemed to be appropriate for a particular situation, there are a number of important factors that must be considered:
Sensitisation of Local People: Education and Public Relations (PR) campaigns should be used to explain the programme to local people to gain their support and assistance. This can be done in a number of ways, including TV, radio, leaflets, through community leaders and public announcements. The attitude of the local people will have a powerful impact on the success of a CNR programme. Indeed if the local people strongly dislike stray animals, or are aggressive towards them, it is unadvisable to start a CNR programme in the area.

Animal Catching: The catching of animals for a CNR programme must be done humanely. The precise method used to catch animals will depend on local conditions, the species and temperament of the animals involved. The principle should be to reduce the risk of injury and stress caused by catching. This can be done through educating the catching team on the concept of animal welfare and humane handling, using incentives and involving the catching team/individuals in the whole CNR process to encourage responsibility and interest in the animals themselves.

Humane Euthanasia: Some individuals will not be suitable for release back into the stray population. Very old, very young or sick animals should not be returned to the streets where they will inevitably suffer. Animals that are carrying life threatening infectious diseases (such as advanced venereal tumours or distemper) that would endanger other stray animals should also be euthanised. Aggressive animals should also not be returned to the streets; since they are also not re-homable, they should be humanely euthanised.

Vaccinations: Prophylactic treatment in the form of vaccinations should be given to all animals. This is to reduce both the danger of zoonoses and other infectious diseases that can affect the health of the sterilised animals. It is a principle that any animal that has been sterilised in a CNR programme should be kept as healthy as possible.

Sterilisation Techniques: The sterilisation itself should be done to the highest standards. Stray animals do not have the luxury of after-care provided by an owner. Hence strict aseptic and modern surgical techniques should be used at all times. In the future chemical sterilisation may become possible. Currently, no chemical sterilisation methods have proved suitable for CNR programmes.

Marking: Sterilised animals should be marked with a permanent mark to show that they have been sterilised. The technique used to do this permanent marking will depend on local conditions and may take the form of ear tipping, tattooing or microchipping.

If the permanent mark is not visible, the animal should also carry a visible mark, such as a coloured collar, to prevent repeat catching and to allow them to be identified by local people and authorities.

Returning: Animals should be returned as near as possible to the point of capture to ensure they find their original territories and do not either get lost or encounter aggression whilst crossing other territories.

“EVERY PROJECT IN WHICH I’VE BEEN INVOLVED HAS HAD MAJOR OBSTACLES TO OVERCOME. IN THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES I LED A SERIES OF WORKSHOPS AIMED AT RETRAINING MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES TO BECOME ANIMAL WARDENS. THE MAIN PROBLEM WAS PERSUADING A TEAM OF FORMER DOG-SHOOTERS TO ACTUALLY TOUCH A DOG, SINCE THEY REGARDED THE ANIMALS AS UNCLEAN. EVENTUALLY, I DEVISED A METHOD USING A CANVAS BAG IN WHICH THEY COULD CARRY THE DOGS. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES LIKE THIS ARE THE BIGGEST CHALLENGE IN MY WORK.” ~ Brian Faulkner, Senior Consultant, Stray Animal Solutions
Veterinary clinics run by animal welfare charities can provide an excellent service to those animals owned by people who cannot afford to pay private veterinary fees. As discussed previously, addressing the source of the stray population by providing a sterilisation service for owned animals can also have a significant impact on the future stray population.

Static veterinary clinics (based at a permanent residence) will be most effective if they are sited within those communities most in need of free or reduced cost veterinary services. Alternatively, the veterinary clinic can have an ‘out-reach’ element. This can range from a vet that travels to areas of need carrying veterinary supplies to perform simple treatments and give prophylactic care, to a fully functional mobile veterinary clinic with an on-board operating theatre.

There are a number of principles that any veterinary service provided by an animal welfare organisation should follow:

**Provide the best quality of veterinary care:** The animals likely to be treated by such a programme may not be in the best of health. They may have compromised immune systems, high disease or parasite loads and malnourishment, for example. Hence the veterinary care provided should be of the best quality to compensate for this situation. This is especially important when the veterinary treatment includes surgery, where strict asepsis should be followed to give the animal the best chance of an excellent recovery.

**Know your limitations:** Although the veterinary care that is provided should be of the best quality, it should always be kept in mind that complicated treatments would be expensive in terms of resources and time. Every complex case that is accepted will drain time and resources that could have been used to give more basic treatments to many more animals. It is advisable that good relationships are built with private veterinary services or veterinary universities for the provision of more complex veterinary care. There should also be an agreed euthanasia policy in place to deal with situations where treatment is not possible.

**Prevention is better than cure:** Prophylactic treatments and education in the correct care of companion animals will help prevent animal suffering before it becomes an issue. Out-reach veterinary programmes can provide the perfect opportunity for educating the public on animal care.

**Coordination of an out-reach programme is essential:** In addition to the veterinary personnel, it is advisable to have a suitable person to coordinate the programme. Among their many roles, the coordinator must ensure that the out-reach programme is publicised sufficiently, that the clinic is suitably stocked, that animals are both received and returned efficiently and that any education material or programme is delivered effectively. The main aim for the coordinator will be to ensure veterinary treatment is delivered to as many animals as possible, by allowing the most efficient use of the veterinary team’s time.

Owners can provide post-operative care, but they must be well informed of the signs of recovery and given a contact number to call if there are any problems.

Mobile and static clinics can be used in CNR programmes. Post-operative care for stray animals as part of a CNR programme can be short if suitable veterinary techniques are used (including excellent asepsis). In addition to this, local people should be informed of the signs of recovery and given a contact number to call if there are any problems. Ideally, an interested member of the local community should be selected as a ‘guardian’, who is be responsible for periodically checking the condition of stray animals that have gone through the CNR programme and alerting the veterinary clinic if there are problems.
CHAPTER 1

COMPANION ANIMALS

a) Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, United Kingdom

The RSPCA is involved in a wide range of activities, from investigating cruelty cases and providing animal care to campaigning and education.

Every year the UK RSPCA re-homes around 70,000 animals, mostly through its network of branches. Branches are separately registered charities operating subject to RSPCA and branch rules. They work for animal welfare locally and many provide services including subsidised veterinary treatment, neutering and re-homing schemes.

In 2004, the RSPCA investigated just under 110,000 complaints of alleged cruelty. In many cases animals were removed from their homes and taken to RSPCA animal centres to be cared for until they were healthy enough to be re-homed. Stray and abandoned companion animals and animals confiscated by the courts following RSPCA investigations are also cared for and re-homed by RSPCA animal centres.

Usually, before anyone can adopt an animal from the RSPCA, an interview is carried out. This process divides the serious from the not-so-serious potential owners and gives the new owners the opportunity to think about what they are taking on. This way, there are no impulsive decisions and the RSPCA is certain the animal is going to the right home. In addition, a home visit may be required for certain animals and is often followed up with a post-adoption visit.

In an effort to reduce the number of animals reproducing, popular pets, such as cats, dogs and rabbits are neutered as well as vaccinated, before they are re-homed. Microchipping is also recommended.

The RSPCA will euthanise animals which are suffering and which cannot be treated. Aggressive dogs, for example, which cannot be safely re-homed may also have to be humanely destroyed. In a small number of cases it may be necessary to destroy animals which, although basically healthy, cannot be re-homed owing to behavioural or other problems. The RSPCA is opposed to long-term confinement in shelters as this can cause animals distress and suffering.

b) Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Selangor, Malaysia

The SPCA Selangor was established in 1958 by Mrs Ruth Spiers, a British expatriate who set out to help the many stray animals suffering on the streets. The SPCA Selangor continues to work towards its mission of creating a compassionate society where companion animals are respected and protected, of establishing the measures needed to promote responsible ownership of companion animals, and of promoting care and kindness to all animals.

The SPCA Selangor receives more than 800 animals a month, most of which are handed over by their owners. Today, the shelter houses up to 350 animals, mainly consisting of cats and dogs. The adoption rate is low, about 15%, and the shelter is constantly challenged by a shortage of space and limited funds. The SPCA Selangor receives no government funding and is entirely funded by public donations.

In addition to running its shelter, the SPCA Selangor investigates and prosecutes cruelty cases, conducts humane education programmes and works to improve animal protection legislation.

SPCA Selangor Spay/Neuter Campaign – Stray Free Malaysia 2010

With the vision of creating a stray free Malaysia by 2010, a spay/neuter campaign (referred to as Kempen Kembiri in Malay) was launched in 2002. Kempen Kembiri was embarked upon with
government agencies and other animal welfare organisations to manage the population of companion animals. It is a subsidised campaign, which provides low-cost sterilisations to pet-owners on lower incomes. Additionally, strays and community pets are collected, sterilised at the reduced fee, and later released back onto the streets.

The campaign received such an overwhelmingly positive response that the SPCA Selangor decided to turn it into a permanent clinic. With the support of one of the local municipalities, the clinic is now able to run without having to worry about rental and utility costs. The SPCA Selangor hopes that the success of the clinic will encourage other local municipalities to create spay/neuter clinics in their own areas.

c) Cat Cafés

Feral cat populations can cause disease, noise, smell and often spread rubbish about in search of food. This can create a nuisance, particularly around hotels and restaurants. WSPA devised the Cat Café scheme to address this problem.

A Cat Café is a designated feeding station, away from hotels and restaurants, where stray cats can be fed and cared for. Attracting the cats to the carefully selected locations avoids conflict with people. In addition to providing regular meals, a vaccination and sterilisation programme can also be set up. Sick and injured cats can also be trapped, cared for and released, re-homed or euthanised, if necessary.

An example of successful cat cafés are those installed by the Cretan Animal Welfare Group (CAWG) on the Greek island of Crete.

Numerous hotels and restaurants on Crete experience the problem of stray cats. Many of the property owners have no aversion to the cats themselves, but they can become a nuisance – constantly begging around the tables for food. Also, at the end of the season, when the tourists all go home and the establishments close for the winter, the cats’ food supply disappears. They quickly become hungry and sick.

One hotel which identified such a problem was the Ikarus Village Hotel. The manager, Mr Manolis, approached the Cretan Animal Welfare Group for help and they suggested a Cat Café. The society already had three other successful cat cafés in the Malia area of Crete.

A volunteer from CAWG built the Cat Café from WSPA’s construction plan and installed it at the hotel. The manager selected the site for the café – away from the hotel restaurants but close enough for residents to see and feed the cats if they wanted to.

The choice of site is very important – allowing guests who like the cats to see them, feed them if they want and know that they are cared for. But for those who are not animal lovers, the cats are out of the way and not making a nuisance of themselves. An additional benefit of cat cafés is the image taken back home by visitors. Where a cat café is present, they know that the hotel is taking an active role in animal welfare – something greatly appreciated.

The hotel manager will supply regular food and keep the area clean, and CAWG will also keep an eye on the site and aim to gain the trust of the cats. As well as being able to check that they are healthy, it will also make them easier to catch and neuter – the only real solution to the feral cat problem on Crete.
Q Should I start a shelter?

A To a certain extent, when an animal protection society takes over the responsibility for sheltering and re-homing unwanted animals it is taking personal responsibility away from owners. It is allowing them to feel OK about giving up their animals (or letting them roam to be caught later), because the ‘kind SPCA’ will look after them on their behalf. It is also allowing the authorities to abdicate their responsibility for providing stray control services for the community unless they fund this, through tender schemes for example. There is, therefore, a case to be made that shelters are perpetuating the stray problem, unless they are also campaigning and educating. There are many different ways of addressing companion animal welfare, many of which are discussed above. WSPA also produces a document entitled ‘Alternatives to Animal Shelters’, which expands on this idea.

Q Should individuals keep wild/exotic animals as pets?

A No. Wild and exotic (non-native) animals are unsuitable for home rearing and handling. They have complex needs that are difficult to meet. Most individuals have neither the finances nor the experience to care for them properly. It has been estimated that 90% are dead within the first two years of captivity. Many wild animals forced into a domestic situation cause injury to humans, especially children. Others, if released into the environment, can cause irreversible and costly damage to our ecosystem.

Q What do you do about dangerous dogs?

A There have been various attempts to control dangerous dogs; many involve strict legislation and control following public outcry generated by media coverage of attacks on children. Most animal protection societies denounce attempts to control (kill) dogs based on breed alone. Less draconian control methods include the requirement that all dogs declared to be dangerous be identified, recorded, neutered and controlled by muzzle and leash when in public places. Indeed, control based on breed alone not only condemns all dogs of given breeds (regardless of temperament), but also excludes dogs with dangerous temperaments from non-specified breeds.

Q Why does indiscriminate killing of stray animals not work?

A Indiscriminate killing is the perfect example of dealing only with the ‘end product’ and not with the source of the stray population; hence, it will never be an effective means of removing all stray animals. There are also additional problems with disease transmission. Killing stray animals is commonly used to prevent the spread of rabies; however, this has never been shown to be effective. Mass vaccination campaigns on the other hand, both with and without concurrent sterilisation campaigns, have been shown to lead to both the reduction and elimination of rabies in rural and urban areas. Please refer to the ‘Further Resources’ section of this chapter, which lists examples of where data on successful vaccination campaigns can be found.

WSPA Pet Respect Resources

A range of leaflets, reports and videos are available for WSPA member societies to help them get involved in the Pet Respect programme. Download the leaflets in PDF format from www.wspa-international.org or contact WSPA’s London office to obtain the following resources:
Leaflets
- Setting up a Cat Café
- Early Age Neutering
- Care for your Dog
- Care for your Cat
- Humane Euthanasia (2000)
- Population Survey (2001)

Reports
- Stray Dog Control (1994); Updated 1999
- Cat Care & Control (1997); Updated 2001
- Animal Control Officer (1999)

Videos
- The Pet Respect Programme
- Stray Dog Control
- Cat Care & Control
- Animal Control Officer; Updated 2002
- Neutering Techniques for Dogs
- Neutering Techniques for Cats
- Early Age Neutering Techniques
- The Importance of Neutering
- Setting up a Cat Café
- Humane Euthanasia

Booklets
- Planning and Running an Animal Shelter (2005)
- Alternatives to Animal Shelters (2005)
- Caring for Animals – a teachers’ manual to encourage respect and compassion for dogs and cats

Web Sites
- Alley Cat Allies
  www.alleycat.org/resources.html
  This site has a wide selection of publications, including many useful ones about trap neuter return programmes.

- Animals Australia
  www.animalsaustralia.org/default2.asp?idL1=1273&idL2=1291
  A companion animal fact sheet is available.

- The Association for Pet Loss and Bereavement (APLB)
  http://aplb.org/
  APLB is a worldwide clearing-house for all information on pet bereavement.

- Canadian Federation of Humane Societies
  www.cfhs.ca/animals/Cats_and_Dogs+top_picks
  This federation produces thoughtful, well-written fact sheets and booklets on companion animal issues.

- The Federation of European Companion Animal Veterinary Associations (FECAVA)
  http://public.fecava.org/pub/index.php?session=&main=1
Feral Cat Coalition (FCC)
www.feralcat.com
The FCC is an all-volunteer, tax-exempt organisation that helps the public to trap, sterilise and return feral cats to their caretakers. The FCC publishes practical information sheets that detail most aspects of their work, including actual forms, written procedures and handouts.

Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/
Large selection of materials and advice on pet care, issues affecting pets, pet adoption, animal shelters.

HSUS Electronic Library
www.hsus.org/ace/14954
Includes:
  - How to form an animal protection organisation in your community
  - Issues to consider before starting a shelter
  - HSUS Guidelines for the operation of an animal shelter
  - HSUS Guidelines for a responsible adoption program
  - HSUS Guidelines for animal shelter policies
  - Fundraising and PR
  - Animal sheltering and control documents

Animal Sheltering Online
www.animalsheltering.org/
A programme of the Humane Society of the United States.

The International Association of Human-Animal Interaction Organisations
www.iahaio.org/

Maddie’s Fund
www.maddiesfund.org/
There is a section on building a ‘no kill’ organisation, including reasons for being a ‘no kill’ organisation.

PETA: Companion Animals
www.animalactivist.com/companionAnimals.asp

RSPCA
www.rspca.org.uk/servlet/Satellite?pagename=RSPCA/Publications/PublicationsHomepage
A wide range of companion animal publications is available. Basic guidelines for animal shelters are also detailed.

RSPCA Australia
www.rspca.org.au/

Save Our Strays
www.saveourstrays.com
Provides information on humane issues and the human-animal bond.

Society for Companion Animal Studies
www.scas.org.uk/
The Dogs Trust
The Dogs Trust has many publications, including a wide range of fact sheets on dog issues.

The Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW)
www.ufaw.org.uk/
UFAW publishes ‘Animal Welfare – the Journal’, which compiles researchers’ and practitioners’ reviews, research papers, letters etc. on topical animal protection issues. The site also includes a number of companion animal resources, including a book on ‘Dog Housing and Welfare’.

World Small Animal Veterinary Association (WSAVA)
www.wsava.org/

Books
Companion Animals and Us: Exploring the Relationships Between People and Pets
Anthony Podberscek (Editor), Elizabeth S. Paul (Editor), James A. Serpell (Editor)
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521631130

Dog Housing and Welfare
(UFAW Animal Welfare Research Report)
R. Hubrecht
Publisher: Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW)
ISBN: 0900767820

William K., DVM Kay (Editor), Susan P., CSW ACSW Cohen (Editor), Herbert A., PhD Nieburg (Editor), Carole E., CSW ACSW Fudin (Editor), Ross E., DVM Grey (Editor), Austin H., DDS Kutscher (Editor), Mohamed M., DVM PhD Osman (Editor)
Publisher: The Charles Press
ISBN: 0914783254

Feline Advisory Bureau (FAB), UK
www.fabcats.org/publications.html
Boarding Cattery Manual
FAB Standard for Construction & Management of Boarding Catteries
Cat Rescue
FAB Journal
FAB Felix Cat Personality Report

Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/ace/14364
A selection of books including:
The Humane Society of the United States Complete Guide to Cat Care
The Humane Society of the United States Complete Guide to Dog Care
The Humane Society of the United States Euthanasia Training Manual

In the Company of Animals
J. Serpell
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521577799
Noise in Dog Kennelling
(UFAW Animal Welfare Research Report)
Gillian Sales
Publisher: Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW)
ISBN: 0900767952

Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals
www.rspca.org.uk/servlet/Satellite?pagename=RSPCA/Publications/
Books&PublishedRSPCA&articleid=0
A wide range of books published by the RSPCA are available, covering many companion
animal issues.

Save Our Strays: How to End Pet Overpopulation and Stop Killing Healthy Cats and Dogs
Bob Christiansen
This book is based on more than 52 research articles; it explains, with scientific evidence, the
dynamics of overpopulation of cats and dogs and offers effective solutions.

The Dog Law Handbook
www.shaws.co.uk/books/book_catalogue_listing2.htm
ISBN: 0721913407
This publication explains all aspects of the UK law as it relates to dog ownership. The book is
designed for ease of use and comprehension by those outside the legal profession and is now
a standard reference book for dog wardens.

The Domestic Dog: its Evolution, Behaviour and Interactions With People
J. Serpell
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521425379
They are caged, crammed and confined, forced to grow super-fast, and pushed to their physical limits in the quest for more meat, milk and eggs.
CHAPTER 2
FARM ANIMALS

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   f) Turkeys
   g) Ducks and Geese
   h) Mutilations

3. Fur Farming

4. Fish Farming

5. Exotic or Cruel Foods

6. Live Transport, Slaughter and Markets

7. Genetic Engineering and Cloning

8. Animal Welfare Strategies
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   b) Consumer Education
   c) Formal Education

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CHAPTER 2

FARM ANIMALS

Factory farming is the largest area of welfare concern in the world today. Billions of farm animals throughout the world are reared behind the closed doors of factory farms. They are caged, crammed and confined, forced to grow super-fast, and pushed to their physical limits in the quest for more meat, milk and eggs.

The rapid rise of factory farming systems in the USA and Europe took place in the latter half of the last century. These systems are characterised by large numbers of farm animals being caged or crated and crammed into (typically) windowless sheds. Four classic factory farm methods epitomised this approach: veal crates for calves, stall and tether-cages for pregnant pigs, intensive broiler farms and battery cages for egg-laying hens. These systems remain in widespread use in the USA.

Three of these classic systems of the 1960s – veal crates, sow stalls and battery cages – are subject to far-reaching reforms in the European Union (EU). Although reform is reaching Europe, these systems are spreading rapidly throughout other parts of the world, even to economically developing countries. Consumption of meat in economically developing countries is growing constantly. The pressure to produce and sell cheap meat worldwide is driving the spread of intensive farming all over the world. People in both the economically developed and developing world should consider the amount and source of the meat they eat and thus avoid supporting factory farming.

Factory farming is not only bad for animal welfare and animal health; it has also been proven to have detrimental impacts in a number of other areas:

- **The environment**: producing pollution, huge concentrations of wastes and greenhouse gases
- **Genetic diversity**: due to selective breeding for productive breeds
- **Human health**: increasing the risk of disease to local communities and antibiotic resistance
- **Poverty alleviation**: factory farms put small farmers out of business, creating masses of unemployed poor, especially in the developing world
- **Food security**: reliance on technology and huge inputs of feed and water does not alleviate hunger as effectively as small-scale local production, while risking livestock losses through disease spread through large ‘colonies’ of farmed animals.

The above figures show the approximate number of farm animals in the world in 2004. The majority were reared in intensive systems that can cause serious animal welfare problems. A brief introduction to these intensive systems follows.
Throughout this chapter, a number of quotations from the European Union’s Scientific Committee on Animal Health and Welfare and its predecessor, the European Commission’s expert Scientific and Veterinary Committee, are given. These can provide invaluable scientific support when lobbying and campaigning on various farm animal welfare issues.

**a) Pigs**

In intensive farming systems, pregnant sows are often caged in rows of small, narrow crates throughout their 16-week pregnancies; these are known as sow stalls or gestation crates. Sow stalls are so narrow that sows cannot even turn around. On some farms, they are tethered using heavy chains. This frustrates the natural behaviour of these intelligent animals, leading to repetitive unnatural behaviours, such as bar biting. Scientific research shows that prolonged confinement can affect health as well as welfare, causing lameness, urinary tract problems, foot injuries and bone weakness.

Sow stalls and tethers have been prohibited on cruelty grounds in the Philippines, Florida and the EU (the EU has prohibited tethers from 2006 and stalls from 2013).

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**THE OFFICIAL REPORT FROM THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION’S SCIENTIFIC VETERINARY COMMITTEE CONCLUDED:**

*Sow stalls have “major disadvantages” for welfare; “the major disadvantages for sow welfare of housing them in stalls are indicated by high levels of stereotypical behaviour, of unresolved aggression and of inactivity associated with unresponsiveness, weaker bones and muscles and the clinical conditions mentioned above.”*

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Before giving birth, pregnant sows are moved to farrowing crates, which are used to restrain nursing sows, in an attempt to prevent piglets from being crushed. They confine the sow, but give the piglets free access for feeding. Farrowing crates deny the sow’s strong instinct to build a nest for her piglets. Behavioural studies show that pregnant sows would prefer access to straw to build nests over access to food 24 hours prior to farrowing.

However, there are other ways to prevent piglets from being crushed. The problem is caused by selective breeding, which results in enormous and clumsy sows. Some breeds do not have this problem; so selective breeding for good mothering traits would be the most durable solution. However, even with current heavy breeds, alternative systems exist, for example, farrowing out of doors in ‘ark’ housing systems.

**“Sows should preferably be kept in groups” because “overall welfare appears to be better when sows are not confined throughout gestation.”**

**EUROPEAN COMMISSION’S SCIENTIFIC VETERINARY COMMITTEE**

Taken from their mothers at around one month old, the piglets are often reared in barren pens with concrete or slatted floors. The absence of bedding is a serious welfare problem because bedding, such as straw, provides pigs with physical and thermal comfort, an outlet for chewing, rooting and exploring, and dietary fibre. Another welfare concern in intensive pig farming is the practice of clipping the teeth of piglets and docking their tails.
Above  Egg laying hens in battery cages
Below  Intensively farmed broiler chickens
Images clockwise from top left: Pigs in sow stalls; a calf in a veal crate; cattle in a feedlot; a sow and her piglets in a farrowing crate.
In natural conditions, weaning is gradual, being completed only after about 13-17 weeks, and early weaning can cause stress and behavioural problems. This process is repeated pregnancy after pregnancy.

b) Broilers
Broilers are chickens reared for their meat. In intensive systems, they are crowded together in barren sheds. They have been selectively bred to grow very fast and reach slaughter weight at just five to six weeks old. This growth rate is so extreme that many suffer leg weakness and become crippled because their bodies grow too fast for their legs to sustain them. They also suffer heart and lung failure, as their organs cannot keep pace with their bodily growth.

As they grow, the birds occupy the whole of the shed. The crowding gives the birds no opportunity to exercise. Leg weaknesses mean that birds are often unable to reach food and water supplies and therefore die. Others suffer breast-blisters, hock burns and skin diseases, as they sit on faeces-drenched litter.

Because they have been selectively bred for fast growth, broilers need to eat tremendous amounts of food. They are allowed to eat as much as they want, and many succumb to obesity, skeletal problems and heart failure at a few weeks of age. This presents a problem for the producers of the breeding stock, as these birds have to be kept until they reach sexual maturity and can breed. To achieve this, the industry feeds these breeders a much-reduced diet; about ¼-½ of what they would ‘naturally’ eat. This makes them chronically hungry, frustrated and stressed.

AS WELL AS CONDEMNING SEVERE OVERCROWDING IN BROILER SHEDS, THE EUROPEAN UNION’S SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE ON ANIMAL HEALTH AND WELFARE AFFIRMS:

1. THE RAPID GROWTH RATES WHICH LEAD TO PAINFUL LEG DISORDERS AND HEART FAILURE “ARE A MAJOR CAUSE OF POOR WELFARE IN BROILERS”.
2. THE CHRONIC HUNGER INFLECTED ON BROILER BREEDERS, SAYING THESE BIRDS ARE “VERY HUNGRY” AND THAT “THE SEVERE FEED RESTRICTION... RESULTS IN UNACCEPTABLE WELFARE PROBLEMS.”

“MOST WELFARE PROBLEMS IMPOSED ON BROILERS RESULT FROM THE INDUSTRY’S DETERMINATION TO PUSH BIRDS – MAINLY THROUGH SELECTIVE BREEDING – TO EVER FASTER GROWTH RATES.”

EUROPEAN UNION’S SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE ON ANIMAL HEALTH AND WELFARE

c) Egg-laying Hens
Most egg-laying hens are kept intensively in battery cages throughout their productive lives. Up to 90,000 birds (or more) are kept in one shed, and the cages are stacked four to nine tiers high. A number of hens will be kept together in these small wire cages, each hen having less space than this sheet of paper. In these cramped conditions, the birds cannot stretch their wings. They also suffer from leg and foot problems. Constantly rubbing against the wire cages, they suffer severe feather loss, bruising and abrasions.
The EU has prohibited battery cages from 2012.

A happy hen is a bird free to forage, take exercise, preen, dust-bathe, take refuge on a perch whenever she feels vulnerable and build a nest in which to lay her eggs. These things are denied to hens kept in the battery-cage system.

**THE WELFARE OF THE EGG-LAYING HEN IS DIRECTLY LINKED TO HER ABILITY TO BEHAVE NATURALLY.**

In order to reduce injuries resulting from excessive pecking, which occurs when the confined hens are bored and frustrated, practically all laying hens have part of their beaks cut off. *Beak trimming* is a painful procedure that involves cutting through bone, cartilage and soft tissue. This procedure will be completely prohibited in the UK from 1 January 2011.

Another serious welfare problem is forced moulting. Under commercial conditions, hens start laying fewer eggs after one year of production and in nature they would undergo an annual moult. *Forced moulting*, whereby hens are starved for up to 18 days, shocks the birds’ systems, inducing them to shed their feathers unnaturally quickly. This forces the hens to start another laying cycle, much quicker than they would naturally. The practice of forced moulting is already illegal in the United Kingdom and rarely practiced in Europe. However, it continues to take place in some parts of Asia and the USA.

**THREE QUARTERS OF THE WORLD’S 4 BILLION EGG-LAYING HENS ARE CONFINED IN BATTERY CAGES, WHICH CONTAIN FROM 3 TO 25 BIRDS EACH.**

FAOSTAT STATISTICAL DATABASE

d) Beef Cattle

“**CATTLE HAVE WELL-DEVELOPED SENSES AND LEARNING ABILITIES. ALTHOUGH SIGNS OF PAIN MAY BE LESS OBVIOUS IN CATTLE THAN IN OTHER SPECIES, CATTLE HAVE THE ABILITY TO FEEL PAIN, AND NEURAL MECHANISMS OF PAIN RECEPTION SEEM TO BE SIMILAR IN CATTLE AND OTHER ANIMALS, AND HUMANS.**”

**EUROPEAN UNION’S SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE ON ANIMAL HEALTH AND WELFARE**

Most people think cattle are raised in pastures. In reality, many countries (including the USA) use feedlots for ‘finishing’ prior to slaughter. According to a study coordinated by the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), the U.S. Agency for International Development
and the World Bank, forty-three percent of the cattle raised for beef in the world come from feedlots (Livestock and the Environment: Finding a Balance (1997)).

Feedlots are barren pens where animals are crowded together and fed an unnatural diet of grain. This encourages rapid weight gain but prevents normal grazing, eating behaviour and rumination, as well as normal physiological gut function. The pens are devoid of grass and the cattle stand on packed mud and faeces, leading to foot problems that are exacerbated by the changes in their physiology. In these crowded and unsanitary conditions, health is only maintained by constant feeding of antibiotics to prevent the spread of disease. This regular use of antibiotics in farm animals is now widely recognised as causing increasing risk to human health, by encouraging development of antibiotic-resistant bacteria that can infect humans as well as cattle.

In many countries such as the USA, growth is also promoted by implantation of artificial hormones. These further influence both the physiology and behaviour of the animals. Because they are sex hormones, they probably contribute to problems in social behaviour. Such problems begin with the mixing of unfamiliar animals, and become worse because of the crowding together of unnaturally large groups of same-aged individuals. One of the worst problems is ‘bulling,’ in which some individuals mount each other repeatedly, sometimes to the point where the mounted animals die, or suffer broken legs and have to be culled.

Other welfare problems arise from the exposed conditions, with no shelter from sun or rain. In the extreme weather common in many regions where feedlots are based, cattle suffer severely from heat stress, or from confinement on constantly wet ground. After rainstorms, the mud and slurry in which they are standing is often so deep that cattle are reluctant to lie down and also suffer deprivation of rest.

The natural lifespan of cattle is 20 to 25 years. However, beef cattle are typically weaned at 6 to 10 months, live 3 to 5 months on range, spend 4 to 5 months being fattened in a feedlot, and are slaughtered at 15 to 20 months.

**“BEEF BREEDS HAVE BEEN SELECTED FOR A HIGH MEAT PRODUCTION. THESE BREEDS ARE OFTEN ASSOCIATED WITH A HYPER-MUSCULARITY, WHICH CAN CAUSE LEG DISORDERS, INCREASE CALVING DIFFICULTIES AND DECREASE LONGEVITY.”**

**EUROPEAN UNION’S SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE ON ANIMAL HEALTH AND WELFARE**

e) Dairy Cows

Through selective breeding and unnatural cereal diets, dairy cows are pushed to their limits to produce huge amounts of milk; around 10 times as much as they normally would.

Cows are forced to breed at an early age, and calves are taken away from as early as one day after birth. The dairy cow suffers the trauma of having her calf taken away and often bellows for days. After this, the cow is milked to capacity for about 8 months, after which she is impregnated again.

The cycle is usually repeated two or three times, before the cow becomes unhealthy or ‘uneconomic’. At this stage the cow is physiologically ‘exhausted’ and is no longer able to keep pace with ‘economic demands’. Dairy cattle are often slaughtered at the age of four to five years, despite their natural life-span being over 20.
Other welfare concerns include:

- Selective breeding for excessively large udders, associated with hind-foot lameness
- Overfeeding of starchy, high-protein foods, which can cause digestive problems and lead to painful hoof inflammation called 'laminitis'
- Poor housing in cubicle sheds
- Unacceptable levels of mastitis: a painful udder infection
- High rates of lameness
- The use of BST, a genetically engineered version of the cow's growth hormone, to increase milk yield. This still occurs in some countries, but has been banned in the EU.

f) Turkeys

Intensively farmed turkeys are usually reared in dark sheds, where as many as 25,000 are crammed together. They are selectively bred for fast weight gain. This causes health problems similar to those in broilers and in addition they cannot mate naturally. Artificial insemination is therefore routinely required. Beak trimming is commonly performed and toe removal is also carried out on male breeding birds.

A farmed turkey is usually slaughtered between the ages of 12 and 26 weeks. In the wild, a turkey can live up to the age of 10. At the slaughterhouse the birds are hung upside down with their feet in shackles for up to six minutes before they are stunned (DEFRA, 2001). Being so heavy, this can cause great distress and suffering.

g) Ducks and Geese

Ducks and geese can be factory farmed for their eggs, meat, down and feathers. They are selectively bred for fast weight gain, causing health problems and disorders. Confinement in cages can also lead to lesions of the sternum and bone fractures, as well as foot injuries from the cage floors.

Ducks in battery cages are barely able to move, turn around or flap their wings. They are unable to preen, exercise or interact in natural ways. Most significantly, they are denied water in which to swim and clean their plumage.

Because of the stressful conditions, many ducks and geese neurotically pull out their feathers. To prevent this, part of the birds’ sensitive upper beaks are sometimes cut off. Many geese die from infection or starvation following this procedure.

Another major welfare concern is the force-feeding of ducks and geese for the production of foie gras (please see the section on 'Exotic Foods' below).

h) Mutilations

'Mutilation' is the term for physical alterations carried out by vets and animal scientists in a variety of operations. Each year millions of farm animals are mutilated. Most of these painful operations are performed without any anaesthetic.
Mutilations include:

- Lamb, piglet and calf castration
- Tail-docking of piglets and cows
- Beak trimming and toe removal in hens and turkeys
- Dubbing of poultry (removing the comb)
- Teeth-clipping of piglets
- Hot branding of calves and foals

The European Commission's Scientific Veterinary Committee has stressed that “castration causes severe pain and distress to pigs [which] should be avoided if possible”.

FUR FARMING

Fur-farmed animals are kept in long rows of cages under an open shed. Each farm can have several sheds. Small farms might have about 100 animals, while the largest in Scandinavia has over 100,000 animals. The cages, flooring included, are made of wire mesh, which makes it difficult for the animals to stand, especially the younger animals. Many fur-bearing animals are essentially wild and do not fare well in captivity.

The most farmed fur-bearing animal is the mink, followed by the fox.

Mink are very agile creatures, very much like ferrets except that they are wild and semi-aquatic. They love running, swimming, playing, climbing and are very inquisitive. In captivity, their options to exhibit natural behaviour are totally frustrated, resulting in abnormal physical and psychological conditions.

The typical territory of a fox in the wild is 5 – 10 km². Foxes farmed for fur are very prone to stress. These naturally quiet and mostly solitary animals react very sensitively to human presence. Because of this particular stress sensitivity, a high mortality of fox cubs (above 20%) is common due to infanticide (mothers’ cannibalism).

Rabbits, chinchillas, lynxes and even hamsters are also farmed for their fur. The majority of fur farms are found in Northern Europe and China, although smaller numbers of farms are found in many countries throughout the world.

There are severe welfare problems associated with fur farming and killing. These include:

- **Crowding and confinement** in small cages: causing frustration and leading to self-mutilation and stereotypical behaviour
- **Increase in disease susceptibility and parasites**: due to chronic malnutrition from an inadequate and unbalanced diet, crowded conditions and low resistance caused by stress
- **Barren environment**: no enrichment, little shelter and no protection from the weather
- **High cub mortality**: due to stress and infanticide
- **High adult mink mortality**: due to heat stress especially during summer, when fur animals are unable to cool down
- **Inhumane killing methods**: due to the fur farmer's desire to preserve the quality of the fur. The inhumane methods used include electrocution, poisoning, decompression chambers and neck snapping.
Over 55 million tons of fish were farmed worldwide in 2005. In the UK for example, around 70 million fish, mainly salmon and trout, but also cod and halibut, are reared and slaughtered each year. After broiler chickens, fish farming represents the second largest area of farm animal production.

Intensive fish farming causes major welfare problems. Up to 50,000 salmon can be confined in a single sea cage. Tightly packed, the fish swim around in constant circles and show abnormal behaviours. The crowding and confinement can cause the fish to suffer stress, making them more susceptible to disease. Disease outbreaks have caused the deaths of millions of farmed salmon. Official figures show death rates as high as 10-30%. In addition, salmon often suffer blinding cataracts, fin and tail injuries and body deformities. Intensive farming has also led to serious infestation of parasitic sea lice, which cause great suffering and death in affected fish. Parasites from fish farms can also be transmitted to wild fish, which has been linked to a decline in wild fish populations.

Other practices in the industry, such as starvation before slaughter, treatment with harmful chemicals, genetic engineering and biotechnology techniques involving chromosome manipulation, also result in further suffering. Moreover, inhumane and unacceptable slaughter methods are still permitted for fish; such as suffocation, bleeding without stunning and killing using carbon dioxide gas. As with other farmed animals, only slaughter methods that cause instant death, or render the animal instantly insensible to pain until death, should be permitted.

A large amount of this information has been adapted from ‘In Too Deep – The Welfare of Intensively Farmed Fish’; the full report is available at: www.ciwf.org.uk/publications/reports/in_too_deep_2001.pdf

**Foie gras:** Pâté de foie gras is a liver paste produced from force-fed geese and ducks. The force-feeding procedure involves forcing a feeding tube into a bird’s oesophagus followed by the forced cramming of a large amount of concentrated feedstuff into the bird’s stomach. Usually ducks are force-fed twice a day for 12-15 days, and geese are force-fed three times a day for up to 21 days. This forced overfeeding causes fat degeneration, which is followed by the death of liver cells and extreme enlargement of the liver – up to ten times its normal size. Force-feeding causes severe distress and birds can be left barely able to walk and with laboured breathing.

The European Union’s Scientific Committee on Animal Health and Welfare published a report in 1998 which concluded that: “Force feeding as currently practiced is detrimental to the welfare of the birds.” It said that there “must be a ban on techniques that cause avoidable suffering. The objectives are, by order of priority: to reduce the mortality and morbidity rates; to decrease
the amounts of pain and distress that are endured in the process and to allow the animals to engage in normal behavioural activities."

A ban on the force-feeding of geese and ducks for the production of foie gras in Israel came into effect on 1 April 2005. The enforcement of this ban, after an extension period of a year and a half, resulted from the Israeli Supreme Court ruling, in August 2003, that the production of foie gras causes unacceptable suffering and was in violation of the Cruelty to Animals Law, and that the regulations allowing it were invalid.

Some other countries, including Denmark, Norway, Germany and Poland also have legislation that specifically prohibits force-feeding. Other countries, including the UK, Sweden, Finland and Switzerland, do not have specific legislation, but the animal protection legislation is interpreted in such a way that it is understood that force-feeding is not permissible.

Veal: Most veal comes from calves forced to live in tiny, barren crates, devoid of any interaction with other calves. These crates allow very little movement, only a few steps forward or backward. The calves can do almost nothing except lie down or stand up. Deprived of exercise, some calves can barely walk to slaughter at 4-6 months old.

Calves normally suckle from their mothers and begin eating solid food at two weeks of age. Calves in the crate system are not allowed solid food and do not have access to water. Their diet consists solely of a liquid milk replacer, which they drink from a bucket. The denial of solid food causes abnormal development of the calves’ digestive systems and frustrates their natural urge to chew. The confinement, the denial of the suckling urge and the absence of solid food cause neurotic behaviours.

IN 1995, THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION’S SCIENTIFIC VETERINARY COMMITTEE PUBLISHED A MAJOR REPORT ON THE WELFARE OF CALVES AND MADE A NUMBER OF IMPORTANT CONCLUSIONS:

“The best conditions for rearing young calves involve leaving the calf with the mother in a circumstance where the calf can suckle and can subsequently graze and interact with other calves.”

“The welfare of calves is very poor when they are kept in small individual pens with insufficient room for comfortable lying, no direct social contact and no bedding or other material to manipulate.”

“In order to provide an environment which is adequate for exercise, exploration and free social interaction, calves should be kept in groups.”

Calves given an all-liquid, iron deficient diet “can have serious health problems, can show serious abnormalities of behaviour, and can have substantial abnormalities in gut development”.

Veal crates were banned in the UK in 1990 and will be banned across the European Union from 2007. The strength of the Scientific Veterinary Committee’s conclusions played a major part in persuading the European Union to outlaw the veal crate system.
Live transport: Each year all over the world billions of farm animals are transported for fattening or to be slaughtered. Some – particularly cattle, pigs, sheep, goats and horses – are moved over huge distances. Animals are often driven very long distances to slaughter, frequently passing nearer slaughterhouses on the way, for example, to fulfil financial contracts: 80% of meat in the USA is processed by less than 50 plants, mostly in the Midwest, despite the fact that there are nearly 1000 federally-inspected plants across the country. For biosecurity and animal welfare reasons, animals should obviously be slaughtered as close as possible to the farm where they are produced; yet the number of abattoirs in most economically developed countries has declined considerably over recent years.

This is bad enough within countries, but some of the worst problems are caused by export of live animals from country to country – a completely unnecessary trade. Thousands of pigs and cattle are trucked between Canada, the USA and Mexico. Hundreds of thousands of cattle are transported between European countries, and others are exported from Europe to the Middle East. And millions of sheep are sent by ship to the Middle East from Australia and New Zealand, in conditions which sometimes degenerate appallingly, with heavy mortality. These animals could readily be slaughtered first, and transported as carcases.

THE EUROPEAN UNION’S SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE ON ANIMAL HEALTH AND WELFARE CONCLUDED THAT:

“For most livestock transport, loading, with associated handling and driving, is the most stressful part. The disturbing parts may be fear, pain caused by humans, forced physical exercise especially on steep ramps, and the stress caused by the unfamiliar loading procedure, vehicle conditions and social contact.”

“Some people who load or unload animals, or drive vehicles, do not treat the animals as sentient beings whose welfare should be safeguarded… Hence the welfare of animals is often very poor during loading, transport, especially on winding roads, and unloading.”

Welfare problems occur for many reasons:
- Animals are crammed into overcrowded vehicles and often do not receive proper food, water or rest during their long journeys
- Animals become increasingly exhausted, dehydrated and stressed
- Animals often suffer heat stress. The European Union’s Scientific Committee on Animal Health and Welfare stated that “High temperatures in transport vehicles often cause poor welfare and mortality”
- Some animals are injured
- Some collapse on the floor and are trampled to death by their companions.

Humane slaughter is a two-stage process. Animals are first stunned; with a captive bolt, by electrical stunning or by gas, rendering them unconscious and insensible to pain. Their throats are then cut, and they die from loss of blood. If these procedures are not carried out properly, or are carried out by an improperly trained or untrained person, they may cause a lot of suffering to the animals.
However, many of the farm animals in the world are slaughtered fully conscious, either because of low awareness of the welfare implications of slaughter, or, in some parts of the world, because of religious reasons.

Scientific research shows that there can be a long time-gap between throat cutting and loss of brain responsiveness (more than one minute), especially for large mammals such as cattle. During this period many animals experience great pain and distress.

Injured animals (known as ‘downed animals’ or ‘downers’ in North America) suffer particularly at slaughter. They are often kicked, beaten, shocked, trampled, dragged with ropes or chains and left without food, water, shelter or veterinary care until they die, or are trucked away to be slaughtered. They are not killed at the farm because they are worth more money if they reach slaughter alive.

**Markets:** There can be serious welfare problems in markets, including overcrowding, lack of water, poor standards of stockmanship, inhumane treatment of animals and lack of veterinary care.

**GENETIC ENGINEERING AND CLONING**

**Genetic engineering** of farmed animals can be considered a violation of the biological integrity of species and many people therefore regard it as intrinsically wrong. Genetic engineering can allow the movement of genes between species, for example human to cow, or chicken to pig. Genetic engineering for greater productivity is indefensible, as most farmed animals are already stretched to their metabolic limits.

Genetic engineering is still in the experimental stage. Many experiments have resulted in the birth of transgenic animals which suffer severe health problems and often have to be destroyed on humane grounds.

Companies and academic institutions working in the field of biotechnology are eager to obtain patents on the *genetically engineered animals* that they produce. A patent allows the holder to profit from her or his invention as it means that, for a certain number of years, no one else can produce the invention without the patent-holder’s permission.

The wider availability of patents is giving a major commercial boost to the genetic engineering of animals, a process which, all too often, leads to great suffering in animals. Furthermore, patenting, because it views animals as inventions or things, is ethically out of step with the growing recognition that animals should be treated as sentient beings.

**Cloning:** As with genetic engineering, a host of female animals are subjected to surgical operations to remove or implant egg cells or embryos for the cloning procedure, and many are killed after having served their purpose. Many cloned animals are born with deformities and many of those that survive develop fatal conditions. Cloning can also reproduce disease potential and is a threat to biodiversity.
ANIMAL WELFARE STRATEGIES

The animal welfare movement has already used various strategies to improve the plight of farm animals. The following are just some examples of what has been, and could be, done:

a) Campaigns – Legislative and Consumer
   • High profile campaigns (media events, demos, actions etc.), especially for bans on the worst systems or processes and for consumer awareness
   • Investigations and media exposés, for example working with television documentaries for maximum campaign impact
   • Using the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation to ban certain practices/systems, for example close confinement systems, mutilations
   • Using the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation to improve situations that cannot be banned, for example space allowances, provision of bedding
   • Lobbying governmental authorities and politicians
   • Bringing court cases to test existing law, for example whether battery cages contravene existing animal protection law
   • Joint campaigns between farm animal, environmental and anti-vivisection groups
   • Campaigns targeting companies that are the worst offenders
   • Campaigns targeting companies doing business with the worst offenders, such as suppliers, buyers etc.

b) Consumer Education
   • Introducing and supporting labelling schemes for higher welfare or organic products
   • Comparing and publicising the welfare credentials of different labelling schemes
   • Comparing and publicising the reality of poor welfare systems and products
   • Comparing and publicising the welfare credentials of different fast food outlets, supermarkets, restaurants or other food companies

CIWF’S SUPERMARKET SURVEY
WWW.CIWF.ORG.UK/CAMPAIGNS/OTHER_CAMPAIGNS/COMPASSIONATE.HTML


WITH THE COOPERATION OF THE SUPERMARKETS, CIWF TRUST WILL CONTINUE TO SURVEY THEIR PERFORMANCE ANNUALLY. CIWF TRUST WILL ALSO BE SURVEYING SUPERMARKETS THAT OPERATE ON AN INTERNATIONAL SCALE WITH A VIEW TO SURVEYING PERFORMANCE IN ANIMAL WELFARE WORLDWIDE.
• Working with the media, especially making documentaries, to expose the issues and the
dractices of different companies
• Making information available in targeted publications, for example specially written articles
in food and lifestyle magazines
• Highlighting the fact that animal products cannot be cheap, since animals must pay the added
high price of their suffering, good health and strongly compromised natural needs.

c) Formal Education
• Covering animal husbandry and farm animal issues in school educational materials
and programmes
• Covering farm animal welfare issues in Veterinary and Agricultural University curricula,
and providing resources like WSPA’s ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’
• Including animal welfare education in all vocational programmes covering farm animal care,
transport and slaughter.

Q Are there humane alternatives to intensive farming systems?
A Yes, there are tried and tested alternatives. For example, free range and organic systems already
exist that do not rely on close confinement systems. These can be found on the web sites given
below. Also, WSPA member society Compassion in World Farming (CIWF) is preparing an
educational programme for agricultural universities explaining ‘Animal Welfare Aspects of Good
Agricultural Practice’ in considerable detail.

Q Why are these cruel systems being banned in some countries, but promoted
in others?
A Because some countries do not yet recognise the cruelties inherent in these systems, or the
fact that animals are sentient beings that have the ability to suffer and feel pain. Some countries
and companies may be aware of these factors, but feel that the need to produce ‘cheap food’ is
more important. However, this is a short-term perspective, as the long-term impacts are significant,
and the food is not in actuality cheap.

Q Can the world be fed without factory farming?
A Yes. In fact, for future generations to survive, there is no choice but to move towards humane and
sustainable farming methods. People will doubtless also have to eat less meat, but this will benefit
both the planet and their own health. See CIWF’s ‘Eat Less Meat’ web site for more information.
Compassion in World Farming
www.ciwf.org/
CIWF has a wide range of high quality, referenced reports, factsheets, briefings, educational materials and videos on all aspects of farm animal welfare. Many of the resources are available online or can be ordered free of charge.

CIWF’s ‘Eat Less Meat’ Site
www.ciwf.org.uk/campaigns/primary_campaigns/eat_less_meat.html

Dr. Temple Grandin’s Web Site
www.grandin.com/

EUREPGAP
www.eurep.org/

Farm Sanctuary
www.farmsanctuary.org/

Farm Animal Welfare Council (FAWC)
www.fawc.org.uk/
Includes reports on farm animal welfare issues.

Food Animal Initiative
www.tafarms.co.uk/
Includes a series of project reports and technical data sheets.

Farmed Animal Net
www.farmedanimal.net/

Farm Animal Reform Movement
www.farmusa.org/

Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
www.fao.org/

Humane Farming Association
www.hfa.org/

Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/ace/11513

Humane Slaughter Association
www.hsa.org.uk/

Organic Research
www.organic-research.com/

Outlawed in Europe: Three Decades of Progress
www.ari-online.org/pages/europe1.html
A Report for Animal Rights International by Clare Druce and Philip Lymbery.
Pighealth.com
www.pighealth.com/welfare.htm
Farm animal welfare – the power struggle

Soil Association
www.soilassociation.org/

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Animal Factories
Jim Mason, Peter Singer
Publisher: Harmony Books
ISBN: 0517577518

Animal Machines
Ruth Harrison
Publisher: Stuart & W
ISBN: 0722400365

Animal Welfare and Meat Science
N.G. Gregory, T. Grandin
Publisher: CAB International
ISBN: 085199296

Assault and Battery
What Factory Farming Means for Humans and Animals
Mark Gold
Publisher: Pluto Press
ISBN: 0861047273

Factory Farming
Andrew Johnson
Publisher: Blackwell Publishers
ISBN: 0631178430

Farm Animals
Michael Fox
Publisher: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins
ISBN: 0839117698

Farm Animal Behaviour and Welfare
(Third Edition)
Fraser, Broom
Publisher: CABI Publishing
ISBN: 0851991602

Farm Animal Welfare: School, Bioethical and Research Issues
Bernard Rollin
Publisher: Iowa State University Press
ISBN: 0813825636
Farm Animal Welfare: What If Any Progress?
Ruth Harrison
Publisher: Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW)
ISBN: 0900767456

In too deep: the welfare of intensively farmed fish
Philip Lymbery
Publisher: CIWF Trust
ISBN: B0000CP095

Livestock Handling and Transport
T. Grandin
Publisher: CAB International
ISBN: 0851994091

Livestock Health and Welfare
R. Moss
Publisher: Blackwell Science
ISBN: 0582060842

Livestock Housing
C. M. Wathes, D. R. Charles
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For a selection of Farmwatch leaflets and reports, see:
www.wspa-international.org
Today more and more wildlife faces extinction as a result of habitat loss, pollution, human intervention, commercial exploitation and other factors.
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WILDLIFE

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Today more and more wildlife faces extinction as a result of habitat loss, pollution, human intervention, commercial exploitation and other factors. Humans have not always utilised natural resources, including wildlife, in a responsible manner, with the result that ecological processes cannot continue to function properly and still sustain a diverse and healthy environment for the wildlife population.

There are different types of wildlife exploitation, with varying effects on the welfare of the animals involved. Some animals are caught in the wild, while others are captive-bred. They may be traded alive or dead (whole, in parts or in processed products). Many types of exploitation involve a high degree of animal suffering. Some commercial exploitation of wildlife also has serious conservation implications. Animal populations are affected, as well as the individual animals’ quality of life.

It is important to understand more about the commercial exploitation of certain wildlife species, the international trade in these species and their products, and the availability of humane alternative products, in order to develop effective strategies to protect wildlife.

Wild animals are hunted for their skins, bodies, derivatives and parts, for use in food, traditional medicines, fashion and luxury goods. Live animals are also hunted for the exotic pet and entertainment trades. A strong financial incentive drives the wildlife trade, making profits for individual hunters and multinational corporations. Trade in wildlife has pushed many species such as tigers and rhinos to the edge of extinction and continues to pose a major threat to many others. Every year hundreds of thousands of animals are traded illegally, with a turnover of billions of pounds.

A brief introduction to the problems of individual species follows.

a) Elephants

There are two elephant species: the Asian elephant (Elephas maximus) and the African elephant (Loxodonta africana). An elephant weighs between three and six tons, stands up to four metres high at the shoulder and has tusks weighing an average of 27 kilograms. Its gestation period is 22-24 months. Elephants reach maturity at 18 years and they can have a lifespan of 60-70 years, sometimes more.

The process of procuring ivory is appalling and cruel. The elephant must be killed before the ivory can be removed. This can be done by shooting, stoning, poison darts resulting in a slow painful death, or even machine-gun slaughter of entire herds at waterholes. Regardless of the mode of killing, the process of extracting the ivory is the same. In order to obtain all the ivory from the elephant, the hunter or poacher must cut into the head, to reach the approximately 25% of the ivory within the skull.

Between 1979 and 1989, the worldwide demand for ivory caused elephant populations to decline to dangerously low levels. In 10 years an estimated 700,000 elephants were slaughtered. In Africa there was a reduction of 50% in elephant populations, from 1.3 million to 600,000. Finally, in 1989, the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Flora and Fauna (CITES) approved an international ban on the trade in ivory and other elephant products. Two of the
world's largest ivory consumer markets, Europe and the USA, were effectively closed down.

However, in recent years major consumer countries, such as Japan and several Southern African countries, have increased their lobbying efforts to lift the ban and resume ivory trade. In 1997, CITES voted to partially lift the trade ban and allow a one-off ‘experimental’ trade for Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia to sell their stockpiled ivory to Japan; the first legal international sale of ivory in a decade. Since the sale went ahead in 1999, there has been a marked worldwide increase in seizures of illegal ivory in transit. In spite of this, as well as growing evidence of poaching, a second sale of ivory from Botswana, Namibia and South Africa was agreed under certain conditions in 2002. Further proposals for stockpile trade at the 2004 CITES meeting were rejected, but Namibia was permitted to trade in ornamental ivory trinkets, allowing the millions of tourists who visit the country every year to buy them as souvenirs. Trade in ivory will remain a contentious issue at every meeting of CITES.

b) Bears
There are eight bear species worldwide: the giant panda, polar bear, brown bear, American black bear, Asiatic black bear, spectacled bear, sloth bear and sun bear. Bears live in all continents except Africa, the Antarctic and Australia. All of eight species are endangered; five are listed on CITES Appendix I and the remaining three are listed on Appendix II.

Bear species are hunted, both legally and illegally, for a variety of reasons, including trophy hunting (North America, Europe); pest control (Japan); for food (worldwide); and for medicinal products (worldwide). Licensed hunting for bears is still carried out in many countries such as Canada, Croatia, Russia, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and the USA.

In addition, live wild bears, usually caught as cubs, are used for a variety of entertainment purposes such as dancing (India, Pakistan, Bulgaria and formerly Greece and Turkey) and bear
baiting (Pakistan and formerly parts of Europe). Wild bears are also poached in various countries in Asia (including China, Korea and Vietnam) to supplement the breeding stocks of bear-bile farms found in those countries. The welfare implications of bear farming are discussed further in the ‘Captive Breeding for Commercial Use’ section of this chapter.

Despite global concern for bears, protection offered to them varies greatly between countries.

c) Tigers
Tigers (Panthera tigris) are one of four cats that belong to the Panthera genus. There are five existing subspecies of tiger: Amur (Siberian), Indochinese, Bengal, South China and Sumatra. All are endangered and listed on CITES Appendix I. Three other tiger subspecies have become extinct in the past 100 years: the Caspian tiger, the Java tiger and the Bali tiger. Illegal poaching is one of the major reasons for the rapid decline of tigers in the wild. Tiger body parts have historically been used in traditional medicine for rheumatism and related ailments for thousands of years in Asia. Nearly every part of the tiger is utilised. Traditional Asian medicine uses tiger bone in a number of different formulae. Tiger skin is made into magical amulets and novelties, as are teeth and claws, while tiger penis is an ingredient of allegedly powerful sexual tonics. Captive-bred live tigers are also sold as exotic pets.

Since the early 1990s, the demand for tiger bone and trade in tiger parts has pushed the already endangered tiger close to extinction in the wild. Major illegal supplying markets still operate in Southeast Asia, especially Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos PDR, Myanmar and Vietnam. There has been little enforcement by authorities against poachers and traders. In other countries, including Bangladesh, China, India, Nepal, the Russian Federation and Thailand, the supply market is more covert, but still operational. In countries like India and the Russian Federation, a sizeable market for tiger skins persists. In late 2003, customs in Tibet Autonomous Region intercepted the world’s largest ever haul of animal skins, including 31 tigers and 581 leopards. Stuck to the skins were pieces of Delhi newspapers, exposing the trade link between India and China.

China and Thailand have several large establishments for captive-bred tigers. Such ‘tiger farms’ were intended to breed tigers to supply the market demand for tiger parts. However, a CITES ban on international trade in tigers and tiger parts has prevented the expansion of farms. Now they operate as tourist attractions or claim to be for tiger reintroduction programmes into the wild. There is some evidence, however, of illegal trade from these farms.

Aside from using tiger parts to mix with other herbal medicine as raw ingredients by traditional medicine practitioners, recent decades have seen large-scale production and global distribution of manufactured medicines that contain tiger parts. China is the major producer of tiger bone pills, plasters and medicinal wine, but such medicines are also made in South Korea and other Asian countries. Current scientific techniques cannot detect the presence of tiger bone in processed mixtures but some manufacturers argue that these products are tiger in name only.

d) Bushmeat
Bushmeat is the term used to describe meat taken from the wild. It often includes endangered animal species such as chimpanzees and gorillas. Originally, bushmeat was only consumed by subsistence hunters. However, it is now sold in large towns and cities, not only in the source country, but also in cities worldwide. In many areas, poachers come from other regions or countries to hunt, depriving local people of a food source. With many regions of the globe becoming increasingly urbanised, people are turning to bushmeat as a traditional choice or as a luxury product.

The opening up of forests due to large-scale commercial logging and mining has increased the accessibility and hunting of wild animals in Africa, Asia and South America. The commercial bushmeat trade causes great suffering and death to individual animals and is pushing
endangered species such as eastern lowland gorillas, bonobos and chimpanzees to extinction. Orphaned animals that cannot survive in the wild are captured for the pet trade.

Many animals hunted for bushmeat are protected by CITES, of which all Central and West African countries are signatories. However, CITES is restricted to international trade regulation only and cannot stop hunting and consumption within a country.

The international bushmeat trade has increased due to the high prices that can be obtained in certain countries where meat can cost up to £10–£20 per kilogram. In addition, lack of funds and political interference or instability often lead to lack of enforcement of both CITES and national regulations and legislation.

CITES, governments and NGOs are working together to tackle the bushmeat problem. However the growing bushmeat crisis is a complex, multi-faceted issue that poses one of the most challenging problems to conservation and animal protection organisations today.

e) Seals
Six species of seals, including the harp, hooded, grey, ringed, bearded and harbour, are found off the Atlantic coast of Canada. Harp and hooded seals are the two species most commonly hunted commercially.

Although harp seals make up 95% of the commercial hunt, they are not the only seals hunted in Atlantic Canada: there is also a permitted quota for the hunting of 10,000 hooded seals, and in recent years small numbers of grey seals have been hunted for commercial use. In addition to the commercial hunts, seals of all species are taken for subsistence purposes in Labrador and the Canadian Arctic, and harp and hooded seals may be killed for personal use by residents of sealing regions. The seal hunt quota was introduced in 1971.

The majority of seal pelts are still exported to Norway for processing. The seal pelts are used for furs or leather. A small amount of seal meat, particularly the flipper meat, is consumed locally by Newfoundlanders and some claim it has an aphrodisiac effect. Seal pepperoni, salami, sausage and canned seal meat are being marketed as relatively new products. Seal meat is also processed to extract the protein in a powdered form. Seal oil is processed into capsules and sold as a nutritional supplement or in the manufacture of margarine, cheese, cosmetics, hand lotions and other oil-based products. Seal penises are shipped to Asian markets and can sell for up to $US500 each. Penises are often dried and consumed in capsule form or in a tonic.

Seal hunting is inhumane. International groups such as the International Fund for Animal Welfare and Greenpeace have campaigned on the issue for years and their evidence shows the horror of seal hunts: conscious seal pups dragged across the ice with sharpened boat hooks, the stockpiling of dead and dying animals, seals beaten and stomped and even skinned alive. In 2002, an international team of veterinary experts attended the hunt. They observed sealers at work from the air and from the ground and performed post-mortems on 73 seal carcasses. Their study concluded that:

• 79% of the sealers did not check to see if an animal was dead before skinning it.
• In 40% of the kills, a sealer had to strike the seal a second time, presumably because it was still conscious after the first blow or shot.
• Up to 42% of the seals they examined were likely to have been skinned alive.

Many people remember the worldwide protest that arose in the 1970s over Canada’s killing of whitecoat seal pups under two weeks old. The massive protest, with international campaigning against the Canadian seal hunt during the 1970s and 80s, led to the European Union ban on the importation of whitecoat pelts in 1983 and eventually, to the Canadian government’s banning of large-vessel commercial whitecoat hunting in 1987.
Canada’s cod fishery collapsed in the early 1990s and some in Canada blamed the seals, despite the fact that the greatest cause was clearly decades of over-fishing by humans. The collapse of fisheries around Newfoundland, due to mismanagement, is a major driver in the expansion of the seal hunt.

So far, the whitecoat harp seal hunt remains banned but the hunt for older harp seals is still legal in Canada. Regrettably, in 1995 the Canadian Fisheries Minister increased the quota and announced new federal subsidies to encourage sealers to kill more seals. In 2004, the Canadian government approved an expansion in the allowable catch for harp seals to a maximum of 350,000 animals a year, which is the highest quota for any year since 1967. Today, the seal hunt has once again become a cause for renewed protests.

Please refer to the ‘Animal Protection Strategies’ section of this chapter for further information on seal hunting.

f) Whales

Whales are hunted for their meat and body parts. The oil from their bodies has been used to make lipstick, shoe polish and margarine. The practice of hunting whales began in the Ninth century when Spain undertook the first organised hunt. In the 20th century, the Netherlands, Denmark, Britain, France, Germany, Norway, Japan and the United States began to kill large numbers of whales.

Certain species of whales were hunted so much that their numbers began to decline. In 1946 the International Whaling Commission (IWC) was formed to address the issues of whaling and the growing threat to whale species. The IWC created three categories of whaling: Commercial, Scientific and Aboriginal Subsistence.

In commercial whaling, whales are killed for their meat and their parts. In scientific whaling, whales are killed so that their bodies can be studied and catalogued. Aboriginal subsistence is the whaling carried out by native cultures, such as the Native Americans in the United States. These groups of people are given certain rights to hunt whales based upon their cultural history and dependence upon whale meat.

Due to the danger of extinction facing many whale species, the IWC voted to suspend all commercial whale hunting, beginning in 1986. Despite this international agreement to stop killing whales for their parts, several countries continue to kill whales and sell their meat and parts, including Norway, Iceland and Japan. Whales continue to be killed in the United States, Greenland and Russia under the aboriginal subsistence rule.

There is no humane way to kill a whale.

Whales are most often killed using a primitive weapon called a harpoon. The modern harpoon has a grenade attached that explodes when the harpoon enters the body of the whale. It can take a very long time for some whales to die, which causes huge suffering, fear and a lingering death. Despite international pressure, the best efforts of certain members of the IWC and grassroots movements to save the whales around the world, whaling continues to threaten whales and their future here on earth.
g) Turtles
Both marine and freshwater turtles are hunted for their meat and for their shells. In addition to being caught in the wild, some turtle species are also captive-bred for commercial purposes.

Injuries sustained during capture, most notably those caused by harpooning, will not kill the turtles immediately but cause prolonged pain and suffering. Once on board a ship, turtles are often stored on their backs and left exposed to the sun. They will often reach critical temperatures and die, or become debilitated from heatstroke. Survivors are often left on their backs, unfed, dehydrated and covered in excrement from the dead and dying, for two weeks or more, until the catch is brought ashore. It is estimated that 25% of captured turtles die before reaching the shore, where they are checked over by prospective buyers.

The slaughter process is of further concern. Still fully conscious, the turtle is turned on its back and a knife is used to cut along the soft lower and upper portions of the shell. Once the knife has made its way around the circumference of the shell, the hard covering is torn off to expose the internal organs and muscles of the turtle. Throughout the entire ordeal the turtle can see and otherwise sense what is going on around it, right up until its death.

Turtles have a set of physiological characteristics, unique to reptiles, which result in serious welfare concerns during slaughter. Compared with mammals, reptiles have a low metabolic rate, which means that blood loss from injuries is relatively slow. Nerve tissues are also extremely resilient and can remain viable for very long periods without a supply of oxygen. Indeed, several studies have shown that reptiles often remain conscious long after decapitation. Aside from lethal injection, it is now believed that the only humane way to kill a reptile is rapid and complete destruction of the brain.

The worldwide population of the hawksbill turtle has seen a sharp decline in recent decades, due to a number of factors: excessive exploitation of its eggs, destruction of its habitat, marine pollution and fishing by-catches. However, one of the most significant causes of hawksbill turtle decline is the commercial trade in its shell, which is used in many different products, including handicraft items, jewellery and other accessories. Demand for hawksbill shell remains high and, despite the dwindling numbers of hawksbill turtles, they are still actively hunted and killed to meet the demands of consumers worldwide.

International trade in hawksbill turtles has been strictly regulated since the introduction of CITES. As a result of the strong evidence of significant worldwide decline and projected ongoing decline,
the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Species Survival Commission Marine Turtle Specialist Group has categorised the hawksbill as ‘critically endangered’. Despite this, trade in hawksbill turtles remains a constant threat.

### HUNTING AND TRAPPING

**Hunting**: Historically, hunting was necessary for human survival. However, in most modern societies, hunting is no longer needed and is merely a tool of commerce and/or entertainment.

The hunting of animals, especially wildlife, has developed to provide food, fun, trophy, sport, or to supply a trade in their products. Animals hunted for these reasons are referred to as ‘game animals’. Hunting is also carried out to control ‘vermin’, or as a wildlife management tool to reduce animal populations that have exceeded the capacity of their range, or when individual animals have become a danger or nuisance to humans.

However, hunting is often a form of exploitation of animals for entertainment. It can also jeopardise nature’s balance when it may not be necessary to control most species’ populations. Individual animals are chased before killing, suffering the stress of separation from their group and translocation to a new environment. Hunting often causes injury without killing and very often leads to a drawn-out death.

In the USA, the *Federal Aid in Wildlife Restoration Act* helps finance state wildlife agencies by establishing an excise tax on guns, ammunition and fishing gear. These funds are then distributed to state wildlife agencies. **The more hunting licenses that are sold, the more funds a state receives from this act.** Therefore, state wildlife agencies tend to create a climate in favour of ‘game’ species and encourage overpopulation for the purpose of sport hunting. Predators such as foxes, coyotes and wolves are frequently killed so that more game animals, such as moose, deer, caribou and birds, are available for hunters.

There are thousands of rod and gun clubs in North America and hundreds of groups that promote and defend hunting. Some specifically promote worldwide hunting of endangered species and exotic wildlife. The safari method of hunting is a development of sport hunting that sees elaborate travel in Africa, India and other places in pursuit of trophies.

In Britain the most controversial type of hunting is *fox hunting* with a pack of hounds, often followed by riders on horses. Like all forms of hunting, fox hunting is a blood sport. The Hunt Saboteurs Association (HSA) was founded in Britain in 1963. Hunt saboteurs disrupted hunts to prevent animals from being killed by sport hunting groups. HSA was the first organisation to methodically confront the organised hunting of animals for sport, particularly fox hunting with hounds.

In February 2002 the Scottish Parliament outlawed hunting with dogs. And finally, after 80 years of campaigning, the ban on hunting with dogs was finally passed in the British Parliament. Hunting with dogs is now illegal in England and Wales.

**Canned hunting** is a commercial business on private land, charging hunters a fee for killing captive animals in an enclosure. This method of hunting started in North America in the 1960s and was advertised under a variety of names such as ‘hunting preserves’, ‘game ranches’, or ‘shooting preserves’. Canned hunts may take place on properties ranging in size from less than 100 acres to a 650 acre game ranch. Animals may be shot in cages or within fenced enclosures. In other cases they may be shot over feeding stations.
Prices for a hunt can range from several hundred to several thousand dollars per kill. One hunting ranch in the USA, for example, charges $350 for a Corsican ram, $450 for a Russian boar, $750 for a blackbuck antelope, $3,000 for a buffalo and $5,500 for a trophy elk. Some exotic animals are available upon the hunter’s request. Some shooting preserves charge up to $20,000 for a lion or a rhinoceros.

Animals are either bred in captivity, purchased from animal dealers or are retired zoo and circus animals. Canned hunting is a motivation for zoos and exotic breeders to over-breed their animals. Zoos and breeders can dispose of their unwanted surplus by selling animals directly or indirectly to canned hunts.

Because most of these animals are hand-reared, they tend to be tame; consequently they do not run when approached by weapon-wielding hunters. Others may be tied to a stake or drugged before they are shot. The business offers guaranteed trophies and advertises itself as ‘No Kill, No Pay’. Inevitably, as animals are restricted to a particular area, they cannot avoid being killed, no matter how large the hunting grounds. This is contrary to the notion of ‘a fair chase’, a fundamental ethic in hunting circles.

It is widely understood that animals kept in concentrated areas are more likely to increase disease transmission such as brucellosis, tuberculosis and chronic wasting disease (akin to mad cow disease). All these diseases can be transmitted from one place to another and also spread to the wild population.

Canned hunting has also spread to other countries, such as South Africa, where there have been campaigns against this cruel and unethical abuse of the country’s rich wildlife.

**Trapping** requires less time and energy than most other hunting methods. It is also comparably safe from the hunter’s point of view. Humane trapping can be used for treating injured animals or relocating wildlife. However, the majority of trapping is used for the fur trade and is inhumane.

**There are four major types of traps:** leghold, Conibear, snare and cage. The leghold trap is the most widely used. Even the conservative American Veterinary Medical Association has called the leghold trap ‘inhumane’.

The **leghold trap** is made up of two jaws, a spring and a trigger in the middle. When the animal steps on the trigger, the trap closes around the leg, holding the animal in place. The jaws grip above the foot, making sure the animal can’t escape. Usually some kind of lure is used to get the animal into position, or the trap is set on an animal trail.

The trap causes serious injury and severe stress. As it tries to escape, the animal injures itself even more; by trying to bite through the trap, breaking its teeth and injuring its mouth and sometimes even gnawing at the trapped leg until it is pulled off. The animal can often die of infection even if it escapes in this way. If no escape is possible it may die of shock, blood loss, hypothermia, dehydration or exhaustion before the trapper returns, which could be days or weeks later. It may also be killed or mutilated by predators.

**THE LEGHOLD TRAP IS UNIVERSALLY KNOWN TO BE CRUEL AND ITS USE IS PROHIBITED IN OVER 80 COUNTRIES, INCLUDING THE EUROPEAN UNION.**

The **Conibear trap** is equally inhumane. The animal has to be lured or guided into the correct position before the trap is triggered. It is usually built to strike at the back of the neck and snap the spine. The effect should be instant or next to instant death, but if the animal is not correctly...
positioned the trap might not work as intended. Animals that do not die before the trapper returns often suffer before being killed inhumanely; trappers kill by clubbing, drowning, choking etc., in order to avoid damaging the pelt.

Although alternative traps have been proposed, such as a padded leghold trap or a cage trap, wild animals still try to escape, breaking their teeth and causing other severe injuries. Other problems posed by trapping include the large number of non-target species such as dogs, cats, birds and other animals that get trapped, injured and killed, and the disruption of healthy wildlife populations. Trappers call these animals ‘trash kills’ because they have no economic value.

Commercial trapping takes place mainly in the United States, Canada and Russia, with smaller numbers of animals caught in countries such as Argentina and New Zealand.

Four million wild animals are killed in the United States each year by 160,000 part-time trappers, who supply the pelts to the fashion industry. A decade ago the situation was even worse: 17 million wild fur-bearing animals were killed by 300,000 trappers.

However, the statistics show that the number of trappers has dropped. The European Union’s ban on the importation of fur from countries that use leghold traps, and years of lobbying and trade pressure on the US and Canadian governments, have had a significant impact on the use of traps.

4

CAPTIVE BREEDING OF WILDLIFE FOR COMMERCIAL USE

Some wild animals, including bears, tigers, civets, minks and foxes, are bred in captivity for commercial purposes. They are treated as domestic animals, and their natural behavioural needs are completely denied. Animal welfare is totally compromised in these captive facilities, where animals are raised under intensive and very stressful conditions.

a) Bear Farming

The use of bear parts in Chinese medicines dates back over 3,000 years. Bear gall or bile is believed to be effective for a variety of conditions, including reducing fever and inflammation, for cooling the liver and for treating hepatitis. The use of bear galls in traditional medicine is widespread in many Asian countries, including Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, Vietnam, Malaysia and Thailand.

Traditionally, bears were hunted and killed in order to obtain the gall bladder for medicinal use, leading to a worldwide decline in bear populations. In the 1980s, as bears in the wild became increasingly rare, a new form of exploitation of bears appeared – bear farming. Bear farming was a technique originating in North Korea but which quickly expanded into China and then South Korea and Vietnam.

The argument put forward in favour of bear farms is that the bile extracted from one farmed bear, in one year, would provide the equivalent quantity of bile obtained from killing 40 bears in the wild for their gall bladders. However, there are serious animal welfare concerns associated with the bear-farming industry, including confinement in small, barren cages and cruel bile extraction techniques. Conservation concerns also exist as bears in farms have often been taken from the wild.

The Asiatic black bear, the main bear species held in bear farms in China, is listed on Appendix I of CITES, meaning that all international commercial trade in live specimens, body parts or derivatives is banned. An illegal trade, however, still continues.

The bear farming industry in China is going through a process of consolidation and expansion. The smaller farms are closing and the larger farms are expanding in size. The result
is fewer farms but with more bears. In 1992, there were 600 farms with approximately 6,000 bears. At the end of 2002, there were 167 farms with approximately 9,000 bears. A WSPA funded investigation in 2003 visited eight bear farms in the northeast of China and in those eight bear farms alone, owners reported a total of 4,793 bears. Although an accurate figure of the total number of bears in Chinese bear farms is currently unavailable, it is clear that the quantities of bear bile produced by farms has actually increased market demand. This can be seen in the wide range of products from shampoo to throat lozenges and wine.

Bear bile farming also takes place in Korea and Vietnam. Due to public pressure, the Korean authorities banned the extraction of bile in the early 1990s. However, the bears remain in the farms.

### ESTIMATED NUMBER OF BEARS IN BEAR FARMS:

- **Vietnam:** 3,927 bears in 1,059 farms (Official government figures 2005)
- **Korea:** 1,800 in 78 farms (Official government figures 2004)
- **China:** 7,002 bears in 247 farms (Official government figures 1999)*

*An accurate figure for China is currently unavailable; the last official government figure was given in 1999

Following a long-standing WSPA campaign, the Vietnamese government agreed in February 2005 to establish a national task force to phase out bear farming in Vietnam. Plans for registering and microchipping all bears in captivity, phasing out the breeding of bears on bear farms, and strengthening the ban on taking of bears from the wild were agreed between WSPA and the Vietnamese government.

Bear farming should end on the grounds of extreme animal cruelty, the negative effects on wild bear conservation, and the existence of suitable herbal traditional medicines and synthetic alternatives to bear bile.

Consumer demand for bear bile products needs to be stopped. This can be achieved by actively promoting the herbal and synthetic alternatives to bear bile.

### b) Civet Farming

Civet musk is used in perfumes by several perfumeries in France. Civet musk is produced in Ethiopia, where approximately 3,000 civets are kept in primitive conditions on over 200 farms. Over 1,000 kilograms of musk are exported from Ethiopia to France each year.

There are considerable animal welfare problems associated with civet farming. Animals are taken from the wild and held in small confined wooden cages with inadequate food and bedding. Almost 40% of civets die within the first three weeks following capture.

The musk is extracted by squeezing the perineal gland at the base of the tail. It is a very painful and traumatic process, which often results in physical injuries.

Civet musk is a completely non-essential ingredient for the perfume industry as musk can be artificially synthesised and the synthetic form is already used in many commercially available perfumes.

### c) Fur Farming

The fur trade is a multi-billion-dollar, worldwide industry. From ‘animal to coat’, several sectors of the fur industry are involved. The breeder or the trapper kills and skins the animals.
Through a dealer or cooperative, the skins are sold at auctions. The buyers are dealers or larger manufacturers who buy the skins and stitch them into coats or other articles. Dressed skins and coats are mostly traded through fur fairs around the world. The furrier or department store retailer then sells the coats to the public.

Fur is also used out of economic necessity in some areas of the world, although this is becoming more rare as alternative products become increasingly available. The use of fur in the fashion industry is completely gratuitous, as there are many alternative products available.

There are a number of animal welfare and conservation issues associated with both captured and farmed fur animals, such as trapping methods, husbandry conditions and killing methods.

85% percent of the fur industry’s skins come from animals in fur farms. These farms can hold thousands of animals that are intensively farmed in a similar way worldwide. Other sources include trapped or hunted animals, stolen pets and surplus animals from stray control programmes. Please refer to the ‘Farm Animal’ chapter for an overview of the welfare implications of fur farms.

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**HOW MANY ANIMALS DOES IT TAKE TO MAKE A FUR COAT?**

- 12-15 Lynx
- 10-15 Wolves or Coyotes
- 15-20 Foxes
- 60-80 Minks
- 27-30 Raccoons
- 10-12 Beavers
- 60-100 Squirrels

(Source: Fur Free Alliance HTTP://INFOUARATION.COM/FACTS.PHP)

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**EXOTIC PET TRADE**

The exotic pet trade involves the buying and selling of wildlife for use as pets. Animals can either be caught from the wild, or sold from captive-breeding establishments that resemble farms. The exotic pet trade is a huge industry and flourishes both as a legal and illegal activity.

Much of the exotic pet trade is dominated by reptiles and birds. The live reptile and amphibian trade is largely unregulated, with comparatively few species listed on CITES. Until recent years, most reptiles traded were taken from the wild. Large profit margins, coupled with low transportation costs, have made the reptile trade a lucrative business.

The trade has many negative welfare and conservation implications associated with the capture, transport and sale of these animals. The majority of wild-trapped animals die from the stress and disease that is associated with every stage of their journey. Once the animal is sold, its welfare problems can continue. In the first instance, it is not likely to be suitable as a household pet. Second, as the animal is likely to have been subjected to high levels of stress and possibly injury or disease, it may not survive for a long time.

The owner may not know about specific husbandry or nutritional requirements. Conditions may not allow the animal to behave naturally and this can lead to physical and mental disorders such as self-mutilation: grey parrots plucking out their feathers, monkeys chewing their forelimbs or tails,
etc. Animals are also unable to engage in natural behavioural patterns, such as searching for food or patrolling a territory.

As exotic animals can be very expensive and time-consuming to maintain properly, animals are often neglected, become sick and may be abandoned once the novelty has worn off. This abandonment is obviously detrimental to the animal – in a strange environment, its chances

THE SPECIES SURVIVAL NETWORK
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THE SPECIES SURVIVAL NETWORK (SSN) IS AN EXAMPLE OF AN EFFECTIVE COALITION FOR THE PROTECTION OF WILDLIFE, BETWEEN CONSERVATION, ENVIRONMENTAL AND ANIMAL PROTECTION ORGANISATIONS WORKING ON WILDLIFE TRADE REGULATIONS THROUGH THE CONVENTION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE OF ENDANGERED SPECIES (CITES).

• SSN coordinates the activities of more than 70 member groups around the world to help secure CITES protection for wildlife affected by international trade.

• SSN provides organisations with the information they need to participate in the CITES process. SSN offers an internet discussion list and regular updates on wildlife issues and relevant global press.

• SSN establishes links with governments and officials who are responsible for wildlife trade issues and its regular publication, CITES Digest, is mailed to all CITES Parties prior to and in between, Conferences of the Parties. The publication helps relevant authorities to understand developments pertaining to CITES, wildlife trade in general and the position of NGOs on certain issues.

• SSN's legal and scientific research and analysis provides CITES Parties and the media with information to better understand proposals and resolutions considered for adoption by the Parties and the impact that these may have on the survival of certain species.

• SSN's Working Groups combine specialists from different professions within SSN's membership, including biologists, lawyers and trade and enforcement experts.

• These Working Groups develop and implement plans to advocate CITES protection for species in trade. The SSN has Working Groups on Elephants, Whales and Dolphins, Birds, Bears, Marine Fish, Tigers, Big Cats, Primates, Sea Turtles, Wildlife Use, Trophy Hunting and Implementation.

• With its joint effort and collective lobbying activities for wildlife protection, SSN has campaigned successfully to prevent the lifting of the ban on international ivory trade for several Southern African countries and also secured the rejection of Japan's proposal to decrease protection of the minke whale, at the 13th meeting of the Parties to CITES in 2004.
of survival are low and it may die of malnutrition, disease or injury. Furthermore, it can spread
diseases to the local wildlife population. If large numbers of exotic animals are abandoned, they
can also create an imbalance in the local ecosystem.

Orangutans, listed as a CITES Appendix I species, are a typical example. Orangutans are hunted in their
natural habitats in Indonesia and smuggled into countries such as Taiwan, Japan and Thailand. Young
orangutans taken from their mothers and sold in pet markets attract owners who purchase them as
pets to keep in small flats or houses, but who know little about their natural behaviour or biological
needs. When, years later, the orangutans grow to their natural size, the owners cannot cope and
cage or abandon their ‘pets’. The animals may also become diseased due to lack of veterinary care.

**ANIMAL PROTECTION STRATEGIES**

In order to conserve and protect wildlife, animal protection groups have used various strategies
and campaign actions through the years. The following are examples of what has been, and could
be, done:

**a) The Power of Coalitions**
The industries and individuals that utilise and exploit wildlife employ far more people than animal
protection groups and are often richer and more organised in operating their businesses. It is no
longer effective for animal protection organisations to work in isolation, as a single group fighting
against powerful industries and addressing so many complex issues. It is vital that animal protection
organisations work closely not only with each other, but also with different types of NGOs who may
have different concerns regarding the same issues. These benefits include the following:

- Attract more media attention
- More manpower and resources can be put together for a bigger and more organised campaign
- More credibility for the NGOs and raising the profile of the issue
- Collective lobbying of politicians or decision-makers often leads to a more positive outcome
  or feedback
- Enabling animal protection to extend the concerns of animal welfare to a bigger arena
- Enabling groups to share work and tasks and to tackle the issue from various angles.

**b) Public Education**

- Explaining the importance of conserving wildlife populations and protecting individual species
- Revealing the cruelty and animal welfare concerns behind the commercial exploitation of wildlife
- Educating consumers on the serious impact of consuming wildlife products
- Providing humane alternatives to the use of wildlife in traditional medicines
- Working with the media and through multi-media campaigns to expose the cruel practices
  of commercial industries
- Asking the public to raise their concerns with lawmakers or officials.

**c) Analysing Economic Factors**

Wildlife-exploiting industries and other opponents of wildlife protection often use economic
arguments to justify the need to continue exploitation for commercial use. They repeatedly argue
that there are tangible economic benefits for local communities, a specific industry or nation in the
trading and exploitation of wildlife, especially of endangered species. This argument often seems
to win support from both the media and the public.

It is important that animal protection groups examine closely the economic arguments being put
forward in debate. It is often found that economic arguments quoted are either incorrect or used
misleadingly in favour of our opponents.
Animal protection groups should take the initiative to work closely with economists or to encourage them to conduct a study of the issues from an economic angle, so that their robust data and arguments can be utilised to combat unrealistic claims or projections. For example, a report produced by the Centre for International Economic Studies on ‘The Economics of Captive Breeding and Endangered Species Conservation’, demonstrates how captive breeding of wildlife for commercial use will not help wildlife conservation. The report brings a new angle and persuasive evidence to the argument for the protection of wildlife.

The following example reveals how animal protection groups analysed and combated government and fishery industry claims, with regard to the supposed economic benefits of seal hunting.

The ACTIVE CONSERVATION AWARENESS PROGRAMME (ACAP) tackles the illegal wildlife trade and the market for traditional medicines, exotic food, luxury goods and fashion trade by educating consumers, with the view of reducing demand for endangered species products.

Established by an international conservation organisation, WILDAID, ACAP uses high-profile celebrities, cultural heroes and innovative multi-media campaigns to target consumers, particularly in countries where demand for products is high, but awareness of the threats to endangered species is low.

ACAP receives support from over 50 high-profile Asian, African and Western celebrities including martial arts legend Jackie Chan; Bollywood actor Amitabh Bachchan; Ethiopian long-distance runner Haile Gebreselassie; and Hollywood stars Ralph Fiennes and Minnie Driver. Their TV celebrity messages, based around the core ACAP theme ‘WHEN THE BUYING STOPS, THE KILLING CAN TOO’ are broadcast to up to one billion people around the world every week, via ACAP’s international media supporters such as CNN International, Discovery Networks, Star TV and terrestrial stations.

Regional results have been very encouraging: 78% of viewers in Taiwan reported that they would never use endangered species products again, and 30% of viewers in Thailand reported they had stopped eating shark fin soup as a result of the ACAP campaign.

In addition to recruiting cultural leaders, ACAP also works locally to engage key political leaders in directly endorsing and assisting regional campaigns, through effective enforcement of wildlife crime laws.

ACAP also enlists local partners to support broader field and community work with schools, colleges and local media.

Visit the web site for more information: www.wildaid.org/acap.

Analysis of economic factors of the Canadian seal hunt
It is often argued that the seal hunt is important to the economy of Atlantic Canada.

According to the industry’s own figures:
- Commercial sealing only accounted for 0.06% of Newfoundland’s GDP in 1997.
- It provided the equivalent of only 100-120 full-time jobs.
• In the past seven years alone, more than $20 million has been provided to the sealing industry through government grants and interest-free loans.
• It is estimated that the total value of the seal hunt to Atlantic Canada equals the annual revenues of one McDonald’s outlet.

Fact: The seal hunt badly tarnishes Canada’s international image, putting at risk other legitimate industries, such as tourism. Direct federal and provincial subsidies for seal meat ceased in 2000, but subsidies to sealing associations and to industries for the research, development and processing of seal products continue. Some economists have noted that when factors such as government-funded icebreaking services and lost revenue from tourism are considered, the commercial seal hunt may represent a net loss to the economy of Newfoundland.

Fact: According to the Newfoundland government, the value of the 1998 hunt was $8.75 million, declining to $7.5 million in 1999 and $2 million in 2000.

Fact: Since the value of the entire Newfoundland fishing industry exceeded $1 billion in both 1999 and 2000, the commercial seal hunt clearly plays only a small role in Newfoundland’s economy.

d) Wildlife Rehabilitation and Sanctuaries
Wildlife rehabilitation involves caring for sick, injured or orphaned wildlife. Wildlife confiscated from illegal trade is often sent to a rehabilitation centre for treatment and subsequent assessment of its suitability for release back into the wild. A rehabilitation programme or centre may be run by a national government or NGO.

Animals that are unsuitable for release may be kept in the rehabilitation centre, or are transferred to other locations to live out the rest of their natural lives. Some animals may have lost their natural ability to survive in the wild because of injury or long-term confinement. When animals are born in captivity and reared by humans, the chances of being released are even more limited, and wildlife sanctuaries are needed to home them.

In general, a sanctuary consists of a semi-wild habitat with a boundary fence. An animal sanctuary is different from a zoo. A sanctuary’s animals are rescued because of animal abuse or abandonment. These animals may be rescued from circuses, roadside zoos, laboratories, canned hunts or public lands. Most importantly, there should be no breeding in a wildlife sanctuary. Sanctuaries are often run by NGOs and most are not open to the public all year round.

WSPA’s Libearty campaign has resulted in the building of several bear sanctuaries in Greece, Turkey, Hungary, Thailand, Laos PDR, India, Pakistan and most recently Romania. Bears living in these sanctuaries include those rescued from a life of abuse as dancing bears or baiting bears.

Another group in the USA, The Fund for Animals, operates several sanctuaries and its 1,300-acre Texas sanctuary has more than 900 animals including elephants, chimpanzees, donkeys and ostriches.

Q What has caused the decline of wildlife species?
A Many species populations are declining to critical levels because important habitats are being destroyed, fragmented and degraded. Ecosystems are being destabilised through climate change, pollution, invasive species and direct human impact such as wildlife poaching and trading.
Q Are there any international bodies or agreements that provide data on wildlife populations and control the wildlife trade in endangered species?

A The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) was founded in 1948. In 1990 the name was shortened to IUCN – The World Conservation Union. IUCN monitors the state of the world’s species and publishes the ‘IUCN Red List of Threatened Species’. It also gives policy advice and technical support to global secretariats and the parties to several international conventions such as CITES.

The Red List is the most comprehensive inventory of the global conservation status of plant and animal species and is widely recognised by governments, scientists and NGOs. It uses a set list of criteria to evaluate the extinction risk of thousands of species and subspecies.

The list classifies species into eight different categories. Apart from the first two categories, Extinct and Extinct in the Wild, any species listed under Critically Endangered (CR) or Endangered (EN) provide the main focus for efforts to prevent species extinction. The information on the Red List is updated annually on the IUCN website and a full analysis of the data is published every three to four years.

The UN Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) is the body responsible for regulating international trade in endangered species. CITES came into force in 1975 and as of 2005 has 167 member countries who are required to implement and enforce national legislation to support CITES regulations and help prevent illegal trade. For more detailed information regarding CITES, please refer to the chapter on ‘Animal Protection Legislation’.

Q How serious is worldwide illegal wildlife trade?

A Despite the existence of CITES legislation and enforcement, and despite the efforts of NGOs, there is still a large, organised and profitable illegal wildlife trade, estimated at more than ten billion US dollars a year. The illegal wildlife trade is almost as profitable as the illegal drugs trade, yet the penalties for wildlife smugglers are much more lenient.

Q What are the conservation implications of taking animals from the wild?

A Taking animals from the wild may result in imbalances in local ecology and possible associated environmental damage. If enough animals are removed from a small population, it may result in that species vanishing from that region and could be potentially disastrous for the survival of the species worldwide.

Q What are the animal welfare concerns of taking animals from the wild?

A The capture and removal of animals from the wild has many consequences. Rough collection techniques can result in stress, injury, or death. Animals may be caught in inhumane traps, clubbed, or dragged from their dens, resulting in severe stress and injury. They may be kept in overcrowded holding cages for days or weeks with limited or no access to food and water, until sufficient animals have been collected for a shipment.

These animals are then transported, often over long distances, nationally and internationally. They are likely to be kept in overcrowded conditions, with insufficient food or water (or sometimes with none at all), particularly in cases of illegal trade. Hungry and dehydrated animals weigh less than their normal body weight, so they are cheaper to transport. Different species may be shipped together, leading to fights and injuries. Animal welfare can be severely compromised by such conditions and the resulting stress can predispose them to disease and mortality, due to suppression of their immune systems.
The global trade in exotic animals also causes the spread of diseases to different countries and can introduce previously unknown diseases to indigenous wildlife. Knowledge about these diseases may not be adequate in new countries and there may not be any suitable treatment or prevention there, creating conditions for potential epidemics.

**Q Why can’t we just open the trade, satisfy the demand and regulate it properly so the black market will be eliminated?**

**A** History shows us that once legal (and illegal) markets are established for wildlife parts, they cannot be easily legislated away. The enforcement of legislation is always a challenge for authorities and CITES. Deficiencies in manpower, budgets and knowledge of wildlife and wildlife parts are the most common problems for law enforcement agencies regarding the wildlife trade. Because of the difficulties associated with identifying wildlife parts in trade, known as the ‘look-alike’ problem, the market for wildlife products or parts has resulted in other species being killed or misidentified in trade. For example, a recent DNA analysis of items labelled as seal penises purchased in the marketplace found not only harp seal penises, but also those from endangered species such as the African wild dog and the grey wolf.

As long as a market exists and profits are to be made, the pressure to poach a species will continue.

Encouraging a legal trade in wildlife, parts and products could result in unsustainable harvesting practices and threaten wild populations worldwide even further.

**Q Why can’t we breed endangered species in captive facilities so that live animals, their parts and products can be traded? Wouldn’t this resolve the problem of illegal poaching and killing of wildlife?**

**A** Breeders and some countries have argued that a stable, legal source of wildlife, parts and their products from captive breeding facilities will relieve the pressure on wild populations and raise income for the country and individuals involved. Examples have shown that on the contrary, captive breeding of wild animals actually represents a greater threat to wild populations and jeopardises other conservation gains for a particular species.

Currently it is not possible to identify whether a live animal found on sale has been bred in captivity or caught in the wild. There is also no laboratory technique that can identify the original source of a wildlife part or products, whether from a captive-bred animal or not, making enforcement of laws against illegal wildlife trade extremely difficult. To allow the legal trade of captive wildlife and associated products therefore often leads to increased poaching of animals in the wild.

It has been argued that if supplies were generated from captive-bred animals, wildlife commodity prices would fall, thereby lowering the incentive to poach species in the wild. However, several economists have stated that the above ‘supply side polices’, are based on naïve assumptions and are not applicable to the real market situation.

**Q How can we ensure that animal welfare concerns are considered for control of ‘pests’ and alien species?**

**A** Pest or alien species control should only be carried out when it is unavoidable. Suitable measurements to identify the original cause of the problem should be investigated. A number of measures can be taken to ensure welfare is safeguarded:

- Deal with the problem early, when the number of pests is still relatively small
- Research humane methods for killing
• Use alternative methods, for example: live traps and relocation, infertility drugs, encouragement of natural predators or biological control, such as the introduction of infertile males.

Q How can we reduce the commercial exploitation of wildlife?

A We can help reduce commercial exploitation by:
• Reducing consumer demand
• Providing alternative products
• Providing alternative forms of employment
• Providing a non-invasive form of commercialisation such as eco-tourism. Whale watching instead of hunting whales is a good example.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites

Animal Protection Institute: Fact Sheets
www.api4animals.org/14.htm#FactSheets

Animal Transportation Association (AATA)
www.aata-animaltransport.org/

Ape Alliance 1998
The African Bushmeat Trade – A Recipe for Extinction
www.4apes.com/bushmeat/report/bushmeat.pdf

Canned Hunting in South Africa
www.bornfree.org.uk/big.cat/bcatnews013.shtml

Captive Animals’ Protection Society
Making A Killing: South Africa’s canned lion scandal
www.captiveanimals.org/hunting/index.htm

Captive Wild Animal Protection Coalition
www.cwapc.org/

Care for the Wild International
www.careforthewild.org/

Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
www.cites.org/

Environmental Investigation Agency
www.eia-international.org/

The Fund for Animals
www.fund.org
Fur Free Alliance  
www.infurmanation.com/

Global ‘Whalewatch’ Campaign  
www.whalewatch.org

Humane Society of the United States – Wild Neighbours: The Humane Approach to Living with Wildlife  
www.hsus.org/ace/14917

International Air Transport Association (IATA)  
www.iata.org/

International Fund for Animal Welfare: Seal Campaign Central  
www.kintera.org/faf/home/default.asp?event=20480

International Primate Protection League  
www.ippl.org

International Wildlife Coalition  
www.iwc.org/

International Wildlife Rehabilitation Council  
www.iwrc-online.org/

IUCN – The World Conservation Union  
www.iucn.org/

IUCN Red List of Endangered Species  
www.redlist.org/

Journal of International Wildlife Law & Policy  
www.jiwlp.com/

Species Survival Network  
www.ssn.org/

TRAFFIC  
www.traffic.org/

Whale and Dolphin Conservation Society  
www.wdcs.org/

Wild Animal Captivity Trade: The Rose-Tinted Menagerie  

Books
The Animal Estate: The English and Other Creatures in the Victorian Age  
Harriet Ritvo  
Publisher: Penguin Books (1987)  
ISBN 0140118187
Animal Underworld: Inside America’s Black Market for Rare and Exotic Species
Alan Green & The Center for Public Integrity
Publisher: Public Affairs, USA (1999)
ISBN 1891620282

The Astonishing Elephant
Shana Alexander
Publisher: Random House (2000)
ISBN 0679456600

The Behaviour of Captive Polar Bears
Alison Ames
Publisher: Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW)
ISBN 0900767812

Beyond The Bars: The Zoo Dilemma
Virginia McKenna, Will Travers & Jonathon Wray
Publisher: Thorsons Publishing Group Ltd. (1987)
ISBN: 0722513631

The Biology of Animal Stress: Basic Principles and Implications for Animal Welfare
Moberg & Mench
Publisher: CABI Publishing (2000)
ISBN 0851993591

Consuming Nature: A Photo Essay on African Rain Forest Exploitation
Anthony L. Rose, Russell A. Mittermeier, Olivier Langrand, Okyeame Ampadu-Agyei, Thomas M. Butynski
Publisher: Altisma (2003)
ISBN 0974553913

A Crowded Ark: The Role of Zoos in Wildlife Conservation
Jon Luoma
Publisher Houghton Mifflin (1987)
ISBN: 0395408792

Eating Apes (California Studies in Food & Culture)
Janet K. Museveni, Dale Peterson & Karl Ammann
Publisher: University of California Press (2003)
ISBN: 0520230906

Ethics on the Ark: Zoos, Animal Welfare and Wildlife Conservation
M. Hutchins, E. F. Stevens, T. L. Maple
Publisher: University of Chicago Press
ISBN: 1560986891

Flight to Extinction: The Wild-Caught Bird Trade
A report by the Animal Welfare Institute and the Environmental Investigation Agency
Publisher: Environmental Investigation Agency
ISBN: 0951634224
CHAPTER 3

WILDLIFE

The Global War Against Small Cetaceans: A Second Report
Environmental Investigation Agency
Publisher: Environmental Investigation Agency
ISBN: 0951634216

International Wildlife Trade: A Cites Sourcebook
Ginette Hemley
Publisher: Island Press
ISBN: 1559633484

The Last Panda
George B. Schaller
Publisher: University of Chicago Press (1994)
ISBN 0226736296

Managing Habitats for Conservation
William J. Sutherland (Editor), David A. Hill (Editor)
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521447763

Marine Protected Areas for Whales, Dolphins and Porpoises:
A World Handbook for Cetacean Habitat Conservation
Erich Hoyt
Publisher: Earthscan
ISBN: 1844070638

Meant To Be Wild: The Struggle to Save Endangered Species Through Captive Breeding
Jan DeBlieu
Publisher: Fulerum
ISBN: 1555911668

Red Ice: My Fight to Save the Seals
Brian Davies
Publisher: Methuen Publishing
ISBN: 0413423506

Reptiles: Misunderstood, Mistreated and Mass-marketed
Clifford Warwick
Publisher: Trust for the Protection of Reptiles, UK (1990)
ISBN: 0951621009

Sparing Nature: The Conflict Between Human Population Growth and Earth’s Biodiversity
Jeffrey K. McKee
Publisher: Rutgers University Press
ISBN: 0813531411

Stereotypic Animal Behaviour: Fundamentals and Applications to Welfare
A.B. Lawrence (Editor), J. Rushen (Editor)
Publisher: Cabi Publishing (1993)
ISBN: 0851988245
Through Animals’ Eyes: True Stories from a Wildlife Sanctuary
Lynn Marie Cuny
Publisher: University of North Texas Press.
ISBN: 1574410628

Wild Mammals in Captivity: Principles and Techniques
D. G. Kleiman et al
Publisher: University of Chicago Press
ISBN: 0226440036

WSPA Resources
The Bear Bile Business
The global trade in bear products from China to Asia and beyond (2002)

Bears of the World

Bushmeat
Africa’s conservation crisis (2000)

Caged Cruelty
WSPA and KSBK (2002)
An inquiry into animal welfare at Indonesian zoos

Civet Farming
An Ethiopian investigation (1998)

Concepts in Animal Welfare
A syllabus to assist with the teaching of animal welfare in veterinary faculties (2003)

Fashion Victims
Carol McKenna (1998)
An inquiry into the welfare of animals on fur farms

The Illegal Trade in Hawksbill Turtles
Case studies from Indonesia and Japan (2003)

Real Fashion Victims
WSPA and Fur Free Alliance (1998)
The facts about fur farming, a short version of Fashion Victims

Shell Shocked

Tourism and Animal Welfare

Troubled Waters
WSPA (Ed. Brakes, Philippa; Butterworth, Andrew; Simmonds, Mark; Lymbery, Philip) (2004)
A review of the welfare implications of modern whaling activities
Turtle Alert
Jonathan Pearce, Alice Marlow
How the world’s biggest industry can help save one of the world’s oldest species

The Veterinary, Behavioural and Welfare Implications of Bear Farming in Asia
Dr. Barbara, Maas (2000)

The Zoo Enquiry
WSPA and the Born Free Foundation (1994)
A full investigation into the claims made by zoos
Throughout the world, working animals can be the sole provider of a family’s income and in most cases their poor treatment is usually a combination of ignorance and lack of respect.
CHAPTER 4
WORKING ANIMALS

1. Background
2. Welfare Problems
3. Research
4. Animal Protection Strategies
   a) Legislative Campaigns
   b) Consumer Education
   c) Education
   d) Practical Assistance
5. Case Study
6. Further Resources
CHAPTER 4

WORKING ANIMALS

The animal workforce is estimated at about 300 million animals and the numbers are rising: for example, the number of donkeys increased from 33.2 million to 42 million between 1961 and 1997. In the same period buffaloes increased from 87.5 million to 152.4 million. The majority of working animals are involved in transport and agriculture. Various species are involved: most commonly equines (horses, donkeys and mules), oxen and buffaloes, but also other animals such as cows, camels, llamas, yaks and elephants.

Most working animals live in developing countries.

The following are just some categories of working animals:
- Animals working in agriculture
- Transport animals
- Animals in animal assisted therapy
- Animals in law enforcement
- Assistance or service animals
- Security animals
- Military and war animals
- Search and rescue animals
- Herding, guarding and hunting animals

In many countries, despite their excellent service to the human population, working animals are overworked and under-valued. They are regarded more as commodities than as sentient beings. Throughout the world, working animals can be the sole provider of a family’s income and in most cases their poor treatment is usually a combination of ignorance and lack of respect.

Some of the welfare problems that may affect working animals include:
- Working long hours with little rest
- Poor husbandry
- Being denied social and behavioural needs
- Being kept in poor conditions
- Being underfed
- Being badly shod or suffering lameness
- Poorly designed or ill-fitting harnesses, saddles and yokes
- Being kept tethered or hobbled
- Pulling un-roadworthy or overloaded carts (or other loads)
- Cruel training methods
- Lack of shade
- Lack of water
- Inhumane handling
- Lack of health and veterinary care
- Heat stress
- Inhumane disposal when old or worn out
Before entering into a practical working animal programme/project, be sure to carry out as much research as possible. Carrying out a population survey of the area is crucial to programme success, as the resources must be able to cater for the number of working animals.

**Research Example Checklist:**
- Decision makers: meet with government or municipality officials of the project area and get their support/blessing.
- Gain the support of local influential figures, for example: mayors, governors.
- Check the availability of veterinary medicines locally and their costs. Importation of certain drugs may need government approval.
- Check the availability of materials locally and their costs, for example: materials for harness, carts, horseshoes.
- Meet with local skilled craftspeople, harness makers, farriers etc. and look for potential candidates for training and development.
- Carry out welfare assessments on the animals you intend to help. This is particularly important for projects involving veterinary interventions. Thorough assessments on a given number of animals in the project area will identify priority issues. For example: if a high percentage of the animals have harness sores, then the design and materials of the harnesses would be an area to address and improve. If a high percentage were suffering from lameness, it may be that farriery training was necessary. The welfare assessments will also identify the areas for training and development. All projects should include an element of education as ‘prevention is far more effective than cure.’
- Talk with the owners of the working animals. They will inform you of their main concerns and problems. This will also help in prioritising the needs and objectives of the project. They will also assist with the selection of local people, suitable to participate in the project. Community participation is a good motivator, giving the community a sense of ownership towards the project.
- Look for an effective method of evaluating the progress of the project, to ensure improvement is being made to both the animals and their owners.

**ANIMAL PROTECTION STRATEGIES**

The animal protection movement has already used various strategies to improve the plight of working animals. The following are just some examples of what has been, and could be, done:

**a) Legislative Campaigns**
- High profile campaigns, especially against appalling conditions and treatment, such as media events, demos, actions etc.
- Investigations and media exposés, such as working with television documentaries for maximum campaign impact
- Working with authorities for the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation and regulations to improve conditions. For more information, please see WSPA’s ‘Guidelines and Licensing Regulations for Riding Schools, Equine Tourist Establishments and Carriage Operators/Owners’
- Lobbying governmental authorities and politicians.

**b) Consumer Education**
- Making tourists and travellers aware of working animal issues, for example, to avoid using pack animals and taking donkey or horse rides where burdens are heavy or conditions are poor
• Working with media, especially documentaries, to expose the issues and call for improvements
• Making information available in targeted publications, e.g. articles in travel and lifestyle magazines.

c) Education
• Providing training and education to owners about animal welfare aspects of working animals
• Covering working animal issues in school educational materials and programmes
• Covering working animal welfare issues in Veterinary and Agricultural University curricula, and providing resources like WSPA’s ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’
• Including animal welfare education in all vocational programmes covering areas where working animals are used.

d) Practical Assistance
• Providing veterinary care for working animals
• Providing farriery training and development
• Assisting in the introduction of improved carts, tethers, harnesses, saddles etc.
• Establishing community participated projects
• Providing or installing water facilities and rest areas in relevant locations, e.g. along trade routes.

5 CASE STUDY

The Lampong Pony Welfare Organisation (LPWO) managed to increase animal welfare and improve the health of the pony population in Lampong Town, in Northern Thailand, on very limited funding.

Many of the 350 ponies, used to transport tourists in carriages, were suffering from malnutrition and secondary nutritional hyperparathyroidism (HPT). This was found to be caused by unbalanced levels of calcium and phosphorus in their diet.

The main symptoms of HPT or ‘big head’ include: increased size of the nose and lower jaw (due to minerals in the bones being replaced by fibrous tissue), respiratory noise, lameness, bone and joint tenderness, loose teeth and emaciation.

Two ponies suffering from HPT.
LPWO initiated a project to treat and monitor the health of the ponies and to increase the understanding of nutrition and health care among their owners. It was expected that a daily supplement of cheap limestone would prevent HPT and in existing cases reduce the severity of the symptoms.

Approximately 250 ponies participated in the general health care programme, of which 149 ponies were included in the survey and monitored. A nutritional and health programme was started, and several workshops were organised that highlighted the importance of calcium and consequences of malnutrition. The horse owners were also offered limestone at a reduced price. Subsequently, the ponies were checked every three months and their intake of calcium and clinical signs of HPT were registered.

The use of calcium depended on the owners’ cooperation. In the period from August 2003 until November 2004, the owners recognised improved health status and better performance among their ponies. Better performance results in higher earnings, which encouraged more and more owners to use calcium.

This project shows that it is possible to improve the health among ponies in southeast Asia even with very limited funding. Cheap limestone can balance traditional feeding with rice bran and cut grass to prevent, as well as cure, symptoms of HPT. Education can encourage horse owners to change their old habits and positive results can encourage others to follow suit.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Web Sites
Animal Concerns: Working Animals
www.animalconcerns.org/topics.html?topicsku=2002130143200&topic=Working%20Animals&topic type=topic

Carthorse Protection Association, South Africa

International Donkey Protection Trust
www.thedonkeysanctuary.org.uk/site/1/home.html

Society for the Protection of Animals Abroad
www.spana.org/

The Brooke Hospital for Animals
www.brooke-hospital.org.uk/

Books
The Behaviour of the Horse
A. F. Fraser
Publisher: CAB International
ISBN: 0851987850
Horse Healthcare
(Funded by the Brooke Hospital for Animals)
David Hadrill
Publisher: ITDG Publishing
ISBN: 1853394866

Working Animals in Agriculture and Transport
www.wageningenacademic.com/books/ts06.htm
R.A. Pearson, P. Lhoste, M. Saastamoinen, W. Martin-Rosset (editors)
ISBN: 9076998256

WSPA Resources
Guidelines and licensing regulations for riding schools, equine tourist establishments
and carriage operators/owners
Alistair Findlay (2004)
Available from WSPA’s London headquarters

Cuidados Básicos para Equinos
Available from WSPA’s Costa Rica office or London headquarters (2003)
There are welfare problems in most cases and the most extreme forms of entertainment cause immense suffering and many animal deaths.
CHAPTER 5
ANIMALS IN ENTERTAINMENT

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The use of animals in entertainment creates serious problems both for the welfare of the individual animal and for species conservation in some cases. The entertainment industry covers an enormous range of uses of animals, as can be seen by the range of subjects covered in this chapter. In fact, this is probably the most diverse area of animal abuse. It is probably also the least justifiable. There are welfare problems in most cases and the most extreme forms of entertainment cause immense suffering and many animal deaths.

In addition to the welfare implications for entertainment animals, their use for entertainment value reflects a belief that animals are here for our amusement and exploitation, which not only degrades the animals but also desensitises human society to acts of cruelty.

“WILD ANIMALS NEVER KILL FOR SPORT. MAN IS THE ONLY ONE TO WHOM THE TORTURE AND DEATH OF HIS FELLOW-CREATURES IS AMUSING IN ITSELF.” – James Anthony Froude, Oceana, 1886

a) Zoos and Dolphinaria

The zoo concept stemmed from the ancient menageries of kings and emperors and evolved to become the Victorian collections of the 19th century. Animals were largely kept as emblems of wealth and power or displayed as a curiosity. Animals were perceived as objects and little thought was given to their needs. They were confined to small spaces in barren cages, permanently on show to the viewing public. Their enclosures bore little resemblance to their natural habitats.

Keeping animals in captivity denies them freedom of movement and association, which is important to social animals and frustrates many of their natural behavioural patterns, leaving them at least bored and at worst neurotic. Captivity means a lifetime in a restricted space, with limited scope for natural hunting, social and reproductive behaviour. Although captive animals are protected from predation and some of the extremes of the environment, many would argue that these hazards are natural risks for which the animals have been equipped by evolution.

Despite claims to the contrary, only a tiny minority of zoos conduct viable scientific studies, which are largely directed at alleviating the physical and psychological problems caused by confinement in zoos. Such research has limited or no application to wild animals in their natural habitat.

Zoos often justify their existence on the basis of conserving species. However, out of an estimated 10,000 zoos worldwide, fewer than 500 register their animals on an international species database. In these, it is estimated that only between five and ten percent of space is devoted to endangered species. Most animals in zoos, for example the African lions, elephants and giraffes, are not threatened; they are simply exhibits. About 6,000 species are either threatened or endangered, yet only a handful are in captive breeding programmes and only around twenty species have actually been returned to the wild with any degree of success.

Dolphinaria are places where whales and dolphins are kept in captivity, usually trained to perform for human spectators. They cause many animal welfare problems. The methods used for wild
capture (netting and driving to nets or to shore) are likely to be very stressful to the animals and there is a risk of injury and death to the animals that escape. There is also a higher death rate and a shortened lifespan among animals after capture.

**ZOO CHECK**

Zoo Check was founded in 1984 by actors Virginia McKenna and Bill Travers, and their son, Will Travers. Since then, Zoo Check has been campaigning against traditional zoos and other forms of what it views as unjustified captivity for wild animals, such as animals used for photographic props, marine ‘swim-with’ exhibits and circuses.

The European Survey of Zoos (EC 1988) was Zoo Check’s first review of the zoo industry and is regarded by many as a milestone. Commissioned by the European Commission through the European animal welfare group, Eurogroup, Zoo Check uncovered 1,007 zoos in the EU. Previous estimates by the European zoo industry put the total at just 350. It is believed that this figure has increased in recent years to an estimated 5,000. Zoo Check’s work since 1984 has highlighted the terrible conditions suffered by animals languishing in Europe’s slum zoos.

In 1998, the Council of EU Environmental Ministers agreed to the establishment of the EU Zoos Directive, which aimed to safeguard animal welfare and strengthen the conservation role of zoos. In April 2002, all Member States were required by the European Commission to have adopted the Directive and to have drafted their own national zoo legislation for the licensing and inspection of zoos. However, 10 of the then 15 EU Member States failed to meet this deadline, each receiving a formal request from the Commission to adhere to the requirements of the Directive.

Remarkably, even the UK zoo industry admits that organisations like Zoo Check have “made British zoos change” (Simon Tonge, 2001, Director of Paignton Zoo).

**b) Circuses**

Circuses house and confine animals in small cages, sometimes for as long as 23 hours a day. They are sometimes chained, as well as caged. The animals are not free to behave naturally. Also, life on the road, when the circus travels to different places to perform, means repeated transport in confinement for these animals.

While circus promoters claim that trainers use only positive reinforcement methods (rewards) to train animals, animal protection investigations document a different picture. Circus trainers still use methods involving fear, submission, deprivation and physical punishment. These include beating and whipping animals and depriving them of food. Trainers sometimes strike elephants with sharpened hooks, which can result in physical injury, and resort to brutal methods to maintain a position of dominance. However wild animals will always behave in instinctive and unpredictable ways and can never be made willing or safely manageable through training.

In the USA, many circus animals are leased seasonally from dealers. The animals move from circus to circus, following seasonal contracts. Many circuses do not bother to provide regular, competent veterinary care. Animals which are not obedient or which have grown too old to perform may be sold or given to zoos, roadside attractions, research laboratories or private individuals; options unlikely to improve their quality of life.
Like zoos, circuses provide a negative educational message. Watching wild animals perform unnatural tricks outside their natural habitats does not teach children anything about the animals.

**BY DISPLAYING BEARS AS TRICYCLE-RIDING CARICATURES AND DRESSING ELEPHANTS IN TUTUS, CIRCUSES PRESENT ANIMALS AS CREATURES WHOSE PURPOSE IS TO AMUSE US, RATHER THAN CREATURES WITH AN INTRINSIC VALUE AND THEIR OWN NATURE AND BEHAVIOUR.**

**c) Hunting**

Many different animals are hunted for entertainment. These commonly include: deer, foxes, hare, mink and wild boar. In some countries, other indigenous wild animals are also hunted, including endangered species. Hunting safaris are becoming widespread and rich tourists travel to exotic destinations to hunt wildlife and marine mammals (including shark hunting and other ‘big fish sport’).

Some hunting supporters try to justify their actions by claiming that the animals they hunt need to be ‘controlled’. Even if this were the case, there are more efficient and humane control methods, for example, shooting by a trained marksman.

Hunting with dogs is carried out in some countries. This is a particularly cruel sport. Hounds are bred for stamina, providing the ‘sport’ of a lengthy chase. The fox, or other prey animal, is forced to run as far and as fast as it can until exhausted, when the hounds will catch and kill it. Hunters claim that the fox is killed instantly, but evidence has shown again and again that the fox is just as likely to be torn apart alive. Hunts in the UK alone could kill 20,000 foxes and their cubs annually, although hunting with dogs was finally banned in England and Wales from 2005. There are alternatives to this unnecessary blood sport, such as drag hunting, which is carried out in Germany and involves no prey animals.

**Canned hunting:** Even more cruel than ‘normal’ hunting, canned hunting involves the killing of an animal in an enclosure to obtain a trophy. The animals are sometimes tame exotic mammals; some, in fact, have been sold to canned hunting operations by zoos. These animals do not know to run from humans. Some are captive wild animals or purpose-bred wild animals. Many groups that support hunting scorn canned hunting for its unsportsmanlike practice. Patrons are guaranteed a kill (and some with little aptitude or experience of hunting take this option, leading to wounding and casualties in the attempted kill). Several American states have banned canned hunting operations, but the practice is spreading. It is also carried out in South Africa.

Please see the chapter on Wildlife for more information on hunting.

> “HUNTING IS NOT A SPORT. IN A SPORT, BOTH SIDES SHOULD KNOW THEY’RE IN THE GAME.” ~ Paul Rodriguez

**d) Bear Baiting**

Bear baiting involves setting specially trained pit bull terriers upon tethered bears. The bears, usually Asiatic black bears, have had their teeth and claws removed and are unable to defend themselves properly. Spectators bet on the outcome of the fight. These duels result in appalling injuries to both bears and dogs, and bears are often forced to endure several fights during one baiting event.

There are a number of animal welfare concerns associated with bear baiting, including: the poaching of bear cubs from the wild; serious injuries caused by the tethering of bears by their noses; not receiving veterinary treatment for injuries sustained through baiting; receiving a poor diet; being kept on short tethers and spending much of their time chained when not being baited.
This activity, which was once widespread in Europe, now only takes place in rural Pakistan. It is illegal in Pakistan (under the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act of 1890), but WSPA’s first investigation in 1993 found evidence of 80 different bear baiting events involving 300 bears. The investigation uncovered a network of hunters, wildlife dealers, gypsy bear owners and land owners, which enabled bear baiting to thrive. WSPA has been instrumental in lobbying government to take action against these illegal bear baiting events.

WSPA is continuing to monitor the situation in Pakistan closely to prevent further illegal baiting and although baiting still occurs, it is at a much-reduced level. Please see the WSPA web site for more information.

e) Dancing Bears

Britain banned dancing bears in 1911, but it has persisted in many other parts of the world, particularly in Eastern Europe, India and Pakistan.

Several animal welfare issues are associated with dancing bears. Cubs are caught from the wild and, using inhumane methods, are trained to stand on their hind paws to ‘dance’ on command. Bears suffer serious injuries from the chains and ropes used to pierce their nose, cheeks or muzzle, and from having their teeth removed. Their diet is poor, often leading to diseases and blindness from lack of necessary vitamins and minerals. Bears are kept on short chains or ropes and spend much of their time chained when not performing.

In 1992, WSPA launched Libearty, the world campaign for bears, in order to expose the misery, torture and abuse of bears, including those illegally taken from the wild as cubs and forced to ‘dance’ and pose for tourists. WSPA successfully campaigned for an end to dancing bears in both Greece and Turkey, and continues to work on this issue in both India and Pakistan.

f) Bullfighting

THERE ARE ALMOST 1,000 BULLFIGHTING EVENTS IN SPAIN EACH YEAR, IN WHICH AN ESTIMATED 5,000 BULLS DIE.

Bullfighting is an extreme example of animal suffering and death purely for human entertainment. The bull is subjected to tremendous pain and unnecessary distress both during the bullfight and beforehand. Injuries to bulls in preparation for the fight and the use of the pica and banderillas (handheld harpoons decorated with brightly coloured weighted banners) in the ring are designed to enrage the bull in order to give a better ‘spectacle’ and to maintain levels of aggression to prolong the bullfight.

The harpoons usually stay embedded in the bull’s back, causing it to lose more blood and open the wounds further. Once the bull is disabled by its injuries, weakened by the loss of blood, and in pain, the matador enters the ring. During the kill, the use of the long sword to penetrate the heart is not completely reliable and would not be permitted in any regulated slaughterhouse. An assistant, the puntillero, will then stab the downed bull with a puntilla, which is a short, broad knife, to sever its spinal cord. Finally, its ears or tail are cut off with a knife to be given to the matador as a trophy. All too often still alive, the bull is tied by the horns and dragged out of the ring.

Bullfighting is not a fair sport. An estimated 33,000 bulls have died at official bullfights in France and Spain over the last decade. In comparison, one matador has been killed during this time.

Bulls are not the only victims of this blood sport. Horses are also subjected to tremendous suffering at bullfights where the bulls are stabbed from horseback. Terrified by the smell of the bull, the...
horses have to be forced into the ring. The horses are blindfolded and have their ears plugged with rags. Despite the thick padding that they wear, they are frequently wounded and gored.

Spain is not the only country where bullfighting takes place. It has been introduced to several other countries, including France, Portugal, Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, Peru, Guatemala and Panama.

ASOCIACIÓN PARA LA DEFENSA DE LOS DERECHOS DEL ANIMAL (ADDA), a Spanish member society based in Barcelona, Catalonia, works on a variety of issues including whaling, abandoned animals and bullfighting.

For many years, WSPA has supported ADDA’s campaign to ban bullfighting in the region of Catalonia. The campaign’s tactics have included: collecting petitions from Spain and from across the world; lobbying council and parliament members; holding large scale demonstrations; setting up exhibition stands; placing newspaper advertisements; giving media interviews; taking part in debates; sending footage of bullfights to all members of parliament; conducting opinion polls, and gaining celebrity endorsements from both Catalan and international celebrities including the Dalai Lama, Anita Roddick and Jane Goodall.

The campaign has been extremely successful, and it achieved an outstanding victory in 2004 when Barcelona City Council declared itself anti-bullfight. Although historic and symbolic, this declaration is not legally binding. The second phase of the campaign is to achieve legislation to ban bullfighting in Catalonia through the Catalan Parliament. In April 2005, following the presentation of 453,000 signatures, a historic bill was proposed in the Catalan Parliament requesting that events involving the killing of bulls and the use of lethal weapons in such events be added under the list of prohibited activities in the Catalan Animal Protection Law. It is hoped that the Catalan Parliament will vote in favour of this historic bill and in doing so, respond to successive opinion polls showing that 81% of Catalans believe that bullfights are cruel and unjustified events.

g) Rodeos

Rodeos can consist of various events, including calf or steer roping, steer wrestling and bucking events, where the contestant tries to stay on a bucking horse or bull. All of these events can cause severe injuries to the animals involved.

Even the gentlest horse will buck when subjected to the type of flank strap that is placed on bulls and broncos at rodeos. Flank straps are tightly cinched near the animal’s abdominal organs and pinch the animal’s groin or genitals to cause them to buck. Electric prods, caustic ointments and whips are often used to irritate and enrage the animals prior to their performances.

h) Dogfighting and Cockfighting

In dogfighting and cock-fighting events, animals are pitted against each other in a cruel and senseless fight, purely for entertainment and gambling.

Dogfighting can cause immense suffering and injuries sustained by dogs participating in dogfights are frequently severe, even fatal. American pit bull terriers are used in the majority of these fights and have been specifically bred and trained for fighting. Some owners use smaller animals,
including cats, rabbits and small dogs, to help train their dogs for fights. Fights average nearly an hour in length and end when one of the dogs is no longer willing or able to continue.

Although dogfighting is banned everywhere in the USA and UK, investigations show that it still occurs regularly. It also takes place in other countries, and in some, it is not even banned by law.

**Cockfighting** is a cruel blood sport in which two or more specially bred birds, known as gamecocks, are placed in an enclosure to fight. A cockfight usually results in the death of one or both of the birds. A typical cockfight can last anywhere from several minutes to more than half an hour.

The birds, even those that do not die, suffer severely. Injuries occur because the birds’ legs are usually fitted with razor-sharp steel blades or three-inch-long spurs, which are designed to puncture and mutilate.

Cockfighting remains common in some Latin American and Asian countries. It is forbidden in the UK and in almost every state in the USA.

**i) Racing**
Racing is another example of the human use of animals merely for entertainment and pleasure. The pleasure derives primarily from gambling on the outcome of the race. Species of animals used for racing include buffaloes, camels, dogs and horses.

Certain horse races (for example steeplechase) are closely linked to the ‘thrill’ of hunting and can involve large jumps that cause falls, injury and deaths to horses. Two notorious examples are the UK’s Grand National and the Great Pardubice steeplechase in the Czech Republic.

There are also reports of harsh training methods and performance-enhancing treatments (such as drugs, electrical stimuli, whips etc.) as would be expected with so much money at stake. Animals that do not meet performance expectations are disposed of; some horses may go to good homes, but many are simply killed.

**j) Tourist Entertainment and Photography**
Young animals are often used as photographic models, with or without people, because they are less likely to be aggressive and are not as strong as adult animals. Some animals, primates for example, may be taken from the wild. Life ‘on the road’ means that housing conditions are likely to be poor and normal behaviours are suppressed. Confinement may also lead to depression and stereotypic behaviours.

Animals are also often used for tourist rides. Animals such as donkeys may have to bear too much weight, causing suffering. Exotic animals, such as camels and elephants, will most likely not be able to be kept in circumstances that respect their behavioural needs. The animals are just viewed as sources of tourist amusement, giving a poor educational example. Also, when not in use, for instance outside the tourist season, the animals may be neglected.

**k) Use of Animals in Filming**
The use of animals for film and television is monitored in the UK and USA to ensure that there is no animal suffering. In the UK, the RSPCA tends to carry out a review after the event, whereas in the USA a check occurs prior to filming.

The American Humane Association (AHA)’s Film & Television Unit has travelled worldwide to protect animals in filmed entertainment. In the USA, they review scripts long before a film goes into production. Any scenes with intense animal action are noted and those that may pose a safety problem for animals are discussed with producers and trainers. Producers working with AHA’s
‘Guidelines for the Safe Use of Animals in Filmed Media’ make modifications that result in enhanced safety for the animal actors. All stunts, special effects, makeup, costumes, lighting and sets are reviewed for safety no less thoroughly than they are for the human stars.

When filming is complete, the Animal Safety Reps write their report on the actual filming and if appropriate, the film is awarded the ‘No Animals Were Harmed...’ End Credit Disclaimer. Please visit the AHA’s Film & Television Unit website for further information, see Further Resources.

Some countries have legislation to protect animals used in entertainment. This can include:

- Licensing of establishments such as zoos and circuses
- Licensing of premises where wild animals may be kept, including public safety and animal protection
- Direct prohibition of certain acts or activities
- Direct prohibition of the use of certain species of animals for entertainment purposes, for example, Finland’s prohibition of the use of exotic animals
- Local legislation or orders to prohibit animal entertainment in the region, such as banning circuses from land within local jurisdictions
- Provisions outlining welfare conditions for animals in captivity, such as space allowances
- General provisions against any training, working, competitions, spectacles, races etc. that would be likely to cause suffering
- Requirement for pre-approval of any new uses or purposes, species, equipment etc.
- The specification of acceptable methods of killing for control purposes, such as shooting by trained marksmen, and the banning of unacceptable methods, such as trapping, hunting with hounds etc.

Common problems include:

- Poorly drafted legislation that is difficult for courts to interpret
- Limited resources
- Variable enforcement
- The question of who will appoint and train inspectors and enforcement officers
- The necessity of carrying out dangerous undercover operations to find out about illegal activities, such as dogfighting
- Enforcement body shares interests with those policed
- Responsibility for enforcement being spread between government departments, thereby reducing coordination
- Practical difficulties in monitoring animals that travel across boundaries, including international boundaries
- Limits to powers of access, stop and search, seizure and detention
- Practical limitations of seizing or detaining wild animals
- Practical implications of withdrawing licenses

The animal protection movement has already used various strategies to improve the plight of animals in entertainment and to end their use altogether. The following are just some examples of what has been, and could be, done:

a) Campaigns: Legislative or Consumer
- High profile campaigns such as media events, demos and actions to:
  - achieve bans on the worst excesses (circuses, dolphinaria, use of exotic animals in entertainment, cruel sports, fighting, baiting, rodeos, hunting etc.);
  - impose controls on others, such as zoos;
  - prevent new uses of animals in entertainment and the expansion of existing operations
- Investigations and media exposés, working with television documentaries for maximum campaign impact
- Using the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation to ban worst excesses
- Using the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation to tighten controls and conditions for situations that cannot be banned
- Lobbying governmental authorities and politicians
- Lobbing for the allocation of resources to introduce or maintain effective policing of any existing legislation
- Bringing a case to court to test existing law, for example to ensure satisfactory conditions of housing and care
- Using campaigns to target the worst offenders such as circus companies, and stakeholders of the worst offenders; shareholders, financiers, suppliers etc.

b) Consumer Education
- Educating the public about the ethical and welfare issues associated with the use of animals in entertainment
- Persuading the public to boycott forms of entertainment that use animals
- Promoting non-animal forms of entertainment, such as animal-free circuses
- Promoting awareness amongst tourists and travellers of animal protection issues
- Working with media, especially documentaries to expose the issues and the practices of different countries and companies
- Making information available in targeted publications, e.g. specially written articles in lifestyle and consumer magazines, travel magazines, pet magazines etc.

c) Formal Education
- Introducing animals in entertainment issues in school educational materials and programmes
- Introducing animals in entertainment issues in Veterinary University and other scientific curricula, and providing resources like WSPA’s ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ package
- Including animal welfare education in all vocational programmes covering animals in entertainment and associated trades.

d) Rescue of Animals in Entertainment
Rescue and shelter or rehabilitate animals that have been used for entertainment, and include press and educational messages about the plight of entertainment animals.
CHAPTER 5
ANIMALS IN ENTERTAINMENT

FIGHT AGAINST ALL ANIMAL CRUELTY IN EUROPE (FAACE)

FAACE is a UK-based organisation that campaigns to stop the torture and death of animals for entertainment.

Vicki and Tony Moore formed FAACE in 1987. The main reason for the formation of FAACE was to fight against the cruelty inflicted on Spanish animals in the blood fiestas and bullfighting in the name of entertainment. At the time no one was working solely on this issue and very little progress was being made.

FAACE works in the field, carrying out in-depth investigations and studies of the reasons underlying the problems. It also harnesses the power of the media to expose the horror of fiestas and bullfighting across Europe. They have presented videos, photographs and reports in the European Parliament; they have provided evidence for the European Commission; and they have developed a research bank that is in constant demand throughout the world. FAACE also lobbies the authorities of Spanish towns that perpetrate these acts.

QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

Q Are zoos not more than a form of entertainment? Don’t they contribute to the saving of species from extinction?

A Zoos claim that they preserve species, in particular species whose habitat has been destroyed, or which were wiped out in the wild for other reasons (such as hunting). They suggest that they can maintain the species in captivity until the cause has been remedied and the animals can be successfully reintroduced to the wild, resulting in a healthy, self-sustaining population. There are several problems with this argument. To begin with, the number of animals required to maintain a viable gene pool can be quite high and is never known for certain. If the captive gene pool is too small, then inbreeding can result in birth defects, mutations and increased susceptibility to disease. The species can be so weakened that it would never be viable in the wild.

Some species are extremely difficult to breed in captivity: marine mammals, many bird species and so on. Pandas, which have been the sustained focus of captive breeding efforts for several decades in zoos around the world, are notoriously difficult to breed in captivity. With such species, the zoos, by taking animals from the wild to supply their breeding programmes, actually act as a net drain on wild populations.

Furthermore, the whole concept of habitat restoration has serious difficulties. Animals threatened by poaching (elephants, rhinos, pandas, bears and others) will never be safe in the wild as long as firearms, material needs and a willingness to consume animal parts coincide. Species threatened by chemical contamination (such as bird species vulnerable to pesticides and lead shot) will not be candidates for release until we stop using the offending substances and enough time has passed for the toxins to be processed out of the environment.

Even if these problems can be overcome, there are still difficulties with the process of reintroduction. Problems such as human imprinting and the need to teach animals to fly, hunt, build
The need to preserve hundreds of a particular species would be beyond the resources of even the largest zoos and even the whole world zoo community would be hard-pressed to preserve even a few dozen species in this manner.

Contrast this with the efficiency of large habitat preserves, which can maintain viable populations of whole complexes of species with minimal human intervention. Large preserves maintain every species in the ecosystem in a self-sufficient manner, while keeping the creatures in the natural habitat undisturbed.

WSPA’s Zoo Enquiry report examines in more detail the main claims made by the zoo community.

**Q How will people see wild animals and learn about them without zoos?**

**A** To gain true and complete knowledge of wild animals, one must observe them in their natural habitats. The conditions under which animals are kept in zoos can distort their behaviour significantly. For educational purposes there are several practical alternatives to zoos. Many nature documentaries are shown regularly on television, as well as being available on video. Some of these provide accurate information on animals in their natural habitats. Magazines such as National Geographic provide superb illustrated articles as well. And, of course, public libraries have much information. Zoos often cause animals to suffer, keeping them in small pens or cages without appropriate social contact. The natural instincts and behaviour of these animals are suppressed and they can develop stereotyped movements. To view animals in such conditions not only misleads about their true nature and potential, but also delivers false messages about the way humans should treat animals.

**FURTHER RESOURCES**

**Websites**

- **American Humane Association Film and TV Unit**
  www.ahafilm.org/
  Guidelines for the use of animals in films and media

- **Animal Defenders International**
  www.ad-international.org/
  Includes “The Ugliest Show on Earth”, an excellent video and comprehensive report on circuses

- **Animal Protection Institute – Animals in Entertainment**
  www.animalprotectioninstitute.net/

- **Born Free Foundation**
  www.bornfree.org.uk/
  www.bornfree.org.uk/zoocheck/
  www.bornfree.org.uk/zoocheck/zczoos01.htm

- **The Captive Animals’ Protection Society**
  www.captiveanimals.org/
Circuses.com
www.circuses.com/

Compassionate Traveler
www.compassionatetraveler.org

The Electronic Zoo
http://netvet.wustl.edu/e-zoo.htm

Fight Against Animal Cruelty in Europe (FAACE)
www.faace.co.uk/

Humane Society of the United States – Captive Wild Animals
www.hsus.org/ace/14941

Humane Society of the United States – Tips for the Compassionate Traveler
www.hsus.org/ace/14928

League Against Cruel Sports
www.league.uk.com/

PETA Animals in Entertainment
www.animalactivist.com/entertainment.asp

Pictures of Animals in Entertainment
www.atourhands.com/entertain.html

Showing Animals Respect and Kindness
www.sharkonline.org/

WSPA advice for compassionate travellers
www.wspa-international.org/

Zoo Check Canada
www.zoocheck.com/

Books
Animals in Circuses and Zoos: Chiron’s World?
Marthe Kiley-Worthington
Publisher: Aardvark Publishing
ISBN: 1872904025

Beyond the Bars
Virginia McKenna, Jonathan Wray and William Travers
Publisher: Borgo Press
ISBN: 0809570769

The Last Great Wild Beast Show
Bill Jordan, Stefan Ormrod
Publisher: Constable
ISBN: 009461900X
Second Nature: Environmental Enrichment for Captive Animals
David J. Shepherdson (Editor), Jill D. Mellen (Editor), Michael Hutchins (Editor)
Publisher: Smithsonian Books
ISBN: 1560983973

Spotlights on Performing Animals
E. Westacott (Editor)
Publisher: CW Daniel
ISBN: 0852071086

The Rose Tinted Menagerie
A History of Animals in Entertainment, from Ancient Rome to the 20th Century.

WSPA Resources
Updated 2005

The Zoo Enquiry
WSPA and the Born Free Foundation (1994)
A full investigation into the claims made by zoos.
Today, it is estimated that over 100 million animals are used every year in laboratory experiments worldwide.
CHAPTER 6
ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION

1. Background
2. Types of Animal Experiments
3. Legislation and Testing Guidelines
4. Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Committees
5. Concerns Associated with Animal Experimentation
6. Alternatives to Animal Use – the ‘3Rs’
   a) Replacement
   b) Reduction
   c) Refinement
7. Animal Protection Strategies
   a) Campaigning and Lobbying
   b) Consumer Education
   c) Formal Education
8. Further Resources
Widespread animal experimentation and public resistance against vivisection started in the nineteenth century. Vivisection is another term for animal experimentation; it literally means the cutting up of living animals. During the mid-twentieth century the number of animals used in research and testing increased drastically, but by the early 1980s, numbers started to decline due to public pressure and financial restraints.

Today, it is estimated that over 100 million animals are used every year in laboratory experiments worldwide, with about 11 million animals used in the European Union (EU). Many species are used in experimentation, including mice, rats, guinea pigs, rabbits, fish, birds, cats, dogs and primates. Rodents and cold-blooded animals accounted for over 75% of the animals used in experiments in the EU in 2002. Research animals can be bred in purpose-built breeding establishments, caught from the wild and transported to laboratories or obtained from stray populations.

Animal protection societies have different views and approaches to animal experimentation issues, ranging from abolitionist (believing that animal experiments are ethically wrong) to welfarist (trying to improve the conditions and treatment of experimental animals). However, although their views appear to differ greatly, they are more closely aligned when examined in detail. For example, most welfarists would oppose any experiments that cause suffering, whether in capture, breeding, rearing, confinement, handling or the experimental procedure itself. Both groups would support the ‘3Rs’ approach (Replacement, Reduction, Refinement), but the abolitionists would favour complete replacement, whereas welfarists would view reduction and refinement as steps along the way to complete replacement.

The main types of experiments carried out on animals include: fundamental research (the search for knowledge such as physiology); biomedical research (using animal models for human diseases); genetic engineering (to produce transgenic animals for example); product testing (household products for example); and education and training (such as school dissection).

**Fundamental research** accounts for the greatest number of animals used. Examples of this type of research include how memory works in the brain, or how the liver deals with toxic substances. Proponents of animal use claim that fundamental research often contributes indirectly to the development of new active ingredients and therapies. However, anti-vivisectionists believe that the contribution of fundamental research to new drugs and treatments is grossly overstated.

**Biomedical research** is the second largest area of animal experimentation; it is devoted to the study of the prevention and treatment of disease, and the genetic and environmental factors related to disease and health.

The development of human and veterinary medicine has traditionally relied on animal experimentation to some degree, and tests able to diagnose and control disease also involve animal experimentation. However, alternative in-vitro methods (using cells, tissues and organs) over the past two decades have resulted in fewer animals being required for this purpose.
Antivivisectionists believe that rather than relying on biomedical research, more focus should be placed on preventative medicine and the promotion of healthier lifestyles. Less than 10% of diseases are congenital (inherited), and antivivisectionists believe that the emphasis of research should be on epidemiology, human clinical trials and other non-animal alternatives.

**Genetic engineering** is the greatest growth area in animal experimentation. It involves the manipulation of genes, either within or between species, to produce transgenic animals. Approximately 150-200 animals are required in an attempt to obtain a transgenic individual with a particular set of desired traits. These animals are then used to establish a particular genetic line with these traits.

Genetic engineering can have severe and unexpected side effects, such as the development of tumours, brain defects, limb and skull deformities, infertility, arthritis, diabetes and other metabolic disorders. Suffering can also arise as a deliberate consequence of the research. For example, animals have been genetically engineered to act as models of painful or distressing human diseases such as cancer, Alzheimer’s and Parkinson’s disease.

Scientists have also attempted to genetically engineer farm animals in order to make them grow faster, bigger or leaner. Other issues connected with genetic engineering include cloning, patenting and xenotransplantation (transplanting animal organs or tissues to humans).

**Product testing:** Testing chemicals for toxic risks is often required, despite the likelihood of exposure being so low that the minimal toxic dose will not be reached in real life. A more realistic approach, which would require less testing and thus reduce the number of animals, is to first assess exposure levels (de Boo and Hendriksen, 2005). This is referred to as the reversed toxicology approach.

In 2003 the European Commission adopted a proposal for a new EU regulatory framework for chemicals, called REACH (Registration, Evaluation and Authorisation of Chemicals). This proposal aims to test 30,000 chemicals that are already in use, and would require 4 to 20 million test animals (the number depends on different scenarios). Many animal protection organisations have been working to lobby national and EU authorities to implement non-animal methods. The REACH testing programme has been criticised by experts as being cumbersome, expensive, and unlikely to achieve its aims. It took 11 years to produce risk assessments for 140 chemicals, yet REACH proposes that industry produce similar data for 30,000 chemicals, in the same timescale.

Every year approximately 35,000 animals in Europe and millions across the world, are subjected to intense pain and suffering in experiments to test cosmetics products and their ingredients. Perfumes, shampoos, toothpastes, hair dyes, skin creams, makeup, deodorants and cleaning products are tested on animals. Animal protection societies unite to agree that there can be no justification for inflicting suffering on animals solely to satisfy human vanity. The EU has introduced a phased ban on animal testing of cosmetic and toiletry products, and testing for this purpose will be prohibited from 2012. However such testing still takes place in many countries throughout the world.

**Education and training:** Hundreds of thousands of animals are experimented on, killed and dissected each year in schools and universities worldwide. Defenders of animal use in education claim that ‘hands-on’ experience is the best way to learn and that providing practical classes with animals is interesting for students. Opponents – or ‘conscientious objectors’ – question the (lack of) ethical justification and the educational usefulness of using animals.

It is important that students are able to ‘opt out’ of sections of courses that use experimental animals, if they are ethically opposed to such use. Also, students should not be disadvantaged in exams or in passing their courses if they decide to opt out. Organisations and websites such as
InterNICHE, European Resource Centre for Alternatives in Higher Education (EURCA) and www.learningwithoutkilling.info were established particularly to help conscientiously objecting students. They have a wide range of alternative resources that can be used in place of animal experiments.

Studies have shown that students trained using humane alternatives perform at least as well as students trained using animals. 36.7% (11/30) of studies across all educational levels demonstrated that students taught using humane alternatives achieved superior learning outcomes or achieved equivalent results more quickly. 56.7% demonstrated equivalent educational efficacy, and only 6.7% demonstrated inferior educational efficacy.

Using humane alternatives in education will likely influence students who continue in research, as they will think in terms of alternatives from the outset, incorporating the ‘3Rs’ when they plan experiments. The concept of the ‘3Rs’ will be discussed further in a subsequent section.

### LEGISLATION AND TESTING GUIDELINES

Animal experimentation is regulated by national and international legislation. The level of legal protection accorded to animals, as well as the regulations concerning institutional licenses, inspectors and enforcement, varies greatly between countries.


The European Convention for the Protection of Vertebrate Animals used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes (1986), which has been ratified by Member States to the Council of Europe, also regulates animal experimentation in the EU.

Within the EU, national legislation governing animal experimentation generally reflects the regulations in the European Council Directive and the Council of Europe Convention, although there are slight variations. The Dutch Act on Animal Experimentation and the British Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986, for example, are stricter than the Council Directive.

**Testing guidelines:** Most animal experiments that are carried out are not legally required. However, regulations regarding the testing of substances (chemicals) and biological products (such as vaccines) do stipulate a requirement for animal experiments. There are several European and international guidelines, such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), which establishes Test Guidelines on product testing on animals. Proposals to update Test Guidelines need to demonstrate better science or animal welfare advantages.

The European Pharmacopoeia lists the various types of substances that require animal testing and also mentions some alternatives to the use of animals in potency tests for biological preparations. The USA and Japan have other Pharmacopoeia guidelines resulting in discrepancies in requirements and therefore duplication of tests in different parts of the world. The International Conference on Harmonisation between the EU, USA and Japan is held regularly to reach mutual agreement on testing regulations.
With regard to other products, such as household products, the law usually requires that a company submit a certain amount of test data, of both ingredients and the end product, before a product can be marketed. The method by which that test data must be acquired is not specifically prescribed. However, data obtained from animal experimentation is regarded as the ‘gold standard’ by the regulatory authorities and is thus used as the standard reference.

Although many animal models have never been properly validated, many alternative techniques have not been validated either or they are not available on a commercial basis, and this argument is used to defend the whole system of product development, regulation and marketing of products using animal experiments.

The law, test guidelines and the attitude of regulatory authorities all need to change in order to move away from animal experiments and to embrace more modern, non-animal test methods.

**ANIMAL WELFARE AND ETHICAL REVIEW COMMITTEES**

More and more countries are establishing Ethical Review Committees (ERS) or Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (IACUCs). These committees review research proposals and assess them in light of the benefits to science and society and the costs to the animals. In addition, the efforts of the researchers to search for alternative methods that do not use animals, use fewer animals, or use methods that cause less suffering to animals, are also assessed.

ERCs are composed of different experts: researchers, ethicists, ‘alternatives’ experts, animal welfare advisors, laboratory animal specialists and sometimes laypersons. Their role is to objectively assess and discuss research proposals and suggest ways in which the proposal can be improved to minimise animal suffering. Most committees do not have the authority to grant licenses or to stop experiments from happening, but their advisory role is taken seriously in most countries. It is believed that because of the existence of ERCs, the number of animals used has decreased over the past decades; proposals are critically screened, and some researchers may decide not to submit proposals that have little merit.

**CONCERNS ASSOCIATED WITH ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION**

*Laboratory animal welfare* can be compromised as a consequence of both living conditions and procedures, which may cause slight, moderate or severe suffering.

Some defenders of animal research claim that life in the laboratory is not so bad, as the physical environment is properly controlled: temperature, humidity, lighting, food, water, absence of predators and disease. However, it is impossible to provide laboratory environments that stimulate an animal to perform its full behavioural repertoire.

Most housing is small and barren, and animals need some level of environmental challenge to avoid boredom and apathy. Welfare concerns exist with both individual and group housing, through either isolation or overcrowding. This may result in self-inflicted damage, or when housed with incompatible cage mates – aggression leading to injuries.

There are methods to improve the welfare of laboratory animals, including environmental enrichment. Enrichment should not be regarded as a ‘luxury’, but as a basic need.
Most procedures cause fear or stress to some extent. Anaesthesia and analgesia (pain relief) must generally be administered to animals used in painful procedures; however, these are not always provided as it is either considered unnecessary or researchers decide that it may conflict with the results.

Even common laboratory routines, such as handling, injection, blood collection and gavaging (inserting a tube into an animal’s mouth and stomach) cause the animals stress. The responses of animals to an experienced handler and an inexperienced handler often differ, suggesting that training of laboratory staff in humane treatment of animals is important. Furthermore, stressed animals show abnormal physiological parameters, and may show behavioural changes that influence the scientific results, often in a negative way.

Laboratory animals are usually killed after the experiment is over. As long as it is carried out humanely and effectively, killing is not an animal welfare issue; it is an ethical issue. Related to the killing of experimental animals is the destruction of animals that are bred, but not used. The number may be up to 50% of the animals reported in the official statistics.

**Sourcing:** The majority of laboratory animals are bred specifically for experimentation. However some animals are captured from the wild or obtained from stray animal populations. The use of strays is prohibited in the Council of Europe Convention for the Protection of Vertebrate Animals Used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes (Article 21), which states that: ‘Straying animals of a domesticated species shall not be used in (experimental) procedures.’

**Stakeholders:** The public is often unaware that animal research is funded by different stakeholders. Commercial companies, such as Procter & Gamble, Unilever and Colgate-Palmolive, currently carry out more than half of animal experiments. Many medical research charities, such as cancer and heart research organisations, also fund research that uses animals. And, without even knowing it, taxpayers are paying for them, too. Many governments use tax money to fund animal experiments in national laboratories or in university science departments, as does the European Union.

**Transparency:** Most research is hidden from view and the public domain. Proposals screened by ERCs occur behind closed doors, and although numbers of animals used are broken down to figures showing the purpose of the experiment and species used, they are not broken down for individual experiments. Inspection reports are not open to the public and often the amounts of and sources of funding are unknown. In other words, there is no real transparency around animal experimentation.

**Contribution of animal research to human health:** Most animal researchers truly believe that their research contributes to the advancement of human health. Anti-vivisectionists claim that they too want to advance human health, but not at the expense of non-human animals. They say the role of animal research in the progress in human health is exaggerated. They don’t deny the fact that animal research has contributed to breakthroughs in human health in the past, but they say that the developments did not necessarily depend on the use of animals. Most of these discoveries were based on human clinical observation, and then were later tested in the laboratory on animals to ‘validate’ the results from human observations. The role of clinical research, where drugs are tested on humans before they are released on the market, is still crucial today.

**Validity of animal data:** The validity of animal experiments is beginning to be questioned. Some toxicologists, for example, admit that the way some chemicals affect animals differs from the way they affect humans. Although animals show many similarities to humans with regard to, for example physiology, hormones and capacity to feel pain, at the level of cellular metabolism there are important differences.
For example, aspirin is so toxic for animals that it causes birth defects in mice and rats, and cats can only take about twenty percent of the human dosage every third day, otherwise they will die. Ibuprofen, another painkiller for humans, causes kidney failure in dogs at low doses. Similarly, penicillin was originally discounted because although it killed bacteria in a petri dish, it didn’t work in rabbits. It was only many years later when, in desperation, Alexander Fleming gave it to a human patient, that he discovered it killed bacterial infection in people.

Currently some studies are systematically and critically looking at the contribution of primates in general and chimpanzees in particular to advancements in biomedical research. The ethical argument against the use of our closest relative in biomedical research should be sufficient; however, scientific data discrediting the primate model for human disease may strengthen the case. For instance, it is now known that chimpanzees infected with the AIDS virus do not develop AIDS symptoms like humans.

A resolution to end the use of primates in biomedical research was signed by WSPA and 25 other animal protection organisations at the 5th World Congress on Alternatives and Animal Use in the Life Sciences in Berlin in August 2005.

There are not only differences between animals and humans, but also between different species, between different genders and between age groups of the same species. The predictability of animal data for humans is questionable.

Detection of adverse side-effects: Each year drugs that were certified safe in animal tests are withdrawn from the market after causing serious side-effects and even deaths, when given to people. Adverse drug reactions are the fourth leading cause of death in the Western world, killing over 100,000 people every year in the US alone. Thalidomide, Opren, FIAU and Eraldin were all drugs that caused serious (often fatal) side effects in humans, which were not identified in animal experiments. In December 1997 the diabetic drug, troglitazone, was withdrawn from sale after only three months. It had caused 130 cases of liver failure and six deaths, although it had passed all animal tests. Furthermore, the arthritis drug Vioxx, caused such serious side effects that the pharmaceutical company (Merck) had to settle lawsuits of over $250 million. However, research defenders claim that the figures quoted for drugs taken off the market and the number of people suffering side-effects are exaggerated.

Some sources estimate that only one percent of adverse drug reactions are detected in animal trials. This is partly because common symptoms such as nausea, dizziness, headaches and visual disturbance, are essentially impossible to detect in animals. Furthermore, the lives of commonly used laboratory animals are up to 66 times shorter than a human life, making it difficult to predict potential long-term side-effects.
The 3Rs is a concept introduced by Russell and Burch in 1959. It stands for: ‘Reduction, Refinement, Replacement’:

- Reduction: of the number of tests
- Refinement: of the severity of tests and the species used
- Replacement: of animal tests – being the ultimate aim

This three-pronged approach seeks to scrutinise animal experiments with a view of minimising their impact and ultimately replacing them with non-animal methods.

The concept of the 3Rs is not explicitly mentioned in European legislation, but its principles are integrated into Article 7, paragraphs 2–4, of the Council Directive 86/609/EEC (1986):

**Article 7**

**Paragraph 2:** An experiment shall not be performed if another scientifically satisfactory method of obtaining the result sought, not entailing the use of an animal, is reasonably and practicably available.

**Paragraph 3:** When an experiment has to be performed, the choice of species shall be carefully considered and, where necessary, explained to the authority. In a choice between experiments, those which use the minimum number of animals, involve animals with the lowest degree of neurophysiological sensitivity, cause the least pain, suffering, distress or lasting harm and which are most likely to provide satisfactory results shall be selected. Experiments on animals taken from the wild may not be carried out unless experiments on other animals would not suffice for the aims of the experiment.

**Paragraph 4:** All experiments shall be designed to avoid distress and unnecessary pain and suffering to the experimental animals.

Developing and implementing replacement alternatives should be the ultimate aim. Reduction strategies can be applied in situations where animals are still used; aiming at the smallest number of animals that still leads to a scientific result. Finally, refinement alternatives may not directly lead to a reduction; however, the consequences of refined procedures may have a positive impact on animals.

**a) Replacement**

Some examples of replacement alternatives include:

**Preventative medicine:** The best alternative method is preventative medicine, which prevents disease and promotes health. In a strict sense, this includes vaccinations against disease, and, as we have seen before, in the production of vaccines animals are required for safety and potency testing. However, the wider definition of preventative medicine includes a healthy lifestyle.

**Computer databases and simulations:** Databases store information about existing chemicals, including the effects of certain drugs, human clinical research and epidemiological data. If databases are shared, a lot of duplicate tests could be avoided.

Computers have also contributed to breakthroughs in simulation and virtual reality research. This is called *in silico* research (in computers), as opposed to *in vivo* (in the living organism), and *in vitro* (in cell and tissue culture). Cells, tissues and whole organs are simulated either directly in computer programmes (such as virtual dissection programmes) or in mannequins (physical models). For example, a gastro-intestinal model has been developed that simulates the stomach, small intestine and colon, which can be used for drug testing, drug-food interactions and microbiological studies.
Synthetic model mannequins do not necessarily need computer input. An example is a synthetic skin model, called ‘Corrositex’, which can be used in place of animals to test whether a substance corrodes or burns the skin. This alternative has been accepted in place of the real skin tests performed on animals.

**In vitro research** involves the study of cells, tissues and organs, which are isolated outside the living animal or human body, and which are studied in an artificial environment (such as in a test tube). Established cell lines are derived from animals in the past and no more animals are required in later stages, while primary tissue or organs are derived from animals that are purposely killed for their tissue or organs. Human tissue banks are now being developed in some countries, but there are many legal and ethical obstacles, which prevent easy implementation. Human donors are still a minority and more donors are badly needed. More and more scientists believe that the future of testing substances is *in vitro*.

Chemicals (such as ingredients of cosmetics or household products) are tested for eye irritation. Alternative methods to the traditional eye irritation test (Draize test) are being developed, using isolated rabbit or chicken eyes. This means that animals are killed for a primary organ (eye) and don't have to suffer in the test itself.

Cells, tissues and organs are tested in test tubes, or Petri dishes, which contain a ‘medium’; a mixture of substances in which cells are able to grow. Often these media contain Foetal Bovine Serum (FBS), derived from calves when still in the uterus of the cow. This blood serum promotes cell growth. Some experts say that withdrawing blood causes some suffering to the unborn calf, although Professor David Mellor claims that foetuses (animal and human) do not feel pain before they are born and that their level of awareness is very low. The most ethical solution for *in vitro* research would be to use serum-free media and to test on human cells, tissues and organs.

If replacement is defined as a ‘technique for any scientific method employing non-sentient material’, then primary animal cells and cell lines for *in vitro* research both replace and reduce the number of animals.

**Autopsies and pathology**: While the role of animal experimentation in human medical advancement is overestimated, the role of autopsies (research on dead human bodies) has contributed tremendously to important medical discoveries. For example, human blood circulation differs from that in animals. In 1628 physician William Harvey’s autopsies proved that blood circulated from the right heart through the lungs back to the left heart and into the arteries and veins, which differed from the explanation based on animal dissection.

**Epidemiology** is the study of increased incidence of disease or disorders within a population. All factors are considered, such as lifestyle, environment, occupation, gender, age, family related diseases etc. Data from thousands of patients over a widespread area can be compared with each other and increased incidences of disease can be detected. For example, people who smoke are five times as likely to develop cancer. People who live near a chemical waste factory have a five times higher chance of developing cancer, and, if these people also smoke, the interaction between environment and smoking makes them 30 times as likely to develop cancer.

There are also epidemiological models, based on mathematics that can explain why certain diseases develop in one place and not in another. This tool can be used as part of preventative medicine, but is unfortunately under-utilised by researchers.

**Human clinical trials**: When test data have provided a reasonable presumption of the safety of substances or devices, clinical trials are scheduled in which human (paid) volunteers undergo a treatment protocol for several days, weeks or sometimes even months. According to the Nuremburg
Code, drawn up after World War II as a result of Nazi atrocities, any experiments on humans “should be designed and based on the results of animal experimentation.” The Declaration of Helsinki, adopted in 1964 by the 18th World Medical Assembly and revised in 1975, also states that medical research on human subjects “should be based on adequately performed laboratory and animal experimentation.” Human trials must be completed for legal approval of new devices, drugs or procedures.

Anti-vivisectionists would like to see more human clinical trials after substances have been thoroughly tested in vitro or by using computer simulations. Human clinical trials should never be indiscriminate, using people against their will or without a proper ethical justification – as some extremists have proposed that it is justified to use prisoners for this purpose.

Clinical research: Linked to both epidemiology and human clinical trials is clinical research. Sick patients are observed closely and all relevant data are collected to get a better idea of the development of a disease. When large groups of patients with the same disease are studied, results can be significant. Although there are differences between human individuals, the differences between animals and humans are even greater and therefore, it makes more sense to study existing patients than to induce sickness in animals to create an animal model for human disease.

Post-marketing drug surveillance: After a drug has been released on the market, physicians are asked to participate in a survey, which aims to study possible side-effects of the drug. Feedback is very important, because certain side-effects may be rare, but severe, and the more information the pharmaceutical company receives, the better the drug can be labelled. Sometimes the results of the surveillance lead to withdrawal of the drug as it may cause more harm than good.

Other technological and biomedical advancements: A recent development in biomedical research includes the use of stem cells, which are precursor cells or mother cells that have the capacity for both replication and differentiation, and for giving rise to various morphologically recognisable precursors of different blood cell lines. Human stem cell research is very promising, as no animals are required anymore and the cells have the potential to be used in different types of applications.

The problem with the development of alternative methods is that it takes a long time, especially the phase of ‘validation’. This requires new methods to be tried and tested in different laboratories and under different circumstances. Also, data from alternative methods are measured against known human data or data from animal research. The development and acceptance of alternative methods can take years, and meanwhile, this type of research is poorly funded, while animal experimentation is very well funded. Many animal protection groups argue that the money spent on animal research could be much better spent on preventative health care. Promoting a healthy lifestyle would save billions of dollars spent on research and patient treatment and care.

b) Reduction

Some examples of ‘Reduction’ alternatives include:

- Reducing the breeding surplus to decrease the total number of experimental animals
- Applying proper experimental design to ensure the minimum number of animals is used
- Applying appropriate statistics, so that fewer animals can be used, or the same number of animals can be used while more data are collected
- Sharing data and harmonisation between different countries with regard to testing regulations, so that tests are not duplicated
- Involving Ethical Review Committees for their expertise on how to advise on using fewer animals than proposed
- Conducting a literature search to review existing alternative methods to prevent duplicating protocols
- Reviewing testing guidelines and regulations on a regular basis to implement new methods that use fewer animals or that make the use of animals obsolete.
c) Refinement
Some examples of ‘Refinement’ alternatives include:
• Applying anaesthesia, analgesia or humane endpoints (ending suffering at an earlier stage)
• Promoting welfare by:
  ◦ Enriching the environment: socially, by housing animals in groups; physically, by providing
    nesting material or hiding places; or food enrichment, for example, by scattering food in the
    cage or putting it on top of the cage, which makes it harder to obtain, stimulating more
    natural behaviour
  ◦ Providing a reward after an animal has performed a task or cooperated with scientific
    procedures (for example presenting an arm for blood withdrawal)
• Education and training, which is very important, not only in raising awareness about the ‘3Rs’
  in general, but also in training people specifically in humane principles and techniques, including
  animal handling and basic procedures. Indeed, in some countries a basic level of training is
  required before scientists are allowed to perform procedures.

ANIMAL PROTECTION STRATEGIES

The animal protection movement has already used various strategies to fight against animal
experimentation. The following are just some examples of what has been, and could be, done:

a) Campaigning and Lobbying
• Conducting high profile campaigns, such as media events, demonstrations etc., especially for
  bans on the worst excesses such as primate testing, cosmetics testing, cruel procedures etc.
• Investigations – mostly done undercover, and media exposés – working with television
  documentaries for maximum campaign impact
• Using the introduction and enforcement of animal protection legislation to ban worst excesses
  and to tighten controls and conditions for situations that cannot (yet) be banned
• Lobbying governmental authorities/politicians
• Bringing cases to court to test existing law
• Instigating joint campaigns between farm animal welfare and anti-vivisection groups on genetic
  engineering issues
• Running campaigns, which target the worst offenders and stakeholders of the worst offenders,
  such as shareholders, financiers, suppliers
• Campaigning for the release and re-homing of experimental animals
• Conducting literature reviews to systematically analyse existing information and the usefulness
  of the animal model for human health. The results can be published in peer reviewed scientific
  journals and used in campaigns.

b) Consumer Education
• Introducing/supporting labelling schemes for ‘cruelty free’ products, such as cosmetics,
  household products, pet foods
• Comparing and publicising the welfare credentials of different ‘cruelty free’ labels and exposing
  any misleading ‘cruelty free’ labels
• Comparing and publicising the ‘cruelty free’ credentials of different sales outlets, such
  as supermarkets, pharmaceutical chains etc.
• Working with media, especially documentaries to expose the issues and the practices
  of different companies
• Making information available in targeted publications, e.g. articles in lifestyle and consumer
  magazines, pet magazines etc.
“PARADISE LOST” — A BUAV CAMPAIGN

Each year throughout the world tens of thousands of monkeys are either caught in the wild or bred in captivity and then flown to laboratories around the world, predominantly as cargo on passenger airlines, to be used in experiments. Cramped conditions, inadequate ventilation, noise and extreme fluctuations in temperature can all contribute to suffering and death. Journeys can last up to three days and may involve at least two international flights and additional stopovers.

In 1991, the BRITISH UNION FOR THE ABOLITION OF VIVISECTION (BUAV) decided to embark on a daring and often dangerous investigation to follow the chain of supply from the tropical rain forests of Indonesia and the Philippines and the lush undergrowth of Mauritius, to the bare metal cages of the research laboratory. A BUAV undercover worker was placed in Shamrock (GB) Ltd, Europe’s largest primate supply company (before its closure in June 2000) and Hazleton, a leading UK contract testing laboratory, while other investigators travelled to the main exporting countries to infiltrate the trapping network. In 1993 the BUAV also carried out investigations into the trade in primates in the Caribbean including St Kitts and Barbados. They documented the whole tragic picture, including:

- Cruel trapping
- Barren holding compounds
- Cramped cages and boxes
- ‘Nightmare’ journeys
- Laboratory conditions at the end

In 1992, the BUAV launched its powerful ‘Paradise Lost’ campaign to end the international trade in primates for research. The campaign covered three main areas:

- Wild capture
- Airlines campaign
- Undercover investigations

Their combination of shocking exposés, high-profile media work and concerted campaigning throughout Europe had far-reaching effects.

Since the launch of the BUAV’s airline campaign in 1993, more than 100 airlines have refused to transport research primates, including many major carriers who were previously responsible for shipping thousands of monkeys to research laboratories every year. Some major suppliers have stopped importing and selling wild-caught monkeys. And countries are banning the export of wild-caught monkeys.

In March 1995, the British Government announced a ban on the use of wild-caught monkeys in research unless there was ‘exceptional and specific justification’ and introduced further administrative controls on the use of primates.

c) Formal Education

- Covering animal experimentation issues (including ethics and alternative methods) in school educational materials and programmes
- Covering animal experimentation issues in Veterinary University and other scientific curricula, and providing resources like WSPA’s ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ syllabus
• Including animal welfare education in all vocational programmes covering animal experimentation and associated trades, such as animal breeding facilities.

**FURTHER RESOURCES**

**Websites**

**Anti-vivisection Organisations**

- **American Anti-Vivisection Society (AAVS)**
  www.aavs.org/

- **Animal Aid**
  www.animalaid.org.uk/viv/index.htm

- **British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV)**
  www.buav.org/

- **European Coalition to End Animal Experiments**
  www.eceae.org/english/

- **Japan Anti-Vivisection Association (JAVA)**
  https://www.java-animal.org/eng/index.htm

- **National Anti-Vivisection Society (NAVS)**
  www.navs.org.uk/

- **New England Anti-Vivisection Society (NEAVS)**
  www.neavs.org/

- **Uncaged Campaigns**
  www.uncaged.co.uk/

**Alternatives in Education**

- **Association of Veterinarians for Animal Rights (AVAR)**
  www.avar.org/

- **European Resource Centre for Alternatives in Higher Education (EURCA)**
  www.eurca.org/

- **International Network for Humane Education (InterNICHE)**
  www.interniche.org/

- **Learning Without Killing – comprehensive information for students**
  www.learningwithoutkilling.info/

- **Norwegian Reference Centre for Laboratory Animal Science & Alternatives**
  http://oslovet.veths.no/dokument.aspx?dokument=80&mnu=about_us

- **Organisations Supporting the ‘3Rs’**
  Alternatives to Animal Testing (ALTEX)
  www.altex.ch/hauptseite_e.htm
The Alternatives to Animal Testing Web Site (Altweb)
http://altweb.jhsph.edu/

Animal Protection Institute
www.api4animals.org/

Animal Welfare Institute
www.awionline.org/

Australian and New Zealand Council for the Care of Animals in Research and Teaching
www.adelaide.edu.au/ANZCCART/

Dr Hadwen Trust
www.drhadwentrust.f2s.com/

Eurogroup for Animal Welfare
www.eurogroupanimalwelfare.org/

Europeans for Medical Progress (EfMP)
curedisease.net/

Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments
www.frame.org.uk/

Humane Society of the United States (HSUS)
www.hsus.org/animals_in_research/

Japanese Society for Alternatives to Animal Experiments
wwwsoc.nii.ac.jp/jsaae/index-e.html

Lord Dowding Fund
www.idf.org.uk/

National Centre for the Replacement, Refinement and Reduction of Animals in Research
www.nc3rs.org.uk/

Netherlands Centre for Alternatives to Animal Use (NCA)
www.nca-nl.org/

Physicians Committee for Responsible Medicine (PCRM)
www.pcrm.org/

5th World Congress on Alternatives & Animal Use in the Life Sciences, Berlin, 21-25 August 2005
www.ctw-congress.de/act2005/

Organisations Advocating Animal Experimentation
Research Defence Society (RDS)
www.rds-online.org.uk/

Seriously Ill for Medical Research (SIMR)
www.simr.org.uk/pages/avmyths/consensus.html
Journals
Alternatives to Laboratory Animals (ATLA)
www.frame.org.uk/atlafr/atlafrintro.htm

ALTEX – Alternatives to Animal Experiments
www.altex.ch/hauptseite_e.htm

Animal Welfare – the Journal
www.ufaw.org.uk/journal/Animal%20welfare.htm

Good Medicine (by PCRM)
www.pcrm.org/magazine

Laboratory Animals: The International Journal of Laboratory Animal Science and Welfare
www.lal.org.uk

Netherlands Centre for Alternatives to Animal Use (NCA) Newsletter
www.ncanl.org/English/Newsletters/newsletters.html

Books
Animal Experiments: the Moral Issues
R. M. Baird, S. E. Rosenbaum
Publisher: Prometheus Books
ISBN: 0879756675

Animal Experimentation: The Consensus Changes
Gill Langley
Publisher: Chapman & Hall
ISBN: 041202411X

Animal Experimentation: A Guide to the Issues
V. Monamy
Publisher: Cambridge University Press
ISBN: 0521667860

Campaigning Against Cruelty: Hundred Year History of the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection
Emma Hopley
Publisher: BUAV
ISBN: 1870356160

The Cruel Deception: Use of Animals in Medical Research
Robert Sharpe
Publisher: HarperCollins
ISBN: 0722515936

Handbook of Laboratory Animal Management and Welfare
S. Wolfensohn, M. Lloyd
Publisher: Blackwell Science
ISBN: 0632050527
In the Name of Science: Issues in Responsible Animal Experimentation
F. B. Orlans
Publisher: Oxford University Press
ISBN: 019510871X

Lethal Laws: Animal Testing, Environmental Policy and Human Health
Alix Fano
Publisher: Zed Books
ISBN: 1856494977

The Principles of Humane Experimental Technique
W.M. Russell, R.L. Burch, C.W. Humo
Publisher: Universities Federation for Animal Welfare
ISBN: 0900767782

Sacred Cows and Golden Geese
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Publisher: Continuum International Publishing Group
ISBN: 0826412262

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Publisher: Blackwell Science
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The Use of Animals in Higher Education: Problems, Alternatives, and Recommendations
Jonathan Balcombe
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Publisher: Open Gate Press
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Pietro Croce
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Tony Page
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ISBN: 1897766319

Why Animal Experiments Must Stop: And How You Can Help Stop Them
Vernon Coleman
Publisher: Green Print
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ANIMAL PROTECTION LEGISLATION

It is WSPA’s belief that every nation should have comprehensive animal protection legislation. Animals are sentient creatures, and therefore entitled to recognition, care and protection against avoidable suffering.

However legislation alone is insufficient to bring about a real change in attitudes and practical protection afforded to animals. To be really effective, legislation needs both the popular support of a humane and caring society, and proper enforcement. Education can bring about lasting improvements, but legislation will provide the safety net to prevent cruelty and abuse and should reflect the current consensus of society.

Legislation can be introduced to meet a number of aims, for example:
• Banning certain activities involving animals, for example by-laws to ban circuses on local council land
• Prohibiting certain production methods, for example a ban on battery cages or fur farming
• Protecting domestic animals and wildlife, for example laws against hunting in protected areas
• Promoting animal welfare, for example by introducing minimum standards and legal requirements
• Preventing animal cruelty or minimising animal suffering
• Protecting animal and public health, for example prohibiting the use of growth hormones
• Encouraging responsibility amongst animal owners.

Campaigning and lobbying can be used to achieve a number of legislative aims, including:
• Introducing new legislation
• Improving legislation
• Making more effective use of existing legislation
• Revoking legislation that is to the detriment of animal welfare
• Any combination of the above.

TO WORK EFFECTIVELY, ANIMAL PROTECTION ORGANISATIONS NEED TO BE FAMILIAR WITH THE ANIMAL PROTECTION LAWS IN THEIR COUNTRIES, IF THEY EXIST. ORGANISATIONS CAN ALSO PLAY A KEY ROLE IN INFLUENCING THE INTRODUCTION AND ENHANCEMENT OF ANIMAL PROTECTION LAWS, INCLUDING THE VITAL AREA OF ENFORCEMENT.
The main sources of information about national animal protection laws are the relevant government departments and law libraries. National animal protection organisations and societies with law enforcement authority may also be able to advise. To find out about the laws of other countries, contact the diplomatic representation of the country concerned.

The legislative system will depend on the culture and history of the country. For example, legislation can be based on that of former colonial powers. Thus, laws in Commonwealth countries, former Commonwealth countries, and former British colonies are often laws based on old British laws. In Muslim countries, law may be based on religious principles. It is important to understand your country’s legislative base, in order to use appropriate legislative models and lobbying tactics. The following is one example of a legislative structure:

**a) Legislative Structure**

**Primary Legislation** outlines general principles and provides powers for further regulation. A ‘Bill’ is a draft law that needs to pass through Parliament or Congress and be agreed at governmental level before it becomes law. An ‘Act’ is a law that has been passed by a legislative body.

**Secondary Legislation** consists of detailed provisions, which cover a specific subject area. The relevant government departments often formulate these.

**By-Laws or State Laws** are local laws, which are enforced locally. The precise level depends on the regional government structure.

For example, in the USA there are several tiers of legislation: federal laws apply throughout the country, state laws apply only in the relevant state and there may also be localised by-laws, city laws or district laws. Federal law may only be agreed in areas covered by the constitution. Thus, most animal protection laws are at state level.

**Codes of practice** are guidelines written specifically for those who need to comply with the legislation; they provide practical guidance in respect of provisions made by or under an Act. Generally, failure to comply with a code does not in itself render a person liable to legal proceedings. However, evidence of a failure to meet the standard set in a code of practice can be used to support a prosecution for an offense under the relevant Act. Equally, a person who is charged with an offense under an Act, can defend themselves by showing that they have met the standard set in the code of practice.

**b) Government Structures**

**GOVERNMENT STRUCTURES SET UP TO DEAL WITH ANIMAL PROTECTION MATTERS ARE A GREAT INDICATOR OF THE POLITICAL IMPORTANCE OF ANIMAL PROTECTION IN THE COUNTRY IN QUESTION.**

Government structures can also greatly influence the strength with which animal protection matters are pursued.

The government departments involved with animal protection can vary greatly. The best option is to have a separate Government Ministry dealing with animal protection matters. If this is not yet possible, a separate Department within a sympathetic Ministry is the next best option. An example of this is in India, where an animal welfare department was established within the former Ministry of Welfare.

If animal welfare is dealt with in a Ministry with conflicting objectives (such as Agriculture), then
animal protection objectives can take second place. Not having a separate department or unit dealing with animal protection matters is even worse, as this means there is no thorough or uniform approach to animal issues. In such a case, it would be preferable to have a sympathetic department, such as Environment, deal with animal welfare matters.

c) Committees and Councils
Government advisory committees can play a significant role in improving government feedback and expert advice in animal protection matters. The role and scope can vary greatly from being a committee dealing with all aspects of animal protection (every subject area and both ethical and practical enforcement issues, as in the Czech Republic) to a committee with more specific scope, such as an ethical committee concerned with biotechnology.

The best arrangement will depend on the country's legislative and enforcement structure. However, if a country does decide to have just one advisory committee covering all areas of animal protection, then it is important that it is broken down into small sub-groups, each containing a wide range of expertise in the relevant subject area.

The remit of such a committee could include:
- New issues of concern in or to the animal protection field
- Beneficial developments in or for the animal protection field
- New and relevant animal welfare scientific research
- Problems with existing laws and enforcement
- New legislation or amendments needed
- Further research needed
- Further educational initiatives needed
- Relevant questions of government transparency.

Advisory committees should not merely consist of representatives from the animal exploitation industries. A proper balance between animal protection, animal use, neutral government and scientific representation is important.

It is also important that the committee has access to all government information and statistics and is able to publish open reports, including minority reports. These are reports officially stating the position of members who are in the minority on a particular issue.

Consultation
Animal protection groups should press for full and open consultation on all matters affecting, or likely to affect, animal protection. In particular:
- Full consultation of animal protection groups on the same basis as industry
- Representation at all consultation meetings
- Written consultation with the results published for transparency.

In this way, impractical provisions and areas of conflict can be resolved before the law is introduced. This is vital, because any legislation is likely to be unenforceable unless it is deemed to be fair and practical. Technical assessment and specialist advice, for example, scientific or veterinary, should be obtained and used wherever appropriate. In areas where ongoing consultation is envisaged, a permanent advisory body can be constituted, and this could be provided for in the legislation itself.

d) Drafting Legislation
Animal protection organisations are sometimes asked to help draft national and local legislation or to comment on legislation already drafted by the relevant government body. Expert advice should be sought to ensure that any proposed animal protection legislation is clear, strong and enforceable. While legislation from other countries can be used as a model or reference, it is
essential to tailor legislation to your own country's particular legislative structure.


A number of issues should be borne in mind when drafting animal protection legislation:

**Legislation aims and objectives:** It can be helpful to include the reasons why the legislation is being introduced; key reasons can include the sentience of animals, their capacity for suffering and the moral and spiritual decline caused by cruelty. The ‘preamble’ of the law (the introductory statement, which is usually found at the beginning) is the appropriate place to summarise the intention or purpose of that particular piece of animal protection legislation.

**Definitions:** Legal definitions are extremely important. They set down the limits and boundaries of the amount and scope of protection given. If terms are vague and not properly defined, they may limit the scope of the piece of legislation and may provide an opportunity to argue that specific situations are not covered by the Act. The clear definition of all key terms used in an Act is thus very important and will facilitate interpretation and enforcement.

For example, what is an **animal**? Does the definition exclude invertebrate species? Are wild animals included? There have been many different definitions of the word ‘animal’, and the consequences of the chosen definition should be given careful consideration.

Should terms such as ‘unnecessary suffering’ be used, and if they are, how should these be defined to avoid any ambiguity? What constitutes cruelty? If inspection is envisaged, who is an inspector?

You might want to leave definitions open to later widening, for example the definition of an animal could be extended to include certain invertebrates if there is scientific evidence that they are sentient.

**Duty of care:** When referring to cruelty to animals, many existing animal protection laws specify that an animal has to actually suffer before an offense is committed. Even though an animal is likely to suffer unless veterinary treatment is sought or the standard of care is raised, nothing can be done until suffering is evident. This makes it difficult for enforcement authorities to prevent suffering, particularly in cases of neglect, where the animal's condition may deteriorate gradually over a period of time. This can be resolved by introducing a statutory ‘duty of care’ on all animal keepers, to look after their animals properly and ensure they do not suffer.

A statutory ‘duty of care’ has been introduced in the new animal welfare bill for England and Wales. This in effect makes it is as much of an offense to cause cruelty by neglect as it is to deliberately make an animal suffer. This makes it possible for enforcement authorities to act on the early warning signs of neglect, and if needed, to remove the animal before it starts to suffer.

**Powers:** Powers should be granted to enforcement authorities in the legislation and these powers should be clearly defined. Ideally, enforcement officers should be given powers to take remedial action (to provide veterinary treatment, or remove an animal from a situation which is likely to cause suffering, or when necessary, to euthanise an animal). The entire range of the powers given to enforcement officers should be given consideration; for instance, should they have the power to detain people and vehicles, and if so, on what grounds? Should they be given powers of entry, allowing them to enter upon any land or premises for the purpose of ascertaining whether an offense has been committed?
CHAPTER 7

The relevant enforcement officers should be clearly identified in the Act; these can include, specific animal protection personnel, the police, environmental health officers, representatives from the ministry of agriculture etc.

**Penalties:** It is important to ensure that penalties are set high enough to act as a deterrent and are also fitting for the crime that is committed. Types of penalties can include custodial sentences, fines, banning orders and/or revocation of existing licences (for example for breeding establishments, riding establishments or pet shops). Banning orders can be sought not just for ownership of an animal, but also for custody of animals. They can also be for a specific animal or for all animals and can range from a couple of months to a lifetime. It is also important to have a provision for assuming custody and removing animals in danger of cruelty or suffering pending legal action. Levels of penalties should be set as high as possible, and will reflect how seriously a country takes animal protection. However it is pointless having higher penalties if they are not properly understood and used by the courts. It is therefore important for judicial personnel to gain an understanding of the severity of these types of offences.

Not all countries have a written constitution. However, where there is a written constitution, a useful animal protection aim is the inclusion of animal protection in the constitution.

In addition to the European Union, only a handful of countries, including Germany, India and Austria, have an animal protection provision in their constitutions. This can be a groundbreaking change that can be used in all future legislative campaigning and lobbying. In the absence of animal protection in the constitution, animal protection objectives can be over-ridden by other constitutional principles, such as the freedom of science/research or the freedom of artistic expression.

David Martin MEP, Senior Vice President of the European Parliament, stated "I firmly believe that there is a direct connection between the way we treat the animals in our care and the type of society in which we live. As I have always believed in converting the European Economic Community into a true European Community I have been at the forefront of arguing that animal welfare should be recognised in the treaties which govern the European Union (EU). I am proud that the EU has taken a lead in this field and would like to see Member States and other nations follow this lead by including animal protection in their constitutions."

**India:** Some animal protection objectives were included in the Indian constitution from its adoption in 1950. In particular, Article 48, which dealt with agriculture, included a prohibition on the slaughter of cows, calves and other milk and draught animals. In 1974, further provisions were introduced including Article 51A, which made it a duty of every citizen of India to “protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, and wildlife, and to have compassion for living creatures”.

In the words of Maneka Gandhi:

“IT IS ONLY WHEN NATIONS RECOGNISE ANIMALS AND PROVIDE THEM CERTAIN CONSTITUTIONAL GUARANTEES THAT WE CAN EXPECT A MORE ENLIGHTENED AND EQUITABLE CODE OF CONDUCT TOWARDS OTHER LIVING BEINGS. ANIMAL PROTECTION IS ALREADY AN ISSUE OF PUBLIC CONCERN AND MORALITY. THIS MUST BE REFLECTED IN LEGISLATION.”
a) Functions of Enforcement

Mike Radford, a UK lawyer and leading authority on animal protection law, categorised seven important functions of enforcement:

- Enforcement informs people about the legislation’s existence
- Enforcement educates them as to their legal responsibilities towards animals
- Enforcement is instrumental in raising and maintaining standards
- Enforcement can prevent animal abuse
- When it fails in this, enforcement enables animals to be removed from the cause of that abuse
- Enforcement upholds the rule of law by demonstrating that the state, through the courts, will punish those who disregard it
- Enforcement identifies problems and weaknesses in the legislation and can therefore form the basis on which to campaign for further reform.

b) Responsibility for Enforcement

One key consideration is the allocation of enforcement duties and responsibilities. It is very important that legislation gives a clear duty to enforce and sets out the allocation of responsibilities.

The choice of enforcement agency is complex and requires consideration of the following factors: the expertise necessary, conflict of duties, accountability, level of coverage, control and coordination, the role of NGOs – if any, practical arrangements, the possibility of an animal ethics committee advising the government.

Possible enforcement bodies include:

- The police
- Other national or government bodies
- Federal authorities
- Regional or state authorities
- Local authorities
- Animal wardens: animal welfare officers in more advanced countries, dog catchers in the worst cases
- Animal protection organisations
- Veterinarians
- Individuals

The choice of enforcement authority and enforcement channels is a difficult, but vital, decision. Animal protection societies should lobby to ensure that the authorities chosen are sympathetic, knowledgeable and well resourced.

c) Role of Education in Enforcement

“ENFORCEMENT IS OF FUNDAMENTAL IMPORTANCE, BECAUSE ANY MEASURES TO IMPROVE ANIMAL WELFARE CAN ONLY BE EFFECTIVE IF THEY ARE PROPERLY IMPLEMENTED AND ENFORCED.” ~ Professor Sir Colin R W Spedding KBE, former Chairman, UK Farm Animal Welfare Council

ENFORCEMENT IS SAID TO BE 90% EDUCATION AND ADVICE.
It is wrong to measure successful enforcement of animal protection legislation solely in terms of prosecutions. Effective education is more successful in the longer term and the preventative approach is always preferable to action after animals have suffered. An effective enforcement officer never misses an opportunity to educate and recognises the provision of expert guidance and advice as a central part of the role.

The animal protection movement has already used various strategies to improve the legal protection of animals. The following are just some examples of what has been, and could be done. Please also see the chapters on campaigning and lobbying which also relate to introducing, improving and using legislation.

a) Introduction of Legislation

- Press for strong national position in international negotiations
- OIE member countries to press for strong animal protection positions in negotiations on international standards
- Press for ratification of international agreements
- Press for inclusion of international agreements in national law
- Press for signature/ratification of Council of Europe animal welfare conventions, if not yet done so – in Europe only
- Press for text of Council of Europe conventions and recommendations to be included in national law – in Europe only
- Press for full implementation of EU animal welfare laws – for EU members or those seeking to join the EU
- Press for national measures that are higher than EU animal welfare laws when implementing this, for EU members or those seeking to join EU, such as banning enriched battery cages, as well as traditional cages
- Press for national animal protection laws, using good models
- Press for animal protection to be included in your constitution, if this exists
- Press for the status of animals as sentient beings to be recognised
- Press for good regional, state, or local animal protection provisions, using good models
- Press for separate animal welfare department
- Press for effective enforcement systems
- Press for effective enforcement guidance
- Press for training of officials, enforcement authorities and all others involved in animal trades
- Press for an effective animal protection committee, with strong animal protection, and sympathetic representation
- Press for effective codes of conduct, to explain the legislation in detail
- Press for full consultation and access to documents and records
- Campaign and lobby for a ban of specific cruel systems or practices.

b) Improvement of Legislation

- Press for a strong national position in international negotiations
- Press for national measures that are stricter than EU animal welfare laws – for EU members or those seeking to join EU, such as banning enriched battery cages, as well as traditional cages
- Press for improved national animal protection laws, using good models
- Press for improved regional, state, or local animal protection provisions, using good models
- Press for a separate animal welfare department or relocation of animal welfare to a sympathetic Ministry
- Press for a more effective enforcement system
• Press for more effective enforcement guidance
• Press for improved training of officials, enforcement authorities and all others involved in animal trades
• Press for a more effective animal protection committee, with strong animal protection and sympathetic representation
• Press for more effective, welfare-friendly codes of conduct, to explain legislation in detail
• Press for changes to the status of animals – to no longer be regarded as property or ‘goods’, but as sentient beings
• Press for fuller consultation and access to documents and records
• Carry out investigations into any areas that need improvement and publicise or expose
• Campaign and lobby for a ban of specific cruel systems or practices.

When seeking improvements, it is important to analyse existing provisions against relevant international, regional and national models. Action should be prioritised in areas where practical animal protection problems occur through lack of adequate legislation or enforcement provisions. Campaigns to improve legislative provisions can be either specific, involving a particular problem in isolation, or broad and general.

The importance of selecting appropriate, high-quality animal protection laws as models cannot be stressed enough. In Europe, for example, the Council of Europe (CoE) conventions and recommendations form a good base for general animal protection principles, but need to be adapted and amended. Also, the CoE conventions do not cover general ethical or protective concerns, or the use of animals in entertainment. As the animal welfare legislation of some countries such as the UK and the USA has been built up over a long period of time, in a piecemeal approach to specific problems, these animal welfare laws may not be the most practical or logical to use as models for other countries. Amongst the higher standard national animal protection laws in Europe are those for Sweden, the Netherlands and Switzerland. The WSPA resource ‘Animal Protection Legislation: Guidance Notes and Suggested Provisions’ is a useful aid, as it has already used best sources and extracted helpful provisions. However, any guidance has to be carefully analysed and related to the national situation and specific animal protection problems.

c) Using Existing Legislation
• Supplementing official enforcement and investigations.
• Taking part in official enforcement mechanisms – through contracts or tenders, for example being responsible for stray dog collection and related services.
• Carry out investigations and exposes or publicise any shortfalls in legislation or enforcement, adding pressure for change.
• Check compliance with existing international or European obligations and expose or publicise any breaches and follow up with your own government or lodge a complaint to the relevant international or European body, for example, an individual or organisation can lodge an official complaint in the case of non-compliance with EU law.
• Involvement in government committees on animal protection.
• Taking part in educational aspects.
• Taking part in training aspects.

Animal protection societies have also successfully used legislation not primarily concerned with animal protection to help their cause. For example, causing the closure of substandard zoos or other premises where animals are kept, using legislation designed to protect human health – such as environmental health protection from ‘dangerous wild animals’. Knowledge of the law can be a powerful tool.
The following organisations cover issues of relevance to animal protection work:

- World Organisation for Animal Health
- World Trade Organisation
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
- United Nations Organisations:
  - The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
  - The World Health Organisation
  - The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
  - The World Bank Group
  - United Nations Environment Programme
  - United Nations Development Programme
  - International Fund for Agricultural Development
- The International Whaling Commission
- International Air Transport Association

Animal protection groups should keep informed of the activities of these organisations as they will impact on animal welfare issues across the world. It is also possible for animal protection groups to attend meetings of some of these organisations as observers.

Animal protection groups should also bear in mind that whilst involvement with these organisations is beneficial, they should be prepared for some frustration due to a number of factors; including the length of time it takes to reach decisions, the difficulty in reaching a decision, and the weaknesses of voting systems, which are inherent in many of these international organisations.

A brief summary of each organisation follows.

a) World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE)

The World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE), based in Paris, is leading the major international initiative in the field of animal health. It is a broad-based organisation with 167 member countries at the time of writing. The OIE was tasked by the World Trade Organisation to investigate and rule on matters of animal health related to trade.

The OIE has now also established animal welfare as a priority, and it organised an international conference on animal welfare in February 2004. The OIE was chosen as the body capable of producing science-based guidelines and standards on animal welfare, because of its strong veterinary and scientific base.

It will give priority to the welfare of animals used in agriculture and aquaculture, and has already written standards on the transport of animals on land, the transport of animals by sea, humane slaughter, and killing for disease-control purposes. These standards were adopted by the OIE in May 2005. All member countries should now implement these standards, but as yet there are no enforcement procedures to ensure this is the case. Therefore implementation will doubtless be uneven across member countries.

Other topics, such as research animals and wildlife, will be addressed subsequently, as resources permit. If the OIE progresses as expected, it appears likely that the OIE will become the major international body with competence for animal welfare.
b) World Trade Organisation (WTO)

www.wto.org

Many animal protection organisations believe that the WTO is the greatest threat facing animal protection today.

The WTO enforces a worldwide Treaty, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which insists that free trade must take precedence over all other legitimate areas of public concern, including the need for sustainable development, environmental and animal protection.

The essence of the problem is that the WTO refuses to let countries distinguish between products on the basis of their production method, thus making it impossible to distinguish them on animal welfare criteria.

This means that under WTO rules a country, or a group of countries, cannot:
- Ban imports on welfare grounds; or
- Insist that imports comply with its own laws to protect animals or the environment.
Taking the European Union (EU) as an example: if higher animal welfare standards exist in the EU, but animal products produced outside the EU to lower welfare standards cannot be banned or prohibited, these ‘poor-welfare’ products will be imported and will compete unfairly with EU production, as they may be cheaper.

**There is currently no provision for products to be banned on welfare grounds; as production methods are not an allowable barrier.** This provides a disincentive to the introduction of higher welfare standards. The only way animal welfare could be considered in this context would be either if the WTO were reformed, or if legally accepted international standards of animal welfare were formulated.

This situation is unacceptable for animal protection organisations, who feel that the reform of WTO is vital and continue to lobby on this issue. Also, the wider NGO movement increasingly questions the predominance of the free trade concept, with all its detrimental environmental and social impacts.

c) **Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)**  
The OECD group has 30 member countries, which share a commitment to democratic government and the market economy. It has a global reach with active relationships with over 70 other countries, NGOs and civil societies. Best known for its publications and its statistics, its work covers economic and social issues including macroeconomics, trade, education, development, science and innovation. Areas of interest to animal protection organisations include:  
- Chemical safety, including animal experimentation
- Development Co-operation Directorate (DAC) including sustainable development, environment etc.

d) **United Nations Organisations**  
The United Nations (UN) plays an important role in the international political arena. The following five animal protection organisations have **UN consultative status:**  
- World Society for the Protection of Animals (1971)  
- International Association Against Painful Experiments on Animals (1972)  
- Humane Society of the United States (1996)  

Within the UN system there are specialised agencies and other autonomous organisations. Key ones of relevance to animal protection work include:  
- The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO)  
- The World Health Organisation (WHO)  
- The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)  
- The World Bank Group  
- United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)  
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)  
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).

A brief summary of each follows below.

The FAO was founded in 1945 as a specialised agency of the UN to lead international efforts to defeat hunger. The FAO serves both developed and developing countries and acts as a neutral forum where all nations meet as equals to negotiate agreements and debate policy. It helps developing countries and countries in transition to modernise and improve agriculture, forestry and fisheries practices and ensure good nutrition for all. FAO’s activities comprise four main areas:
• Putting information within reach
• Sharing policy expertise
• Providing a meeting place for nations
• Bringing knowledge to the field.

THE FAO AMENDED ITS MISSION TO INCLUDE ANIMAL WELFARE, DRAFTED AN ANIMAL WELFARE POLICY AND HAS INCLUDED ANIMAL WELFARE IN ITS GOOD AGRICULTURAL PRACTICE GUIDELINES.

The World Health Organisation (WHO)
www.who.int/en
The WHO is the United Nations specialised agency for health, established in 1948. WHO’s objective is the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health. Health is defined in WHO’s Constitution as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.

The WHO is governed by 192 Member States through the World Health Assembly. The Health Assembly is composed of representatives from WHO’s Member States. The main tasks of the World Health Assembly are to approve the WHO programme and the budget for the following biennium and to decide major policy questions.

Areas of WHO activity of direct relevance to animal protection goals include:
• Diet and health, including non-communicable diseases
• Rabies and stray control: WSPA and WHO have cooperated to produce guidelines and training on stray control issues
• Health technology and pharmaceuticals

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)
www.unesco.org
UNESCO was founded on 16 November 1945. This specialised UN agency believes that education, social and natural science, culture and communication are the means of achieving its ambitious goal of building peace in the minds of people. UNESCO promotes international cooperation among its 191 Member States and six Associate Members.

Two decades at UNESCO are of particular relevance to animal protection organisations:
• 2001-2010: International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World
• 2005-2014: Decade of Education for Sustainable Development

The World Bank Group
www.worldbank.org
The World Bank Group is a specialised agency of the UN. It consists of five closely associated institutions, all owned by member countries. Each institution plays a distinct role in the mission to fight poverty and improve living standards, by providing finance and technical assistance. They are:
• The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
• The International Development Association
• The International Finance Corporation
• The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency
• The International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes.

The World Bank is run like a cooperative, with its member countries as shareholders. The number of shares a country has is based roughly on the size of its economy. The United States is the
largest single shareholder, with 16.41 percent of votes, followed by Japan, Germany, the United Kingdom and France. The rest of the shares are divided among the other member countries.

The World Bank has made a commitment to hold a conference on ‘animal protection in development’.

**United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)**

[www.unep.org](http://www.unep.org)

UNEP, established in 1972, is a United Nations Programme. It is the voice for the environment within the United Nations system. UNEP acts as a catalyst, advocate, educator and facilitator to promote the wise use and sustainable development of the global environment. Its mission is to provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing and enabling nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.

UNEP has taken up some conservation-linked animal protection issues. Most groundbreaking is the Great Apes Survival Project (GRASP) initiative, a project whereby UNEP campaigns together with partner NGOs to lift the threat of imminent extinction faced by great apes.

**United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)**

[www.undp.org](http://www.undp.org)

UNDP is a UN programme governed by an Executive Board. It is made up of representatives from 36 countries around the world, who serve on a rotating basis. Its focus is the achievement of development goals established at the United Nations Millennium Summit, which set clear targets for reducing poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women, by 2015. On the ground in 166 countries, UNDP uses its global network to help the UN system and its partners to raise awareness and track progress, while it connects countries to the knowledge and resources needed to achieve these goals.

UNDP implements the Small Grants Programme (SGP), which is a corporate programme of the Global Environment Facility. The SGP supports activities of NGOs and community-based organisations in developing countries. One project area that SGP funds is biodiversity: that is, projects that support or promote conservation and sustainable use and management of biodiversity in ecosystems. The repatriation of the mountain bongo (a rare antelope subspecies) to the Mount Kenya National Park is an example of one project funded by the SGP.

**International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)**

[www.ifad.org](http://www.ifad.org)

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) is a specialised agency of the United Nations and was established as an international financial institution in 1977. It is one of the major outcomes of the 1974 World Food Conference. The Fund has a very specific mandate: to combat hunger and rural poverty in developing countries.

The majority of IFAD’s programmes involving animals focus on ‘restocking’, either as a form of immediate disaster relief, as part of the rehabilitation process or in a longer-term development effort.

**e) The International Whaling Commission (IWC)**

[www.iwcoffice.org/](http://www.iwcoffice.org/)

The International Whaling Commission (IWC) is the international body responsible for the regulation of whaling. The IWC was set up under the International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling, which was signed in Washington DC in 1946. The purpose of the Convention was to provide for the proper conservation of whale stocks and thus make possible the orderly development of the whaling industry. But the IWC’s attitude toward whaling has changed over the years towards protection of whales, rather than exploitation.
f) International Air Transport Association (IATA)  
www.iata.org/index.asp

The International Air Transport Association (IATA) is an association of airlines founded in 1945 by airline operators seeking to promote “safe, regular and economical air transport”. IATA publishes Live Animal Regulations in English, French, Spanish and Chinese. These regulations are the industry’s minimum standards for the international transport of animals.

The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) now recommends that its parties adopt the Live Animal Regulations as their official guidelines for the transportation of endangered species.

EUROPEAN INSTITUTIONS

a) The European Union (EU)  
http://europa.eu.int

In political terms, the EU is increasing in international importance and stature, and not just due to its enlargement. It is a major negotiating partner in many international institutions. Even in forums where individual countries are still represented, the EU will hold coordination meetings.

The EU was established by the Treaty of Rome (EEC Treaty or TEC) signed in 1957, with the objective of safeguarding peace and promoting economic and social progress in Europe. The EU is essentially an area of economic activity and trade without internal borders.

There were no powers in the Treaty of Rome to introduce EU legislation for the specific purpose of protecting animals. However, after many years of campaigning, it was agreed in 1997 to include a special legally binding Protocol on Animal Welfare in the new European Union Treaty (The Amsterdam Treaty), which has now been included in the proposed European Constitution. The essence of the Protocol is that it obliges the European Institutions to take account of animal welfare when considering legislation in the areas of research, transport, agriculture and the internal market.

Within the EU, the major animal protection lobbies are:

- **Eurogroup for Animal Welfare**: based in Brussels, this organisation was formed especially to lobby the EU on all animal welfare issues. It is comprised of member organisations and observers from throughout the EU. [www.eurogroupanimalwelfare.org](http://www.eurogroupanimalwelfare.org)

- **The European Coalition for Farm Animals**: this pan-European coalition of animal protection societies campaigns and lobbies together on key farm animal issues. It is coordinated by Compassion in World Farming. [www.ciwf.org.uk/ecfa](http://www.ciwf.org.uk/ecfa)

- **The European Coalition to End Animal Experiments**: this pan-European coalition of animal protection societies campaigns and lobbies together on key animal experimentation issues. It is coordinated by the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection. [www.eceae.org](http://www.eceae.org)

- **The International Fund for Animal Welfare**: this international organisation has an office in Brussels, which lobbies EU officials on certain animal protection issues. [www.ifaw.org](http://www.ifaw.org)

- **The Humane Society International (HSI)** has a European lobbyist, who lobbies the EU on certain animal protection issues of interest to the Humane Society of the United States and HSI. [www.hsus.org/ace/20225](http://www.hsus.org/ace/20225)

b) The Council of Europe  
www.coe.int

Founded in 1949, the Council of Europe is a political intergovernmental organisation. It is considered to be the defender of human rights in Europe. Its permanent headquarters are in Strasbourg, France.
Its **aims** are:
- To work for greater European unity
- To uphold the principle of parliamentary democracy and human rights
- To improve living conditions and promote human values.

The Council of Europe became concerned about animal welfare because it realised that:

> “THE DIGNITY OF MANKIND COULD NOT BE DISASSOCIATED FROM THE RESPECT MAN OWED TO HIS ENVIRONMENT AND THE ANIMALS WHICH INHABITED IT.”

The Council of Europe has 46 European member states. WSPA and Eurogroup both have consultative status. The Council of Europe has a number of conventions on animal protection issues. It also has detailed recommendations under some of these conventions:

### Council of Europe Conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Convention No.</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Opening of Treaty</th>
<th>Entry into Force</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats</td>
<td>19/9/1979</td>
<td>1/6/1982</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These conventions are open for member countries to ratify and adopt.
http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/EN/cadreprincipal.htm
c) Major Animal Protection Successes in Europe

There have been more animal welfare successes in the European Union than anywhere else. Summarised from Eurogroup for Animal Welfare, these successes include the following:

**Cosmetics Testing: 1993 and 2003**

In 1993, it was agreed that a marketing ban on cosmetic products and ingredients tested on animals would be introduced on 1 January 1998 provided that scientifically validated alternative non-animal tests were available for an adequate safety evaluation. This ban was postponed twice, firstly up to June 2000 and then up to June 2002. Then after 13 years of negotiations, a new measure was agreed in 2003, which will phase in a near-total ban on the sale of animal-tested cosmetic products throughout the EU from 2009 and put a stop to all animal testing for cosmetics.

**Egg Labelling: 2001**

New standards for compulsory egg labelling were adopted. From 2004 all eggs produced in the European Union and sold whole, have to be labelled according to their method of production (free range, barn or cages).

**Revised Directive on Pigs: 2001**

In June 2001, a new directive on the welfare of pigs was adopted, which will ban the use of individual sow stalls from 2012 and further limit the use of totally slatted floors in pig housing.

**World Trade Organisation: 1999**

The EU is leading the way with regards to animal welfare concerns in the WTO. Its negotiating paper, presented at Seattle, included animal welfare, which was included as a non-trade concern. The EU also presented a discussion paper on animal welfare to a Special Session of the Committee on Agriculture in Geneva.

**Battery Cages: 1999**

In June 1999, a new directive on the welfare of laying hens banned the use of the conventional battery cage from 2012.

**Antibiotics: 1999**

At the beginning of 1999, four antibiotics used as additives in animal feed were banned.

**Bovine Somatotropin: 1999**

A ban on the marketing and use of the milk hormone BST was introduced by the EU in 1990 and was extended indefinitely from 1999.

**Zoos: 1999**

In March 1999, a Directive on the Keeping of Wild Animals in Zoos was adopted by the Council of Ministers. This obliged Member States to introduce a system of licensing and inspection for zoos by 2002 and to ensure that zoos provide sufficient space for animals’ natural behaviour.

**Driftnets: 1992 and 1998**

The use of driftnets over 2.5 km long was banned in Community waters in 1992; furthermore, all Community vessels were banned from using them, everywhere in the world. In June 1998, EU Fisheries Ministers agreed a ban of all driftnets regardless of size by the end of 2001.

**EU Animal Welfare Protocol: 1997**

A Protocol on Animal Welfare was agreed that recognised animals as sentient beings. It also obliged all Member States to pay full regard to the welfare of animals when formulating and implementing Community policies on agriculture, research, transport and the internal market. This has subsequently been included in the proposed EU Constitution.
Some improvements were brought to the veal calf rearing system in 1991. In January 1997, the Directive was amended and it was agreed to ban individual crates by 1 January 1998 for new farms and by 31 December 2006 for all other farms.

Transport: 1995
On 22 June 1995, new standards on the transport of farm animals were agreed. Special vehicles need to be used for journeys exceeding eight hours. Feeding, watering and resting periods for different animals were also introduced.

Revised Slaughter Directive: 1993
This Directive included detailed rules for lairage, restraint of animals, pre-stunning and slaughter.

Leghold Traps: 1991
In 1991, the Council agreed to prohibit the use of leghold traps in the Community, from 1995.

Pigs Directive: 1991
In 1991, tethering of pigs was banned and some minor improvements were brought to pig welfare.

Laboratory Animals: 1986
A Directive on the Protection of animals used for research purposes, which was based on the Council of Europe’s Convention, was agreed by the Council in 1986.

Ban on Seal Products: 1983
The import into Member States of white-coated seal pup skins and products derived from them was first banned in 1983, renewed in 1985 and then permanently banned in 1989.

Whilst there is a multilateral convention covering endangered species (CITES), there is currently no international agreement covering animal welfare. International institutions think that an international agreement could be a potential solution to the World Trade Organisation problems. However, this would, at best, only be a partial solution as any international agreement would likely result in the adoption of extremely low standards – lowest common denominator. Then there is also the question of enforcement of any international agreement, due to the absence of any permanent international regulatory system for animal welfare.

Animal protection societies have pressed for an international agreement on animal welfare standards for many years. The leading initiative has been from WSPA, which believes that the first step is to secure a Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare at the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of the United Nations.

a) Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare
In March 2003, the Government of the Philippines hosted an intergovernmental conference in Manila that agreed the principles of a Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare. The proposed Declaration was agreed by the 22 government delegations that attended the conference. It recognises that “animals are living, sentient beings and therefore deserve due consideration and respect.” Its principles declare that animal welfare “shall be a common objective for all nations” and that “all appropriate steps shall be taken by nations to prevent cruelty to animals and to reduce their suffering.”
To take this initiative forward, a 5-nation steering committee is now being formed. Governments serving on this committee aim to secure wide governmental participation. A Universal Declaration accepted by the UN, based on the Manila text, would:

- Establish a global governmental vision for animal welfare based on an agreed set of principles
- Demonstrate that animal welfare is recognised as an issue of importance by the United Nations family and the international community
- Act as a catalyst for better animal welfare provisions worldwide.

This initiative should not be confused with the Universal Declaration of Animal Rights, which was proclaimed in Paris on 15 October 1978 at the UNESCO headquarters. It is a popular misperception that the United Nations General Assembly ratified this Declaration. The Declaration was simply agreed, by animal rights groups, within the UN building. Please visit http://league-animal-rights.org/en-duda.html for further information.

b) CITES Convention


CITES is an international treaty with 167 state parties, which came into force in July 1975. The overall aim of the convention is to ensure that international trade in specimens of wild flora and fauna does not threaten the survival of the species traded. Today, CITES accords varying degrees of protection to more than 30,000 species of animals and plants, whether they are traded as live specimens, fur coats or dried herbs.

The 167 countries that have joined CITES are known as Parties. Although CITES is legally binding on the Parties, that is they have to implement the Convention, it does not take the place of national laws. Rather it provides a framework to be respected by each Party, which has to adopt its own domestic legislation to ensure that CITES is implemented at the national level. It is important to remember that CITES is restricted to international trade regulation only and cannot stop hunting and consumption within a country.

The convention classifies species into three categories, according to the degree of protection they need:

- **Appendix I**: species threatened with extinction. International trade in specimens of these species is prohibited.
- **Appendix II**: species that could become threatened if trade is not strictly regulated. International trade in specimens of Appendix II species may be authorised by the granting of an export permit or re-export certificate; no import permit is necessary. Permits or certificates should only be granted if the relevant authorities are satisfied that certain conditions are met, above all that trade will not be detrimental to the survival of the species in the wild.
- **Appendix III**: Species protected by the state that nominates them and which is seeking assistance of other parties to control trade. International trade in specimens of species listed in this Appendix is allowed only on presentation of the appropriate permits or certificates.

c) The Ramsar Convention

www.ramsar.org/

The Convention on Wetlands, signed in Ramsar, Iran, in 1971, is an intergovernmental treaty that provides the framework for national action and international cooperation for the conservation and wise use of wetlands and their resources.

There are presently 146 Contracting Parties to the Convention, with 1458 wetland sites, totalling 120.5 million hectares, designated for inclusion in the Ramsar List of Wetlands of International Importance.
d) World Heritage Convention
The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 1972 aims to protect natural and cultural properties of outstanding universal value against the threat of damage in a rapidly developing world.

e) The Bonn Convention
www.cms.int/
The Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals 1979, also known as CMS or the Bonn Convention, aims to conserve terrestrial, marine and avian migratory species throughout their range. It is an intergovernmental treaty, concluded under the aegis of the United Nations Environment Programme. Since the Convention’s entry into force on 1 November 1983, its membership has grown steadily to include 91 Parties as of 1 July 2005.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
American Humane Association: legislative action
www.americanhumane.org/site/PageServer?pagename=ta_action_alerts

Animal Legal Defense Fund
www.aldf.org/

Animal Legal & Historical Center
www.animallaw.info/

ASPCA: legal information
www.aspca.org/site/PageServer?pagename=about_legal

Doris Day Animal League: legislative update
www.ddal.org/legislation/

Eurogroup for Animal Welfare
www.eurogroupanimalwelfare.org/

The European Commission
http://europa.eu.int/comm/index_en.htm

HSUS: Legislation References
www.hsus.org/ace/11581
Federal legislation

www.hsus.org/ace/702
State legislation

www.hsus.org/ace/12543
International policy

www.hsus.org/ace/11589
Citizen lobbyist centre
Institute for Animal Rights Law (IARL)
www.instituteforanimalrightslaw.org/

www.instituteforanimalrightslaw.org/download_statutes.htm
Selection of model statutes

The International Institute for Animal Law
www.animallawintl.org/

Net Vet: Veterinary Government and Law Resources
http://netvet.wustl.edu/law.htm

New Zealand Legislation

Rutgers University: Animal Rights Law Centre
www.animallaw.org/index.html

World Animal Net
http://worldanimal.net/protect.html
Animal protection law resources

http://worldanimal.net/constitution.htm
Constitution campaign

US lobbying resources
www.heartsandminds.org/links/lobbylinks.htm

Books
Animals and Their Legal Rights
Emily S. Leavitt
Publisher: Animal Welfare Institute
ISBN: 0686278127

Animals, Property and the Law
Gary L. Francione
Publisher: Temple University Press
ISBN: 1566392845

Animal Welfare in Europe: European Legislations and Concerns
David B. Wilkins (Editor)
Publisher: Kluwer Law International
ISBN: 9041106634

Animal Welfare Law in Britain: Regulation and Responsibility
Mike Radford
Publisher: Oxford University Press
ISBN: 0198262450
Animal Welfare Legislation in Canada and Germany
Christiane Meyer
Publisher: Peter Lang, Frankfurt, Germany
ISBN: 363130733-0
US ISBN: 0820432148

Animals, Politics and Morality
R. Garner
Publisher: Manchester University Press
ISBN: 0719035759

Basic Legal Documents on International Animal Welfare and Wildlife Conservation
Mark Austen (Editor), Tamara Richards (Editor)
Publisher: Kluwer Law International
ISBN: 904119780X

CITES: A Conservation Tool
A. Rosser, M. Haywood
Publisher: IUCN Species Survival Commission

Jon Hutton (Editor), Barnabas Dickson (Editor)
Publisher: Earthscan
ISBN: 1853836672

International Legal Protection of Wild Fauna and Flora
P. van Heijnsbergen
Publisher: IOS Press
ISBN: 9051993137

An Introduction to Animal Law
M. E. Cooper
Publisher: Academic Press
ISBN: 0121880303

Law Relating to Animals
S. Brooman, D. Legge
Publisher: Cavendish Publishing
ISBN: 1899412386

Political Animals: Animal Protection Politics in Britain and the United States
R. Garner
Publisher: Palgrave Macmillan
ISBN: 0333730003

Rattling the Cage: Breaking the Barriers to Legal Rights for Non-human Animals
Steven Wise
Publisher: Perseus Publishing
ISBN: 0738200654
CHAPTER 7

ANIMAL PROTECTION LEGISLATION

CIWF Resources

The WTO rules: a legal analysis of their adverse impact on animal welfare
Detailed report

WTO – the greatest threat facing animal protection today
Brochure

WSPA Resources

Updated 2005

Universal Declaration on Animal Welfare
2005
Humane education provides an opportunity for children and adults alike to develop a sense of awe and responsibility for the natural world, their environment and for the animals that share it.
CHAPTER 8
HUMANE EDUCATION

1. Introduction
2. Aims of Humane Education
3. The Violence Link
4. Humane Education in the National Curriculum
5. Delivering Humane Education
   a) Teaching Tools
   b) Teacher Training
   c) Training for Animal Vocations
   d) Non-formal Humane Education
6. Further Information
Humane education is a broad discipline that encompasses all forms of education about social justice and citizenship, environmental issues, the welfare of animals and their care. Humane education is unique in that it recognises the interdependence of all living things. Through humane education attitudes and critical thinking skills are developed in order to become more compassionate and respectful. Humane education provides an opportunity for children and adults alike to develop a sense of awe and responsibility for the natural world, their environment and for the animals that share it.

Humane education is not only about animal care – how to treat companion animals, keep them clean, free of parasites and disease and to prevent unwanted births etc. Humane education teaches about animals in terms of their sentience, emotions and intelligence. Yet it is even more than this: it is about children learning, through carefully crafted lessons and activities, how to empathise; to feel as animals probably feel. This whole process of empathy building is something that has positive spin-offs across society, as caring and compassion extend to people and the environment, as well as to animals.

The aim of humane education is to bring awareness of a wide range of concerns, and through this awareness to encourage the development of attitudes of empathy and compassion, responsibility and justice. The ultimate aim is the creation of a considerate and caring society. It is a means of introducing children to the emotions and reactions of animals, as well as linking this to an understanding of environmental issues and ecosystems. Humane education helps develop children’s attitudes and critical thinking skills in order to become more compassionate and respectful.

Humane education is about:
- Offering accurate information
- Encouraging the three Cs: Curiosity, Creativity and Critical thinking
- Instilling the 3Rs: Reverence, Respect and Responsibility
- Offering positive choices.

Humane education empowers children to make decisions and take action as responsible world citizens, helping the planet, animals and people in an appropriate and sustainable manner. Finally, Humane education is a positive force in the classroom, leaving both teacher and pupil inspired to become actively involved in activities that contribute to a better world.
have long been recognised as indicators of a dangerous psychopathic tendency. For example, Albert De Salvo, the notorious Boston Strangler, trapped dogs and cats, and shot arrows through the boxes in which they were confined (Fucini, 1978).

Animal abuse does not occur in isolation; rather, it takes place in a complex net of disturbed family relations. For example, animal abuse is frequently found in homes where child abuse and domestic violence are also present. In one national survey of American women seeking shelter from domestic violence in safe houses, 85% of the women with companion animals reported that their abusers had also hurt or threatened the family pet (Ascione, F. R. 1997). Children in such disturbed families who witness domestic violence or are victims themselves, are more likely to become animal abusers, imitating the violence they have seen or experienced. A study conducted in 1995 (Ascione, F. R. 1995) noted that 32% of the pet-owning victims of domestic abuse reported that one or more of their children had hurt or killed a pet.

Numerous psychological studies demonstrate a clear correlation between childhood cruelty to animals and later criminality, and in some cases, such acts were a precursor to child abuse. Some of these reports were commissioned by animal protection societies in an attempt to convince government authorities of the seriousness of animal cruelty. One such study is the Kellert-Felthous study on ‘Childhood Cruelty Towards Animals among Criminals and Noncriminals’ (1985), which was sponsored by WSPA.

The Kellert-Felthous study, in addition to confirming a strong correlation between childhood cruelty to animals and future antisocial and aggressive behaviour, stressed the need for researchers, clinicians and societal leaders to be alert to the importance of childhood animal cruelty. It suggested that the evolution of a more gentle and benign relationship in human society might be enhanced by our promotion of a more positive and nurturing ethic between children and animals.

In addition, the landmark book, *Child Abuse, Domestic Violence and Animal Abuse: Linking the Circles of Compassion for Prevention and Intervention*, argues compellingly that violence-prevention programmes are enhanced by including animal protection personnel and by recognizing animal maltreatment as a human welfare issue. The book is an historic step in helping professionals recognize their interconnectedness and in encouraging cross-disciplinary training, prevention and intervention.

> “CHILDREN TRAINED TO EXTEND JUSTICE, KINDNESS AND MERCY TO ANIMALS BECOME MORE JUST, KIND AND CONSIDERATE IN THEIR RELATIONS TO ONE ANOTHER. CHARACTER TRAINING ALONG THESE LINES IN YOUTHS WILL RESULT IN MEN AND WOMEN OF BROADER SYMPATHIES: MORE HUMANE, MORE LAW-ABIDING – IN EVERY RESPECT MORE VALUABLE – CITIZENS.” - 1993 US National Parent-Teacher Association Congress

Teaching students to have empathy for other beings is essential to raising kind, compassionate citizens. Humane education is needed to develop an enlightened society that has empathy and respect for life, thus breaking the cycle of abuse.

A number of NGOs are raising awareness about the link between animal cruelty and violence, including: the HSUS, which launched First Strike Campaign; the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) and the RSPCA, which hosted a ‘Making the Links’ conference; and the PETA Research and Education Foundation, which has produced a booklet on the violence link, for prosecutors, police officers, magistrates and judges.
Humane education can be delivered in a number of ways, including non-formal methods such as campaigning, or the more obvious and more formal approach used in schools.

The most successful way of promoting humane education in schools is to establish a coherent, broad-ranging programme as part of the National Curriculum in a structure that consolidates social, environmental and animal protection topics.

Humane education has an essential role to play in providing the moral education desirable in developing children into considerate, responsible adults. Although most governments would acknowledge the importance of a moral dimension to education, few put into practice any real mechanisms to ensure this is actually delivered.

Ideally, humane education in the classroom should incorporate an exploration of human, animal and environmental issues, with the aim of teaching children a personal sense of responsibility and a compassionate attitude towards each other, to animals and to the environment. This type of education encourages consideration of different issues, including:

- Thinking about others, including animals, and their needs, feelings and propensity for suffering
- Thinking about the effects of your actions on others
- Thinking about the world and your place within it.

Humane education as part of the curriculum should encompass lessons such as environmental awareness, citizen education and animal protection. An important part of the process of getting humane education formally built into the education system is the development of consolidated course materials covering all of these areas. Commitment to humane education is often a big strength within animal protection societies and there are excellent and plentiful materials already available in this area to be used as a basis for animal welfare course modules.

Until humane education is given a place of its own in the National Curriculum, there is scope for its introduction through other foundation subjects such as English or Science. However the best results in this field have been achieved through a dedicated place in the curriculum, with official support for teacher training development and course materials.

"WHY IS COMPASSION NOT PART OF OUR ESTABLISHED CURRICULUM, AN INHERENT PART OF OUR EDUCATION? COMPASSION, AWE, WONDER, CURIOSITY, EXALTATION, HUMILITY – THESE ARE THE EVERY FOUNDATION OF ANY REAL CIVILISATION, NO LONGER THE PREROGATIVES OF ANY ONE CHURCH, BUT BELONGING TO EVERYONE, EVERY CHILD IN EVERY HOME, IN EVERY SCHOOL." -Yehudi Menuhin
This section outlines some of the teaching tools available in formal school-based humane education, as well as teacher training methods, the importance of training for animal vocations and some approaches to non-formal humane education.

**a) Teaching Tools**

Animal protection societies can develop their own or adapt existing materials.

*Traditional teachers’ workbooks:* workbooks are useful especially if they are loose-leaf, with lesson sheets that can be photocopied for children.

*Posters for schools:* Posters could be simple, showing one animal, or complex, demonstrating links between several topics, and they could be used in various educational activities, such as question and answer sessions, in language and arts classes, or in educational games.

*Colouring sheets:* Colouring sheets can be used for younger children (roughly aged 3-8) in school settings, at home, or in other informal education settings.

*Humane education competitions:* Humane education competitions are an excellent way of encouraging teachers to introduce humane education in their classes and to awaken the interest and involvement of pupils in humane principles. Competitions can cover a number of areas: essay-writing, letter-writing, painting, designing a T-shirt, poetry composition and cartoon drawing.

The key is to develop creative and imaginative titles for the competition categories. Teachers need to be encouraged to persuade their classes to take part too, perhaps by a teacher award. Prizes are often donated and media coverage can be achieved; spreading both the animal protection message and the organisation's name and reputation.

A note of care should be included though, as not every child is gifted or talented and may feel left out of the creative process, and it makes it harder for them if they care a lot about animals. Competition may be threatening to them, while humane education is in fact about values such as cooperation and interdependence, which reduce competition. Some competitions are good, but there should be plenty of other humane education activities that encourage group or team work, or, in case individual assignments are carried out, subjective assessments should be made, including positive feedback for every child.

*Other:* A number of other methods can be employed, including classroom discussions, schoolyard exploration, visits to shelters and farms, studying texts, researching the internet etc. There are a number of useful handbooks on humane education methods, for example *Earthkind* by David Selby (1995).

**b) Teacher Training**

As well as providing resource materials, animal protection societies with professional education staff can carry out teacher training at teachers’ workshops and assist in the development of animal kindness clubs in schools.

There are many different approaches to initiate teacher training. But before new initiatives are developed, it is strongly recommended to liaise with organisations already carrying out humane education and with local and national education departments.
Resource materials for the purpose of teacher training workshops may be available, which can be used or adapted to the local situation. However, in some cases, it is necessary to put in more work by commissioning local teachers for example, to ensure that materials correctly target the national system, circumstances and audiences.

c) Training for Animal Vocations

It is equally important that animal protection organisations campaign for animal protection to be an essential part of the training for anyone planning to work with animals, such as apprentice stockmen, slaughter-men, animal wardens, veterinarians etc.

Animal protection training for veterinarians is especially important because of their future potential for spreading the welfare message and promoting good practice. In some countries, veterinarians and other animal professionals are still completing their training without any real understanding of animal ethics and welfare. To address this issue, WSPA launched the ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ syllabus in 2000.

CONCEPTS IN ANIMAL WELFARE

WSPA realised the importance of veterinarians in improving animal welfare and launched its ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ syllabus in 2000 to promote the introduction of animal welfare teaching into veterinarian curricula. Encouraged by the response to this initiative, WSPA developed the programme further with the University of Bristol in 2003. The resource consists of 30 teaching modules covering a wide range of animal welfare topics. Workshops were organised to present the modules to deans and lecturers of veterinary faculties in a number of countries, with very positive results.

SOME SUCCESSES INCLUDE:

- **PHILIPPINES**: Following workshops in 2003 and 2005, a steering committee was formed, which decided to adapt certain modules of ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ and include them within existing subjects of the veterinary curriculum

- **INDONESIA**: Following workshops in 2003 and 2004, certain modules are translated and will be included into the veterinary curriculum

- **MEXICO**: Following induction training for the Mexican Association of Veterinary Faculties, one university decided to set up a ‘Centre of Excellence’, which will promote the implementation of animal welfare subjects in the veterinary curriculum in three regions

- **COLOMBIA**: Further to the Ministry’s decision to make animal welfare compulsory in 14 universities, certain modules have been adapted and are being included in the veterinary curriculum

- **BRAZIL**: The majority of universities are looking to implement animal welfare into the veterinarian curriculum as a result of very positive feedback from workshops and case studies organised by WSPA

- **SOUTH AFRICA**: The University of Pretoria has adopted 90% of the contents of the ‘Concepts in Animal Welfare’ syllabus in a separate animal welfare course in their veterinary curriculum.
d) Non-formal Humane Education
As mentioned previously, humane education is not restricted to formal classroom teaching; it can also be delivered in an informal manner.

Non-formal humane education embraces any method of delivering information, which provokes thought and brings awareness – two essential components of the education process. Public opinion has immeasurable force and can be harnessed in numerous ways, including:

- Media campaigns
- Television documentaries, advertisements, news items, plays, debate etc.
- Videos, books, magazines, newspaper articles
- T-shirts
- Posters
- Leaflets, information packs
- Awareness events such as exhibitions, open days
- Demonstrations
- Labelling on products

“TEACHING A CHILD NOT TO STEP ON A CATERPILLAR IS AS VALUABLE TO THE CHILD AS IT IS TO THE CATERPILLAR.” ~ Bradley Millar

THE WSPA INTERNATIONAL ANIMAL WELFARE EDUCATION (‘IN AWE’) PROGRAMME

WSPA has developed the ‘IN AWE’ Global Programme for Humane Education, aimed at children aged 5-16. ‘IN AWE’ aims to bring together existing educational materials into a framework that can be adapted as needed and implemented into school systems around the world.

The ‘IN AWE’ programme also aims to establish lasting contacts with governments, teacher training institutes, teachers and other NGOs and relevant organisations.

The ‘IN AWE’ programme consists of a network of partners, professionally supported teaching units and guidelines for professional support for teachers. Pilot projects will be carried out in 4 countries in 2006, after which WSPA will evaluate whether the programme can be extended to other areas with more partners.
Websites

ASPCA
www.aspca.org/site/PageServer?pagename=al_home
Includes a list of humane education resources and a link to the ASPCA's children's website: Animaland.org

Canadian Federation of Humane Societies
www.cfhs.ca/teachers/animals_eh/
Online Humane Educator Newsletters from 1996-2004 and information just for kids and for teachers.

The Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/hsus_field/first_strike_the_connection_between_animal_cruelty_and_human_violence/.
Information about the First Strike Campaign, which raises public and professional awareness about the connection between animal cruelty and human violence.

The International Institute for Humane Education (IIHED)
www.iihed.org/
The IIHED is a non-profit, educational organisation dedicated to creating a humane world through humane education. It has been training humane educators and promoting comprehensive humane education since 1996 and offers Master’s Degrees in Humane Education.

The Latham Foundation for the Promotion of Humane Education
www.latham.org/
A clearinghouse for information about: humane issues and activities; the human companion animal bond (HCAB); animal-assisted therapy; the connections between child and animal abuse and other forms of violence.

National Association for Humane and Environmental Education (NAHEE)
www.nahee.org/
NAHEE serves as the youth education affiliate of The Humane Society of the United States (HSUS). NAHEE is a non-profit organisation, whose mission is to instil good character in children, with a strong emphasis on the humane treatment of animals and respect for natural habitats, by providing effective, high quality publications and programmes to teachers, students and animal sheltering professionals. NAHEE’s many offerings include KIND News, an award-winning classroom newspaper for elementary-school children, study/activity guides for teens and Teach Kids to Care professional development workshops for animal care and control personnel.

Society and Animals Forum
www.psyeta.org/
Formerly named PSYETA, the Society and Animals Forum has recently merged with the Institute for Animals and Society and they are now called the Animals and Society Institute. The web site includes some interesting general information. It also contains a video and resources on the link between violence against animals and violence against humans.

World Animal Net
http://worldanimal.net/humane-ed.html
Humane education section with resources and background information.
Information about Humane Education in Tertiary Education
Association of Veterinarians for Animal Rights (AVAR)
www.avar.org
AVAR provides information for students and practising veterinarians on animal welfare and rights issues, including an alternatives in education database.

European Resource Centre for Alternatives in higher education (EURCA)
www.eurca.org
EURCA actively promotes the use of alternatives to using animals in higher education.

InterNICHE
www.interniche.org/
InterNICHE is an international network for humane education. It works towards fully humane education in biological science, veterinary and human medicine. InterNICHE supports progressive science teaching and the replacement of animal experiments by working with teachers to introduce alternatives, and with students to support freedom of conscience. InterNICHE focuses mainly on tertiary education.

Learning without killing
www.learningwithoutkilling.info
This website provides students with easy access to the resources they most need to win their campaigns for humane alternatives to animal experiments.

Norwegian Inventory of Alternatives (NORINA)
http://oslovet.veths.no/NORINA/
The NORINA database is the largest database of alternatives to animal use in education for primary, secondary and tertiary level.

Humane Education Programmes Online
Share the World
www.sharetheworld.com/
A free humane education programme designed to help students better understand and appreciate the animals with whom we share our world. In the reproducible activities that form the heart of this programme, students use their thinking and writing skills to imagine the feelings and consider the incredible abilities of other animals, examine how our relationships with them have changed through history, discover alternatives to their use, and respond to situations in which their well-being is threatened.

TeachKind
www.teachkind.com/
TeachKind is the education programme of People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals which provides free high-quality lesson plans and materials that will help students develop critical thinking skills, empathy, compassion, and civic responsibility while empowering them to take compassionate action for animals in their own communities.

Books
Animals in Higher Education: Problems, Alternatives and Recommendations
J. Balcombe
Publisher: Humane Society Press
ISBN: 0965894215
Child Abuse, Domestic Violence and Animal Abuse:
Linking the Circles of Compassion for Prevention and Intervention
Frank R. Ascione, Ph.D. and Phil Arkow (Editors)
Sponsored by the Latham Foundation
Publisher: Purdue University Press
ISBN: 1557531420
This landmark book is a compilation of 45 original essays by 51 noted authorities. It includes original research, strategic interventions and dramatic tales from survivors of multiple forms of family violence and brings together useful research in this area and charts some actions already being taken to address this problem.

Earthkind: a Teacher’s Handbook on Humane Education.
Publisher: Trentham Books Limited, Selby D (1995)
ISBN: 0948080884

A Guide to Humane Education in the Foundation Phase – Rekindling the Spirit of Care and Respect for Life
The Humane Education Trust, Somerset West, South Africa.
Anon (2005)

Humane Education Guidebook
Federated Humane Societies of Pennsylvania, Bensalem, USA
Anon (2005)

Reports


Videos
The Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour (ASAB)
www.societies.ncl.ac.uk/asab/products.html
ASAB has the following excellent videos which can be used to great effect by animal protection societies. They are accepted for their scientific value, but also impart key humane educational messages:

Let’s Ask The Animals
An excellent video for primary school children (aged 7-13) designed for use in science classes. Shows links between humans and animals in life processes and gives new perspectives on farm animals. Enhances understanding of animals and their lives and motivations.

Stimulus Response
An excellent teaching video for secondary school science classes (ages 14-19). It shows how animals perceive stimuli, demonstrating remarkable receptors, have the ability to learn (from videos too) and how they respond to the stimuli of their environment. Enhances understanding of animal behaviour and responses.

Animal Protection Society Resources
American Humane Association (AHA)
Website: www.americanhumane.org
AHA produces educational videos, lesson plans and activities, handouts and reproducibles, including a teacher’s pack of almost 50 lessons and activities.
American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (ASPCA)
Website: www.aspca.org
ASPCA makes available a number of educational resources, including a Web of Life Resource Kit, divided into two age-groups: kindergarten to grade 3 and grades 4 to 6.

Canadian Federation of Humane Societies
Website: www.cfhs.ca
This federation produces thoughtful, well-written material, including useful practical guidelines on Humane Education in Schools and curriculum materials.

Compassion in World Farming Trust
Website: www.ciwf.org/
CIWF has videos, books, reports, slide sets and education packs, catering for Key Stage 2, through secondary school up to veterinary and agriculture students.

The Humane Education Trust (HET)
Website: www.animal-voice.org/
The Humane Education Trust has a selection of educational resources, including workbooks and videos, adapted for the African situation.

The Humane Society of the United States (HSUS)
Website: www.hsus.org
HSUS has a publications catalogue covering every aspect of animal welfare, including extensive material on humane education via their affiliated society, the National Association for Humane and Environmental Education (NAHEE). Publications include:
First Strike: an excellent resource on the link between animal cruelty and criminality. The importance of this area is attracting well-deserved attention.
KIND News (‘Kids in Nature’s Defence’) a monthly newspaper
KIND worksheet packets
KIND workshop leader’s guide.

The Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (RSPCA)
Website: www.rspca.org.uk
RSPCA has a range of educational publications and online resources for primary and secondary schools.

World Society for the Protection of Animals (WSPA)
Website: www.wspa-international.org/
WSPA produces a wide range of educational materials, including:
Ark of Noah: booklet and CD with songs in English and French (and 1 Spanish song), which can be used in literacy.
JeanPaul Steiger (2004)
Caring for Animals – A Teachers’ Manual: for children aged 7-12. The manual is being revised in 2005. PDF files of all chapters can be downloaded from: www.wspa-international.org
The IN AWE Programme: although no ‘global’ syllabus is available, the IN AWE Programme provides an integrated approach to humane education, in which WSPA works with partners to achieve the goals.
Training Courses and Education

The American Humane Association (AHA)
www.americanhumane.org/site/PageServer?pagename=pa_shelter_services
The AHA runs training courses and includes workshops at its annual meeting.

ASPCA
www.aspca.org/site/PageServer?pagename=pro_shelteroutreach
The ASPCA runs a range of courses in the USA on Management, Shelter Operations, Community Outreach, Cruelty Investigations, For Vets and Technicians, Humane Legislation.

Cambridge E-learning Institute (CEI)
www.cambridge-elearning.com/
www.animal-info.net/edu.htm
Cambridge E-learning Institute (CEI) has developed an online course in animal welfare. The postgraduate course introduces students to the main concepts of animal welfare science through readings and online discussions between students and tutors.

The Ethological Institute
www.etologi.dk/welcome.htm
The Ethological Institute provides animal behaviour and distance learning courses.

HSUS
www.hsus.org
The annual Animal Care Expo is an excellent educational and training opportunity for those involved in animal sheltering and control and humane education worldwide. Expo consists of three and a half days of plenary sessions and workshops on topics ranging from adoption programmes to fundraising to wildlife issues. There is also a full-scale trade show where societies will find the latest in materials and equipment.

The Institute for Animals and Society
www.animalsandsociety.org/
Think-tank carrying out education and training, including a course on Animals and Society that examines the moral and legal status of animals in contemporary society.

RSPCA
www.rspca.org.uk
The Society's international training programme ranges from a single consultation for a developing animal welfare group, to residential courses for foreign government officials, welfare groups and teachers.

WSPA
www.wspa-international.org/
WSPA carries out training and workshops for member societies and veterinary faculty members.
Campaigning is a motivational exercise. It narrows the focus of attention in order to get people to do something that leads to change.
CHAPTER 9
CAMPAIGNING

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CHAPTER 9

CAMPAIGNING

Campaigning is not education, nor is it advertising. Campaigning is a motivational exercise. It narrows the focus of attention in order to get people to do something that leads to change.

Campaigning is an essential tool for tackling the root causes of animal cruelty; it is instrumental in persuading governments to introduce animal protection laws, urging companies to adopt ethical principles, or alerting consumers of products that have been cruelly produced.

Experience shows that for a campaign to really make an impact on people’s lives, much more is needed than simple media and communication techniques. You have to take people beyond ‘awareness’, to create a sense of urgency and need for change, and to help them to visualise a new future and to feel empowered to play a part in the movement for change. In short, you need to engage them.

The seven-stage model for engagement is:

1. **Ignorance**: Lack of awareness of the problem is the starting point for all.
2. **Knowledge/Awareness**: Raise awareness of the problem and the solution.
3. **Motivation/Stimulation**: Stimulate an emotional reaction to the problem, generating empathy and a personal desire to help.
4. **Skills/Resources**: Empower people to act by providing them with the necessary skills. The best way to do this is to break the actions of a campaign down into simple steps and illustrate the ideas using pictures or diagrams. This will help people envisage what they could do. An action pack is a good way of doing this.
5. **Optimism/Confidence**: Cultivate optimism and give people the belief that success is attainable.
6. **Facilitation**: Make the actions as simple as possible and remember that the more help people receive along the way, the more likely it is for them to assist you.
7. **Reinforcement**: Remember the importance of praise and thanks; they are vital to maintaining support.

Understanding this model is essential to the development of an effective campaign.

FOCUSING YOUR CAMPAIGN

The start of the campaign must involve defining the problem and focusing efforts towards its resolution.

Focus means gathering and using resources, including time and money, for the achievement of key targets. Focus is central to the success of any campaign.
To ensure focus, there are four key questions you should answer before starting any campaign:

- **What is the problem?** You should clearly define the problem you seek to resolve.
- **Who do you seek to influence?** Identifying the person or people who have the power to make the change you seek to implement is key to running a successful campaign. All too often campaigners carry on with a campaign without understanding who they need to influence in order to achieve the change they seek.
- **What is your message?** Your message should be simple and clear. Campaigns often try to pack a message with too much information. In a world where people are constantly being flooded with all kinds of communications, your message needs to be easy for people to remember and understand.
- **What is your pathway to change?** Before you begin, it is important to lay out a route you are going to take to implement the change you seek to make. Campaigners often make the mistake of leaving the route up to pure opportunity. It is very important to plan the path of your campaign, much as you would when driving to a new destination.

How to answer these questions will be elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

**a) Decide on the Issue**

This is not a simple choice, as it is based not only on the issues involved and their likelihood of success in terms of political or consumer campaigning, but also on a wide range of organisational factors for example people and resources and external factors (political, societal, economic, environmental, technological etc.).

The aim is to identify the issue that would make best use of your organisation’s resources towards ensuring the maximum improvement for the plight of animals.

Some of the criteria that can be used for choosing a campaign include:

- Level of animal suffering; numbers, severity and duration of suffering
- Political campaign’s likelihood of success
- Consumer campaign’s likelihood of success
- Media success
- Fundraising potential
- Supporter recruitment or retention
- Whether other groups are already working on the issue.

It is of utmost importance to recognise that we simply cannot cover all areas of animal cruelty at the same time. You must decide what your PRIORITY issue will be.

Some campaigns may not appear to be fundamental to the organisation’s key aims, but may be winnable and effective in bringing attention and support to the wider issues. An example in the animal experimentation field is testing of cosmetics on animals, where a phased ban has now been won throughout Europe. This campaign was also vital as a gateway campaign, increasing awareness of animal experimentation issues in general.

**b) Set Campaign Position and Objective**

Once you have decided which campaign to pursue, the next step is to set the organisation’s position on the matter and the campaign’s objective.

A position is a statement of belief, such as:

**WSPA advocates that methods used at all stages of farm animal husbandry must be developed so as to preclude avoidable suffering. Farmed animals must be provided with shelter, exercise, food, water and care in a manner appropriate to their physiological and behavioural needs. WSPA is opposed to any methods of husbandry, which do not fulfil these criteria.**
Setting the position is important because it communicates clearly where the parameters of the campaign are when setting the objective. So in the case above, the campaign objective cannot be to turn people vegetarian, because this would not be in line with the position. It is important to set this from the beginning to avoid misunderstandings later on down the campaign.

The objective should be guided by the position.

Your campaign objective should also be SMART:
- Specific
- Measurable
- Achievable
- Relevant
- Targeted

c) Identify the Key Decision Maker
The next, and possibly most important, step in a campaign is identifying who has the power to implement the change you seek. It’s the campaigner’s job to find out who makes the decision and what influences them. Research is critical to finding this out. You may need to look at the history of the subject, the political bills that have been passed on the matter and other general information to identify who has the power.

In understanding what influences that ‘power person’, you will need to look beyond just the issue you are campaigning on. What are his or her political interests? Is he or she seeking re-election and how can you use this to your advantage? It comes as a surprise to many campaigners that it is often middle managers that make many key political decisions, rather than heads. So for example, rather that targeting the head of state, you may find you actually need to influence his or her senior civil servants or advisors.

Additionally, you need to understand the legislative process in order to implement changes. How long does the process take? Are there key times when legislation is reviewed? How does passing new legislation work? Who is consulted when a political decision is made?

One of the key tools used for identifying the key decision maker and what influences him or her is the ‘power pyramid’. At the top of the pyramid you place the person who has the power to make the change you are seeking to implement. Underneath you place all the people, usually in order of importance, that influence the person’s decision making. Technical advisors, for instance, can be great allies; they are respected specialists that can prepare our arguments in a sound and reasonable manner, making it difficult for politicians to dismiss or overlook the campaign. At the bottom of each power pyramid is usually the public. An example is given below.
Beware of focusing too much energy and resources on the public. As stated earlier, campaigning is not education and it is not advertising. Many campaigners make the mistake of simply holding events targeted at the public, yet do not harness their contact with the public into a result that will reach the ‘power person’.

Many campaigners also presume that by generating media coverage or having adverts aimed at the public that they are campaigning successfully. Campaigners must harness the public to influence key decision-making, not just make contact with the public.

Before conducting any public event for a campaign you should ask yourself, will this help to influence the person or body that has the power to make the change I am seeking? Will this help me achieve my objective?

REMAIN FOCUSED ON THE PEAK OF YOUR POWER PYRAMID.

d) Campaign Message

The following are some general rules that should be kept in mind whilst developing a campaign message:

- Work out your target audiences and aim your message at them
- Keep your message clear and simple, but biting
- Place the important points first
- Ensure your message is consistent throughout the campaign
- Decide on the tone and style of the message at the beginning of the campaign and stick to it
- Use symbols where possible, as this will help people remember your campaign message
- Communicate in pictures, where possible. One picture is worth a thousand words
- Include an action component in the message.

You may also want to decide whether you will have an insider or outsider approach from the beginning, as this will influence your message. You will find that the approach will depend on both the issue and the culture you are working in:

- **An ‘insider approach’** means working with your target to influence change.
- **An ‘outsider approach’** means putting strong critical pressure on your target to influence change.

CAMPAIGN STRATEGY

“IF YOU DON’T KNOW WHERE YOU’RE GOING, YOU ARE SURE TO END UP SOMEWHERE ELSE.”

Simply put, strategy is about deciding how to approach the ‘power person’. It involves choosing a specific course of action, based on available information and resources, which will be the most effective in achieving identified aims.

Successful campaigns include both a strategically planned path and the ability to take advantage of key opportunities along the way. There is sometimes a tension between planning and opportunity taking; proactivity and reactivity. There are two main ways of helping the process:

- When charting the campaign course, ensure that time and resources are allocated for meeting any important opportunities along the way.
- Always have the big picture in mind and judge any emerging opportunities against this.
It is important for a campaign to have both a final goal and interim steps along the way. This helps to build towards the final goal and to provide motivational high points to inspire and maintain interest.

Milestones are important to set before you begin a campaign in order to help measure your progress and success. These may vary and may be of different natures such as:

- **Political:** significant bills passed, meetings secured or supportive letters from politicians received, having a declaration made by key decision makers
- **Public:** a shift in public opinion indicated by a poll, number of postcards or petition signatures
- **Media:** celebrity endorsement, number of articles/interviews, how many readers/viewers did you reach, how much would this have cost if you had had to pay for equivalent adverts
- **International development:** new partnerships gained
- **Fundraising:** significant money raised or set number of supporters increased

A campaign involves a deliberate series of revelations or communication exercises to take the audience from a state of ignorance, through interest and then concern (components of awareness), into anger and engagement (motivation), and finally into a state of satisfaction or reward. If that happens, the campaign participants or supporters will be ready for more.

Remember to take one step at a time. Stick at each stage until it is achieved. Each stage is a target or objective in itself. For example, you may need to get a critical level of awareness about the existence of a problem, or the buy-in of a certain number of decision makers, before you can move on.

For further information, please refer to the separate chapter on ‘Strategy’, which equally applies to a campaign strategy.

### MAIN ELEMENTS OF A CAMPAIGN

The following are considered to be the main elements of a campaign:

- **Research:** the essential bedrock
- **Investigation:** exposing cruelty, it is vital to do this before the whistle is blown!
- **Materials:** leaflets, reports, videos etc.
- **Tactics:** developing a tool-kit of tactics, actions etc.
- **Media and communications:** mass media targeted for maximum impact and awareness, reaching the masses as well as the converted
- **Lobbying:** either political or corporate
- **Timing.**

Each topic will be elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

#### a) Research

*“OPINION IS FREE, FACTS ARE SACRED.”* - CP Scott

Research helps give campaigns credibility. It can do this in a variety of ways, from measuring how many supporters there are for a campaign, through an opinion poll for example, to deploying hard facts that can back up the campaign.

Quantitative research includes statistical techniques, surveys, market research and experimental techniques. This type of research can be useful to illustrate the scale of problem or when you want
to generalise about an issue or sector, such as consumers, voters and the public. Qualitative research includes views, opinions and beliefs. This is useful for softer aspects, which are difficult to quantify, such as focus groups.

Crucially, politicians can learn to trust an organisation if the organisation continually provides reliable information to help inform decisions. Equally important however is that if you provide incorrect information, a politician is unlikely to forget or forgive very soon, especially if you have made them look poorly informed in front of the media or with colleagues.

Research defined specifically for campaigns is often called ‘action research’.

**Action research:**
- Adds factual weight to an argument
- Enables a campaigner to monitor what is going on and provides intelligence about the opposition
- Builds confidence by establishing not just whether the campaign is right but why it is right
- Should have a scientific approach in order to survive scrutiny
- Should have results that are meaningful to the average person.

**b) Investigation**
Investigations should also be objective-led. You should know what you are seeking to expose and how it will help you further achieve your objective before you embark on the investigation. Some campaigners spend considerable time and money simply doing exposés and media splashes; however, if they are not linked to your objective, campaigners may find the problem they are trying to solve is unaffected by their investigative work.

**Investigations can:**
- Document, through video or photographic evidence and eyewitness accounts, precisely how animals are treated
- Uncover evidence that laws and regulations on animal welfare are being broken
- Provide investigative material to fuel campaigns
- Provide investigative material to be used as evidence to lobby for changes in legislation to improve animal welfare.

**A good investigation requires a variety of skills:**
- Understanding of how the investigation fits into the overall campaign strategy
- Filming and photography
- Interrogation (questioning)
- Compilation and assessment of data
- Good record keeping
- Familiarity with and understanding of the subject
- Knowledge and understanding of the relevant legislation
- Flexibility and clear-headedness.

**Every investigation is unique but the following are some key points to consider:**

**Filming techniques:**
- Keep the camera steady, this is the golden rule
- Be familiar with the controls and limitations of the camera
- Write and memorise a list of shots and sequences you require
- Never set the date option on the video
- Hold each shot for at least 20 seconds. This is difficult
- Try not to zoom in and out, it makes for uneasy viewing
- Try not to talk over your footage unless absolutely necessary
- Understand and use lighting.
CASE STUDY: ANIMALS AUSTRALIA CAMPAIGN AGAINST LIVE EXPORTS

Animals Australia and collaborating groups such as CIWF (Compassion in World Farming), PACAT (People Against Cruelty in Animal Transport) and Animal Liberation New South Wales developed a major campaign to step up the pressure against live exports from Australia. Investigations were to form a major part of this campaign in order to dispel industry claims that gave false confidence in the welfare record of live exports. Animals Australia’s strategy began with collaboration on a major investigative documentary programme to expose the horrors of the trade. After this, it used a combination of excellent media work and further investigations to fuel the campaign. This included:

AUGUST 2003: THE CORMO EXPRESS
This sheep shipment was rejected by Saudi authorities who claimed that some of the animals were diseased. The ship floated around, with increasing casualties, until it was finally accepted by the East African nation of Eritrea as food aid from the Australian Government. After almost 11 weeks at sea the official death toll was 5,692 animals (9.8%). Reports reached CIWF that the sheep were being offloaded and taken to a holding area about 58 km from the port of Massawa. CIWF immediately sent two observers, one a veterinarian and both well experienced in regional animal welfare problems, to gauge the situation. The observers were denied permission to speak with veterinary personnel, but were able to observe the sheep unloading. They were reported to be very dirty looking and very stressed in the heat and humidity of the port. One who boarded the ship reported many animals dead on arrival and a foul smell, which he attributed to the dead animals. This report differed greatly from the official version, and Animals Australia was able to gain more media attention about the horrors of the trade and the disaster.

KUWAIT 2003
In November-December 2003 investigators from CIWF and Animals Australia followed the fate of more than 100,000 sheep recently exported from Fremantle (Western Australia) to the Middle East on board the livestock vessel Al Kuwait, from unloading to slaughter. They saw dead, dying, blind and sick sheep on board and being unloaded in Shuweikh Port, Kuwait City. According to a crew member, around 1,000 sheep had died prior to arrival and more dead animals were found in pens on the ship as unloading took place. The vessel still had to travel to two further ports to unload sheep so more animals were destined to die.

The investigation team also filmed the handling and slaughter of Australian sheep. This is extremely distressing and has not yet been made public.

Animals Australia has provided an extensive file of evidence to the Fremantle Police to support an investigation into an alleged breach of the new Western Australian Animal Welfare Act, and it continues to do so for other similar shipments.

Investigations have played a major part in the Animals Australia campaign and added enormously to media coverage, public awareness, and enforcement and prosecution possibilities.
Covert investigations follow the same principles with regard to filming techniques, but they can be much more difficult. In particular, remember:

- Covert cameras are prone to malfunctioning, practice as much as possible beforehand
- The lens is the size of a pinhead, so light is more critical
- Get close
- Check the camera position
- Do not show off your camera.

You should always try to film openly. However, if you will not be allowed to film openly, then covert filming may be the only way, in which case plan it meticulously, practice and remember to:

- Cover your identity; become familiar with your new persona and practice beforehand
- Stick to your cover story
- Structure your questions to build a picture
- Keep a diary
- Remember rules of evidence
- Put safety first
- Check privacy and data protection legislation.

Assessing evidence:

- Determine what your evidence actually proves
- Don't release material until you have proved your point
- Don't simply release material just because you have it
- If the investigation is unsuccessful, consider repeating it
- Establish how the evidence can best be used to change the situation for animals: in negotiation, prosecution, lobbying, campaigning or for media purposes.

Video footage can be used in the following ways:

- Supplied to local, national and international media
- For videos, photographs, publications, news, or magazine articles etc.
- For legal or advocacy purposes e.g. lawmakers, enforcement authorities, courts etc.

c) Campaign Materials

Various campaign materials can be used, depending on the desired outcome.

These could include:
- Action packs: to enable activists to play an active part in the campaign
- Educational packs
- Reports: fully researched, with all the background facts
- Campaign leaflets
- Campaign videos
- Flyers: listing all campaign resources
- Fact sheets
- FAQs: answers to most frequently asked questions
- Posters
- Postcards
- Petitions
- Stickers for cars, lorries, windows etc.
- Campaign badges
- Campaign calendars
- Campaign T-shirts
- Campaign merchandise, a symbolic toy for example
- Campaign mouse mats
- Campaign mugs
Campaign tea towels
Educational packs
Photos, for magazines, newspapers etc. (photo CD for example).

International organisations can help collaborating societies and contacts by making generic versions for translation and use in various countries. Campaign materials bearing the logos of a large collection of collaborating societies can be most effective, showing the strength and out-reach of the campaign.

d) Tactics
Devising your tactics tool-kit

TACTICS ARE THE EVENTS, ACTIVITIES AND COMMUNICATIONS USED TO INFLUENCE THE KEY DECISION MAKER.

In devising the toolkit of tactics for the campaign, always bear in mind:
• The target audience: the tool-kit must be appropriate
• Your opponents: they will often give the best clues on what activities are needed, by highlighting the main objections, enabling you to devise arguments and activities that counter these objections
• Whether the campaign is to use an insider or outsider approach
• Accompanying lobbying tactics: understanding power politics and planning a path of greatest influence.

Example of a tactics tool-kit:
• Meetings with the relevant Minister
• Lobbying letters
• Staged events with humans depicting the animal issue
• Demonstrations
• National opinion polls
• Protest marches
• Public meetings
• Media stunts
• Picketing: effective where consumers are made aware
• Sit-ins: passive resistance
• Displays and exhibitions e.g. at trade fairs for controversy and media exposure
• Street information stalls
• Product dump: a good example was fur coat burning, ‘throw out your dead’
• Advertising: posters, magazines, newspapers etc.
• Leafleting
• Banners and placards.

Bear in mind that you do not have to ‘reinvent the wheel’. You can study other campaigns for ideas and adapt the appropriate ones to your own campaign.

e) Media and Communications
Using the media is the most effective way to spread your message. Media planning should be an integral part of any campaign, please refer to the separate chapter on ‘Using the Media’.

New communications technology is set to revolutionise campaigning, and is already doing so in other NGO sectors. E-mail lists are widely used to activate collaborators and supporters. Programmes are available that enable lobbying to be conducted easily, and even personalised, using the internet. This aspect of campaigning should never be neglected, and should constantly be reviewed and updated.
f) Lobbying
There is a separate chapter on lobbying, but below are some guidelines for campaign lobbying.
As a rule, lobbying is an integral part of campaigning and fundamental to achieving your objective.
The four points below are taken from a useful book called *How to Win Friends and Influence People*
and can be applied for lobbying purposes:

1. Don't complain or condemn, be respectful
   - People, and especially some politicians, are motivated by pride and vanity
   - Speak before you shout.

2. Make them feel important
   - Make the person you are seeking to influence feel like they are receiving privileged information to help build a bond
   - Use their name.

3. Think about what they want
   - Make it sound like what you want is what they want.

4. Inspire, lay down a challenge

Here are some general rules for attending lobbying meetings:

**Before a meeting:** Set your objective: what is my ‘ask’?
- Set your key message
- Research the person
- Think about the opposition
- Prepare a pack of key information: but don’t overdo it!

**After a meeting:**
- Be sure to follow up immediately
- Keep in touch.

**Timing**
Campaigning is all about timing! Timing can mean the difference between success and failure.
For this reason, your campaign activities should be planned and timed to take advantage of certain events happening in the climate you are working in. You can also use published media calendars to ensure your events and activities don’t clash with activities you can’t compete with, such as elections or royal weddings. You can also match your activities to appropriate national or international celebrations or events to accentuate your message. Equally however, you need to be flexible. If an opportunity arises you need to be able to react.

**MANAGING YOUR CAMPAIGN**

Remember to:
- Stay flexible and maximise opportunities
- Listen to the opposition
- Never take ‘No’ for an answer
- Be prepared for the long haul.

**a) Campaign Coordination**
Effective campaign coordination is vital to success. Campaign management should take overall responsibility for coordination rather like the conductor of an orchestra, translating the overall plan (equivalent to the musical score) into different fragments of work (investigation, lobby, press,
CHAPTER 9

CAMPAIGNING

scientific news for example) making up a structured campaign that all could participate in together, coming together to form a cohesive whole. A Campaign Team, which meets regularly to review strategy and operational progress, is an excellent way of ensuring that all are singing from the same hymn sheet. In this case, it is useful to allocate a team chair and a team secretary, responsible for all regular communication and monitoring.

Campaign managers should be:
• Creative
• Artistically imaginative
• Good at analysing and seeing the big picture
• Excellent planners and organisers
• Good with people; mobilising and managing
• Good under pressure
• Flexible.

b) Commitment

Commitment and energy are vital components of any successful campaign:
• Believing you will win
• Dedication
• Being in for the ‘long haul.’

NEVER DOUBT THAT A SMALL GROUP OF DEDICATED CITIZENS CAN CHANGE THE WORLD. INDEED, IT’S THE ONLY THING THAT EVER HAS.”
- Margaret Mead

c) Coalitions Between Groups

Major campaigns may benefit from coalition effort. However, it is important that coalitions are only used for practical focus, so they do not become endless talkingshops, with no real results. Other factors to consider are:
• Coalitions are always fragile, but have potential for enormous power to influence.
• Coalition leadership must build trust, openness and honesty.
• Every coalition must have a clearing house; secretariat.
• The critical function of secretariat is to spread information quickly.
• Coalition action can be cumbersome so plan well ahead.
• When coalition succeeds – spread the glory!

IMPORTANCE OF EVALUATION

Evaluation is all too often forgotten in busy organisations. But it is vital to improving performance and effectiveness. It facilitates learning and building on experience and enables experiences to be shared between groups so others can benefit and learn too. Evaluations can also be used to extract useful feedback for funders, members and supporters.

Aspects of planning, methods used and outcomes should all be evaluated. In order to carry out meaningful evaluations, it is necessary to establish criteria against which results can be evaluated.

Evaluations should always make recommendations for the future. This is first and foremost a learning opportunity and should never be used as a tool for apportioning blame.
Successful campaigners work very much in a cycle, where evaluation and adjustments are always being made in order to achieve the original objective.

**FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS**

Force field analysis is a management tool developed by social scientist Kurt Lewin for diagnosing situations. It is also an excellent tool to use in assessing the driving and restraining forces of a campaign issue. This is necessary in order to concentrate campaign resources to best effect.

Driving forces are those factors pushing the situation forward, whereas restraining factors are the forces that stop or hamper its progress.

Force field analysis involves mapping out the forces for and against what you want to happen. You draw a simple map of the problem, the people involved, the organisations, the institutions, to work out exactly what the mechanisms are for the problem you want to change.

*From this, you map potential allies and opponents. Then, from that, you can work out who your target audience is for each step of the campaign.*

You need to consider how you will change the balance of forces for and against the campaign issue in order to overcome obstacles. If you do not know the answers to this, you will not be able to specify an objective to be achieved. By carrying out the analysis you can plan to strengthen the forces supporting a change and reduce the impact of opposition to it.

*A force field analysis can also be useful in deciding whether your campaign is viable.* For example, if the forces against change are all-powerful and impervious to pressure, it may not be a battle you can win.

*Where you have already decided to carry out a project, a force field analysis can help you to work out how to improve its probability of success.* This could be by modifying the forces in one of the following ways:

- Reducing the strength of the forces opposing change; or
- Increasing the forces pushing for change; or
- Changing the direction of the forces.

Often the most likely solution is the first: just trying to force change through may cause its own problems. People can be uncooperative if change is forced on them. If you can make them weaken or drop their opposition, rather than just barging through change, there will be less likelihood of further battles in the future, as so often happens with polarised campaigns.

Campaigning is a creative and a technical process; an art and a science. It’s all too easy to get too close to the subject and to lose perspective. Sometimes it is good to step back and reconsider, to try a different tack, to go round an obstacle instead of through it, and even, when you’re winning, to remember that running the current campaign is not an end in itself.
The following is a case study example of an effective campaign:

**Battery Cage Campaign – European Coalition for Farm Animals**

www.ciwf.org/

Compassion in World Farming (CIWF)'s battery cage campaign is a good example of a well-organised and effective campaign.

**Aims:** The objective of the Battery Hens Campaign was to end the keeping of laying hens in battery cages. This was based on the ethical standpoint that it is unacceptable to continue to use such intensive poultry husbandry systems, which cause suffering to vast numbers of birds, when different systems are available, have been used in the past, and offer a better prospect of providing for the birds’ welfare.

Additional aims were:

- To ensure satisfactory protection for laying hens kept in any production system, both legislative protection and effective control and enforcement mechanisms; and
- To ensure transparent and coherent consumer information in respect of hen eggs (labelling, advertising, etc.) through strict legislative requirements and effective control and enforcement; and
- To increase consumer awareness and influence buying habits in terms of animal welfare criteria.

The campaign had a **two-pronged strategy:**

**Voluntary:** seeking to influence consumers to stop buying eggs produced in intensive systems and to improve consumer awareness of egg laying systems and practices generally.

**Legislative:** seeking to achieve a legislative ban on the keeping of laying hens in battery cages, and the introduction of legislative provisions to improve welfare in alternative systems and improve consumer information and labelling.

The legislative campaign increased public awareness of the issue, heightening calls for change and changing consumers’ buying habits (decreasing battery egg consumption). The resultant change in consumer buying habits included giving up egg consumption entirely, the eating of fewer eggs and/or the boycott of battery eggs; taking eggs from alternative systems, such as free range, instead. As the market share of battery eggs declined, resistance to a legislative ban would have decreased. There would also be an increase in calls for better consumer information in relation to egg sales (accurate labelling and advertising to enable informed consumer choice). In turn, accurate labelling was likely to increase moves away from battery egg consumption.

**A Timed action plan:** The CIWF battery hen campaign was started in 1998. Major steps included:

- Cruelty report launched
- Supermarket egg sales survey
- MPs’ outdoor breakfast – MPs eating free-range breakfast on the lawn outside the House of Commons
- Mass lobby of the UK Parliament
- Hetty’s postcard and Polaroid tour
- Undercover investigation and exposé
- Launch of a report on brittle bones
Coalition-building in action: The European Coalition for Farm Animals (ECFA) was formed in 1993 in anticipation of the EU review of the Battery Cages Directive due that year. ECFA was a coalition of like-minded groups campaigning together throughout Europe. In 1994, ECFA mounted a highly successful campaign tour of Europe against battery cages. When proposals to amend the Battery Cages Directive finally emerged in early 1998, the Coalition came into its own. It provided effective coordination of a sustained campaign, which culminated in the phased out EU ban.

Campaign images: The investigation provided graphic and media-worthy images of the suffering of battery hens.

As regards photographs, the most frequently used campaign image is simple: photographs of hen-pecked battery hens in cramped conditions. In the case of battery hens, the reality is probably more horrific and stunning than any campaign image.

The use of celebrities in mock battery cages was another powerful and media-friendly image.

The MPs’ outdoor breakfast (MPs eating free-range breakfast on the lawn outside the House of Commons) was an excellent photo-call, using the House of Commons as a backdrop to a picture of Members of Parliament sitting at a long breakfast table being served by CIWF staff wearing chef’s outfits, it could equally well have been celebrities.

Forceful facts were also used, such as the fact that a battery hen is given less space then an A4 (usual office size) piece of paper – something everyone can imagine.

Actions and demonstrations: Various demonstrations and street campaign actions were also used to keep the campaign in the public eye. These included the use of scaled-up versions of the battery cage, containing either the hen mascot or a famous person.

The mass lobby of the UK Parliament was a way to engage supporters and activists, as well as ensuring that all politicians were aware of the strength of feeling about this issue. After a march upon the Parliament, supporters made appointments to discuss this issue with their own Members of Parliament.

Publications: CIWF produced a wide range of publications on battery cage issues in support of the campaign, including educational resources:

Beyond the Battery – A Welfare Charter for Laying Hens
The Welfare Argument
Includes a booklet on ‘The Welfare of Laying Hens’.

Farm Facts
Includes fact sheets on factory farming and laying hens.

Campaigning Against Cruelty
Teaching resource pack, containing 40 colour slides covering all aspects of farm animal welfare, including laying hens, with script and activities.

Do Hens Suffer in Battery Cages?

For Their Own Good
By Peter Stevenson – a study of mutilations of farm animals, including debeaking of hens.
Lobby: An integral part of the campaign was intensive and authoritative lobbying, both at UK and EU level. As well as the march upon the UK parliament, there were actions at EU level, petitions and letter-writing campaigns. CIWF and ECFA partner lobbyists were also active meeting politicians and civil servants at national and European level.

Hunger Strike: Adolfo Sansolini, ECFA’s Italian partner, even staged a hunger strike to persuade the EU to pass the battery cage ban.

Results: The major triumph of the campaign was the EU’s 1999 ban on conventional battery cages (from 2012).

The EU subsequently amended its egg-labelling legislation to include set definitions and standards for given categories of eggs, including free-range, barn and battery, and introduced a new requirement to give a statement on both the label and every individual battery egg: ‘eggs from caged hens’.

An increase in the availability of free-range eggs; and an increase in the numbers of consumers purchasing non-battery eggs. Some supermarkets in Europe stopped all sales of battery eggs in Europe.

The main reasons for the success of this campaign appear to be:
- Excellent strategic and operational management
- The existence of a small and non-bureaucratic, but active campaigning coalition across Europe
- Major leadership and input from CIWF, who focused on this campaign
- The breakdown of the campaign into hits and successes along the way to the final goal
- The excellent research and investigation groundwork
- The use of scientific research and sympathetic scientists
- The range and variety of tactics employed
- The campaign was running for the long term, with sustained pressure.

Hetty the hen meets MEPs at Brussels and Westminster
© Copyright: CIWF

For further detail on the legislative side of the campaign, please see:
www.ari-online.org/pages/europe_8_batteryhens.html
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Amnesty International – Online Campaigning Manual
http://web.amnesty.org/pages/campaigning-manual-eng

ASPCA Workshops on Cruelty Investigations
www.aspca.org/site/PageServer?pagename=pro_so_workshopscruelty

Campaign Planning Web Site
www.campaignstrategy.org/

Data Center – Campaign Research
www.datacenter.org/research/camp_res.htm

Environmental Activism – Strategies
www.oneworld.net/guides/environmentalactivism/strategies

Friends of the Earth (includes various campaign issues)
http://community.foe.co.uk/resource/how_tos/

HSUS Investigative Services
www.hsus.org/ace/11665

List of free resources for methods in evaluation and social research
gsociology.icaap.org/methods/

Mercy for Animals – Undercover Investigations
www.mercyforanimals.org/undercover_investigations.asp

Mind Tools – Force Field Analysis
www.mindtools.com/forcefld.html

National Cruelty Investigations School
http://web.missouri.edu/~letiwww/animal3.htm

PETA's guide to becoming an activist
www.animalactivist.com/actguide1.asp

SHARK (Showing Animals Respect and Kindness) – Investigation Methods
www.sharkonline.org/ourmethods.mv

Books
The Animal Welfare Handbook
Caroline Clough and Barry Kew
Publisher: Fourth Estate, London
ISBN: 1857020472
A good basic introduction to animal protection issues.
The Art of Strategy:  
A New Translation of Sun Tzu’s ‘The Art of War’  
Wing  
Publisher: Bantam Doubleday  
ISBN: 0385237847

Campaign Against Cruelty: An Activist’s Handbook  
Alex Bourke and Ronny Worsey  
Publisher: Scamp Media  
Available from: Vegetarian Guides, PO Box 2284, London W1A 5UH.  
A local (UK-based) animal rights approach.

Campaigning: The A to Z of Public Advocacy  
Des Wilson, Leighton Andrews  
Publisher: Hawksmere Ltd  
ISBN: 1854180363

The Campaigning Handbook  
Mark Lattimer  
Publisher: Directory of Social Change  
ISBN: 1900360632

How to Win Campaigns: 100 Steps to Success  
Chris Rose  
Publisher: Earthscan  
ISBN: 1853839620

How to Win Friends and Influence People  
Dale Carnegie  
Publisher: Pocket  
ISBN: 0671027034

The Young Person’s Guide to Animal Rights  
Barbara James  
Publisher: Virago Press  
ISBN: 1853814695
As well as being hard work, lobbying can be fun and rewarding. It’s hugely satisfying to convince politicians or government officials that reforms are needed.
CHAPTER 10
LOBBYING

1. Introduction

2. Lobbying for New Legislation – Persuading the Authorities
   a) Lobbying the Power Person
   b) Lobbying Others with Influence
   c) How Members of Parliament Can Help
   d) Tips for Working with Members of Parliament
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3. Ensuring Strong Legislation

4. Non-political Lobbying

5. Case Study: Winning the European Union Ban on Sow Stalls

6. Further Resources
As well as being hard work, lobbying can be fun and rewarding. It's hugely satisfying to convince politicians or government officials that reforms are needed.

There are all sorts of situations in which you may wish to lobby. You may, for example, be pressing supermarkets not to sell battery eggs or trying to convince a zoo not to keep polar bears. This is referred to as non-political lobbying. Most lobbying, however, is political – trying to secure improved laws or better policies.

Lobbying will be more effective if it is linked to a strong public campaign; politicians are much more likely to introduce reforms if they are wanted by the general public, not just by an animal protection organisation.

This chapter looks at lobbying to secure new laws. However its principles and suggested tactics apply equally to lobbying for a change in government policy.

There are two separate stages to lobbying for new legislation:

1) Trying to convince the authorities that there is a good case for changing the law.
2) Then, if the authorities do propose new legislation, you must lobby to ensure that the wording eventually agreed is as strong as possible.

Each stage will be elaborated upon in the sections that follow.
• In your letter ask for a meeting. A meeting is really helpful in bringing your issue to the front of someone's mind.

b) Lobbying Others with Influence
Write to, and seek meetings with, other key people who can influence the Power Person. These include:

• Government officials: They are responsible for advising the Minister whether there is a good case for changing the law. They usually have more detailed knowledge than the Minister. So, your letters to, and meetings with, the officials may need to be more thorough. It's vital to develop good relations with the officials; Ministers only rarely go against their advice.

• Members of Parliament (referred to in this chapter as 'MPs'): Usually a Parliament will only have a main debate and vote on an issue when a new law has been proposed by the Power Person (see Stage 2 below). However, there are various ways in which MPs can help at Stage 1 to create an atmosphere among other politicians, the public and the media in which it seems increasingly crucial that the law should be reformed.

c) How Members of Parliament Can Help
You should lobby MPs who can help in various ways:

• Letters from Members of Parliament: Ask them to write to the Power Person, probably a Government Minister, urging him/her to propose new legislation. Letters from MPs can be highly effective.

• Parliamentary Questions: Often Members of Parliament are able to table Parliamentary Questions (PQs) which ask the Government:
  ◦ for factual information, or
  ◦ about its policy.

  A Parliamentary Question may, for example, ask how many animal experiments were carried out last year or what plans the government has to fund research into the development of non-animal alternatives. The value of a PQ is not just the answer that is given, but crucially the fact that MPs are asking questions shows the Government that there is strong Parliamentary concern about a particular subject.

• Resolutions: Many Parliaments are able to agree a Resolution, also sometimes called Declarations or Motions, which expresses the Parliament’s belief that reforms are needed. You can ask a Member of Parliament to table a Resolution, and then write to other MPs asking them to support it.

• Debates: A Member of Parliament may be able to arrange a short debate in the Parliament. This too is a good way of making the Government aware of Parliamentary concerns.

d) Tips for Working with Members of Parliament
• If an MP agrees to help, you should offer to draft the letter (to the Minister), Parliamentary Question or Resolution for them as MPs often do not have the time or the detailed knowledge to do this themselves.

• It’s important to build up a relationship with MPs in which they trust you. This can only be done over time. Trust will develop if MPs gradually realise that your information is accurate (accuracy is very important) and that your case is well argued.

• You do not need to have a lot of friendly MPs. Sometimes just one or two really supportive MPs can help you make good progress, partly because they may persuade their colleagues to support you.

• Do not say that one political party is better than the others. You need to be able to work well with politicians from all the parties.
e) Key Points for Meetings and Letters

The science: refer to any scientific research that supports your arguments.

Politicians (Ministers, Government officials and Members of Parliament) place much more trust in scientific research that shows that a practice is inhumane than in statements by an animal protection organisation. For example, it was very helpful, when lobbying for an EU ban on battery cages, to be able to say that the EU’s Scientific Veterinary Committee had concluded that the battery cage “has inherent severe disadvantages for the welfare of hens”.

Economics: you must try to win the economic argument.

Politicians are reluctant to ban a practice if they believe that it will be expensive to do so. You must, if possible, show that your proposal will not lead to an increase in costs, or even that it will result in savings in the long term.

Suppose that you are trying to win a ban on sow stalls also known as ‘gestation crates’. You will have real difficulties if your opponents manage to convince politicians that the alternatives will lead to increased costs for farmers and higher meat prices for consumers. You must show that changing to group housing of sows or keeping them free-range will lead to only a very small increase in costs or even reduced costs.

You must show that there are viable alternatives.

Politicians are also reluctant to ban a practice if they feel there are no practicable alternatives. For example, politicians will be unwilling to ban animal toxicity testing unless you can convince them that non-animal methods are just as effective.

Anticipate your opponents’ arguments.

Before a meeting, try to anticipate your opponents’ arguments and have good convincing points to make in response to them. For example, a politician may say that farmers have told him or her that battery cages are good because they prevent the feather-pecking that can occur in perchery and free-range systems. You must be able to show that feather-pecking can be avoided in these systems by keeping the hens in good conditions. Or farmers may assert that chickens kept outdoors have higher mortality rates than indoor chickens. You must argue that in a well-run free-range farm mortality can be as low as in cages.

What are your key points?

Decide on the key points that you wish to make. The person you are meeting may make other points and you perhaps will need to respond to them, but you must try to ensure that you don’t leave without making your own points. If you are clear what your main points are, you will be aware when the meeting has moved away from them and you should try to steer it back.

Be focused.

If your main aim is to secure a ban on the keeping of primates as pets, don’t, in a letter or meeting about this, also talk about industrial farming or animal experiments.

Letters should not be too long.

Generally keep letters as short as possible. Two pages at most.

Be polite.

Your points may be radical, for example you may want a ban on battery cages, but your tone should be polite and reasonable.

f) Other Lobbying Activities

In addition to those that we have already looked at, there are a number of other actions you could usefully take:
Supporter letters or cards: Ask your supporters to write to the Minister and Members of Parliament. Politicians are much more likely to act if they feel that your issue has broad public support. Your supporters could either send a letter – you should tell them the main points to make, or you could produce a postcard with a printed message which they can sign.

Petition: Organise a petition addressed to the Power Person. Once you have sufficient signatures, arrange to present it to the Power Person. The petition may be more effective if it is presented by a celebrity or a sympathetic Member of Parliament.

Maintain contact with politicians: You must find ways of reminding politicians of your concerns. From time to time write to the Minister, Government officials and sympathetic Members of Parliament to inform them of significant developments. For example tell them about a new scientific study that is helpful to your issue or an opinion poll that shows most of the public share your belief that a particular practice should be banned.

Scientific and economic briefing or report: Prepare a briefing or report that summarises the main scientific research on your issue to show that your aim is supported by the science. Send this to relevant politicians. The briefing or report should also deal with the economic arguments and show that the reform you seek would not lead to an increase in costs or only to a small increase.

Photos and films: Send photos and films (video or DVD) to relevant politicians. These will illustrate your concerns more powerfully than words alone.

g) Planning Your Lobbying Activities

Be aware that persuading the Power Person to propose or make new legislation can be a long process taking months, even years. We don’t want to dishearten you, but it can take a long time to persuade a Government to introduce laws that are seen as harming the vested interests of farmers, drug companies or hunters. But with tenacity and patience, you really can be successful.

Lobbying has led to a ban on hunting in Britain and to EU bans on battery cages (from 2012) and the sale of cosmetics tested on animals (from 2008). Sow stalls (also known as gestation crates) have been outlawed in the Philippines, Florida (from 2008) and the EU (from 2013).

The force feeding of geese and ducks for foie gras production has been banned in California (from 2012) and in Israel. Lobbying in Israel has also led to a ban on the dehorning of cattle without anaesthesia. Lobbying in the US resulted in a prohibition on the manufacture and import of dog and cat fur products.

You will need to use a wide range of tactics in order to keep your lobbying fresh and alive over a lengthy period. That is why we have suggested a variety of tactics such as letters; meetings; Parliamentary Questions, Resolutions and Debates; letters from Members of Parliament and your supporters to the Power Person; petitions; scientific and economic reports.

At the start of your lobbying, estimate how long it will take to persuade the Power Person. Then prepare a timetable for your lobbying activities. This should aim to place regular pressure on the Power Person and other relevant politicians. Avoid using all your lobbying tools at once. Instead, ensure that you are able to exert continuing pressure over a lengthy period.
So far we have been considering the process of persuading a Minister (or other Power Person) to make, or propose, new legislation. We will now look at what you need to do once you have been successful in convincing the Minister that legal reforms are needed.

Sometimes the Minister is able to make a new law without getting the agreement of others. Usually, however, the Minister will only be able to propose new legislation. This means that the Minister will publish draft legislation, which then has to be agreed by another body or bodies such as the Parliament. The draft legislation may have to go through several stages before becoming law.

We will now look at the steps you need to take to ensure that the proposed legislation goes through the various law-making stages without being weakened; indeed hopefully it will be strengthened during this process.

First, you must find out what stages proposed legislation has to go through in your country before it is approved as a law. These stages will vary from country to country.

In many countries once the Power Person has proposed a new law, it then has to be agreed by the Parliament. Often a Committee of Members of Parliament will produce a detailed report about the proposed law. Then, on the basis of that report, the proposal will be voted on by the full Parliament. Some Parliamentary stages involve examination of the proposed law's principles; others entail a detailed line-by-line consideration.

It is important that you are clear about:
- The various stages that the proposed law must pass through, and
- The timetable for those stages.

This will enable you to target the right people with your lobbying at the right time.

You must lobby Members of Parliament and other decision makers, such as the Minister and Government officials, to try to:
- Strengthen the proposed law where it is weak
- Defend good parts of the proposal from attack by your opponents. For example, if your opponents are arguing against a proposed ban on the keeping of wild-caught birds as pets, you must stress that using such birds as pets imposes severe welfare problems on them and may be driving some species to extinction.

When lobbying to ensure that a proposed law is as strong as possible when it is finalised, you should use all these tactics:
- Write letters
- Request meetings
- Ensure that your arguments are clear and concise
- Stress that scientific research supports you
- Explain that your proposal will not be economically harmful
- Show why your opponents’ arguments are not valid.
The principles and thinking outlined in this chapter can also be applied to lobbying outside the political arena, for example lobbying:

- A supermarket not to sell factory farmed meat
- A fast-food chain to only use free-range eggs
- A zoo not to keep elephants or polar bears
- A shop not to stock fur
- A restaurant not to serve foie gras
- A farmers’ organisation to move away from industrial farming.

This kind of lobbying has led to one UK supermarket, Waitrose, refusing to sell battery eggs and to another, Marks and Spencer, only selling free-range eggs. Moreover, all supermarkets in the Netherlands have committed themselves to stopping the sale of battery eggs. Turning to fast-food chains, in the UK McDonald’s only uses free-range eggs. In the US McDonald’s has prohibited the forced moulting of laying hens as well as requiring battery hens to be given more space than the US industry average and insisting that its meat suppliers observe certain slaughter standards.

**CASE STUDY: WINNING THE EU BAN ON SOW STALLS**

This case study looks at Compassion in World Farming’s (CIWF) successful campaign to get a ban on sow stalls in the European Union (EU).

In the EU three institutions are involved in making new legislation:

1) the **European Commission** which proposes new legislation
2) the **European Parliament**
3) the **Council** which is composed of Ministers from each EU Member State.

1997: The EU’s Scientific Veterinary Committee (SVC) publishes a Report on the Welfare of Intensively Kept Pigs. This is very helpful – it condemns sow stalls, concluding that they cause ‘serious welfare problems’.

CIWF is now in a strong position as its key aim has been supported by a major scientific report. CIWF’s objective is to persuade the Commission, which is the only body that can propose new legislation, to propose a ban on sow stalls as a ban is clearly justified by the scientific evidence.

1998 & 1999: In order to achieve this objective, CIWF writes to and has meetings with:

- The Commission urging it to propose a ban on sow stalls and stressing that the SVC Report is highly critical of stalls
- The people who can put pressure on the Commission; that is the Members of the European Parliament (MEPs) and the Agriculture Ministers of the EU Member States. CIWF asks the MEPs and Ministers to urge the Commission to propose a ban on stalls. CIWF continually emphasises that the scientific report condemns stalls on cruelty grounds.

Crucially, CIWF’s lobbying is backed up by a strong public campaign. Supporters send a huge number of letters and postcards to the Commission.
2000: CIWF knows that it needs to give fresh energy to its lobbying which is now entering its third year. It produces:
- A detailed report that summarises all the scientific research showing that stalls cause severe welfare problems
- A short 8 page booklet. This sets out CIWF’s case concisely and contains powerful colour photos showing the cruel nature of stalls and highlighting the more humane alternatives.

The report and the booklet are sent to the Commission, MEPs, Agriculture Ministers and officials in Agriculture Ministries. The booklet is not sent out at the same time as the report, but a few weeks later – it is important to regularly have fresh things to say to politicians.

2001: At last! In January the Commission publishes a proposed ban on sow stalls. This is a major turning point. Now it is up to the Council, which consists of the Agriculture Ministers of the EU Member States, and the Parliament to decide if the proposed ban is to become law.

CIWF’s objective now becomes: to ensure that the proposed legislation is not weakened, and indeed is strengthened, while it is being considered by the Parliament and the Agriculture Ministers.

CIWF re-doubles its efforts to make sure that all decision-makers are aware of the case for banning sow stalls. It:
- Distributes a short film contrasting stalls and the kinder alternatives. A film highlights the cruelty of stalls more powerfully than words can
- Commissions an Opinion Poll, this shows that 84% of the public wants a ban on stalls. This is vital. Politicians want to know that such a ban enjoys wide public support
- Collects 700,000 signatures on a petition. This massive petition is presented to the President of the EU Agriculture Council
- Distributes a short 6 page booklet showing how a number of farms are making a commercial success of using humane alternatives. This too is vital – before they ban a system, politicians want to know that there is a viable alternative that can take its place.

CIWF works closely with Members of the European Parliament (MEPs) when the proposed ban is considered by the Parliament’s Agriculture Committee and again when it is debated by the full Parliament:
- CIWF asks sympathetic MEPs to table an amendment to strengthen the proposal and then urges other MEPs to vote for this amendment.
- Hostile MEPs, who support the pig industry, table amendments designed to weaken the proposed ban. CIWF urges the other MEPs to vote against these amendments.

CIWF works hard throughout to rebut the pig industry’s arguments. The industry asserts that:
- Sows kept in groups are aggressive to each other and that only stalls can prevent fighting. CIWF stresses that scientific research shows that aggression in groups can be prevented by good management – by eliminating competition at feeding time for example.
- Keeping sows in groups is too expensive. CIWF points out that economic studies show that group housing adds very little to the cost of producing pig meat. Indeed some types of group housing are cheaper than sow stalls.

June 2001: Success! The Agriculture Ministers agree to ban sow stalls.
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Advocacy and Lobbying Tool-kit
www.ctnonprofits.org/pages/NonprofitResources/Advocacy_Lobbying_Toolkit.asp

Amnesty International – Lobbying
www.amnesty.org.uk/action/lobbying/index.shtml

Center for Lobbying in the Public Interest
www.clpi.org/

The Democracy Center – Lobbying: the Basics
www.democracyctr.org/resources/lobbying.html

Hearts and Minds – Lobbying Resources
www.heartsandminds.org/links/lobbylinks.htm

Tips on Political Lobbying
http://ne.essortment.com/lobbyingpolitical_rrxj.htm

Books
Amnesty International Handbook
Publisher: Amnesty International UK
ISBN: 0862102057

European Lobbying Guide: A Guide on Whom and How to Lobby
Bryan Cassidy
Publisher: Thorogood
ISBN: 1854181440

Machiavelli in Brussels: The Art of Lobbying the EU
Rinus van Schendelen
Publisher: Amsterdam University Press
ISBN: 9053565736

The Nonprofit Lobbying Guide: Advocating Your Cause – and Getting Results
Bob Smucker
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 1555423744

Politico’s Guide to Political Lobbying
Charles Miller
Publisher: Politico’s Publishing
ISBN: 1902301250

So You Want to Be a Lobbyist?
Guide to the World of Political Lobbying
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Publisher: Politico’s Publishing
ISBN: 1902301005
The media is instrumental in furthering campaign objectives, reaching potential new supporters and gaining publicity.
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USING THE MEDIA

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The media – press, radio and television – shapes public opinion. In a movement for social change, such as the animal protection movement, it is probably the single most effective vehicle for spreading your message.

The media is able to reach a vast audience. Television, in particular, is a very powerful medium – combining the power of images with the spoken word. Peak time television will reach more people than you could reach individually in a lifetime.

The media is instrumental in furthering campaign objectives, reaching potential new supporters and gaining publicity. To make the most of the media, organisations should: have a media strategy in place, know how to establish media contacts and generate coverage, build a solid media tool-kit and have the skills necessary to give good interviews. All of these topics are elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

Please inform WSPA HQ Press Office if you secure any major television documentary coverage on international TV channels, at press@wspa.org.uk.

It is important to establish a media strategy to enable the organisation to work with the media proactively, as well as reactively.

**EFFECTIVE FORWARD PLANNING CAN ENSURE THAT YOU USE THE MEDIA FOR YOUR OWN MISSION PURPOSES, RATHER THAN BEING USED BY THE MEDIA TO FIT ITS OWN AGENDAS.**

**Proactive** approaches include:
- Using research and investigations to encourage and cooperate with in-depth investigative programmes
- Writing and trying to place feature articles
- Planning press conferences, demonstrations, events, campaign actions, photo-calls, celebrity occasions etc., specifically to attract the media.

**Reactive** approaches include:
- Responding to animal-related news with letters to the editor and/or news statements
- Calling the journalist who wrote an article to give your views.

Whether proactive or reactive, an important part of your media strategy is to clearly set out the following:
- **Objectives**: What you are looking to get from the media?
- **Target Audience**: Which media you are aiming at?
- **Timing**: When you are planning to contact them?
- **Key Messages**: What you are planning to tell them?
- **Tactics**: How you are going to tell them?

You should also keep the following aspects of media planning in mind when formulating your strategy:
- Include media aspects in research and investigations planning.
• Analyse target audiences and give special attention to relevant media, for example broadsheet newspapers are read by those who control dominant institutions, animal publications are read by those with an existing interest in animal issues, professionals read specialist magazines etc.
• Rank media and develop and maintain contacts with the most important.
• Use supporters as part of your media strategy, particularly to reach local media.
• Always evaluate past performance and improve where possible.

It must be stressed that the media works differently in each country. What makes absolutely no impact in one country may be novel and hit the headlines in another. Factors such as the level of press freedom, links to advertisers, the stage of development of animal protection issues and even the overall level of democracy in a country, all play a part. This means that each organisation needs to try and test different approaches, evaluate these and build successful formulas into their media strategy. There is no ‘one size fits all’!

COMPILING A MEDIA LIST

An accurate, current media list is essential to anyone who has a media relations role. There are various ways of compiling one that can be done at different levels of cost. This guide is not exhaustive; rather it is intended as a starting point.

The cheapest option is to do the research yourself; the only cost is your time in doing research online and on the telephone. It can be a hassle but it is well worth it, especially since most people don’t need the depth of contacts and level of detail provided by subscription services.

Subscription services to media databases are available in some countries. Although you have to pay for them, they are regularly updated and allow you to:
• Make your own targeted media selections.
• Add your own contacts.
• Send out press releases automatically (by e-mail)

Compiling a media list doesn’t mean you need to have the details of every journalist, editor or producer in the country, most people will only need a brief list, especially if they are working at a regional level.

Identify Target Publications

PICK THOSE PUBLICATIONS AND TELEVISION AND RADIO STATIONS THAT REACH YOUR TARGET AUDIENCES.

The following will be useful in your search to identify which publications to target for your media list:
• The internet
• Newspapers and journals
• TV reviews
• Libraries
• Local knowledge
• Other animal protection organisations

Once you have the general contact details of the publications you wish to target, identify the relevant media contacts:
• Phone the newsdesk at each organisation to get the names, job titles, phone, fax and e-mail
of the people you want to contact. These could include the news editor, features editor, environment correspondent, or picture editor.

• Find out which journalists might specialise in your area – for example a women’s editor or environment correspondent.
• Store the information you gather on each contact.

Establish media contacts: Follow these steps when approaching a media contact:

• Read the journalist’s publication or listen to/watch the programme.
• The first time you call, introduce yourself and ask whether it is a good time, or if it would be better for you to call another time.
• Once you have them listening ask about their deadlines. When do they go to press, when would they like to be contacted.
• Ask how they would like to receive information; fax, e-mail, or phone.
• Ask what kind of stories they are interested in – and listen.
• Make sure you get their direct phone line if they have one, their fax number, e-mail address and any other relevant details.
• Keep a note of the journalist’s responses; it might be worth making a file.
• Each time you call him/her make a note of when it was and what was discussed.
• When you call again, remind the journalist what you discussed before, for example “you might remember we spoke about the opening of our new headquarters a couple of months ago.” This helps build the relationship.
• Invite them to any event your organisation might have – once you meet face-to-face they are more likely to remember you.
• Keep the effort going!

The following suggestions can also be helpful in approaching journalists:

• Only put forward ‘newsworthy’ items, consider the news angle carefully
• Human-animal interest stories work well too; personalise them, as this helps to generate empathy
• Always remember the visual; photos can make all the difference
• In all contacts, give essentials before background
• Always be factual and accurate
• Acknowledge problems. Denial causes mistrust. Most people, including reporters, will be sympathetic to genuine problems
• Never lie to a reporter. You will always get caught and you will lose credibility for yourself and your organisation
• Reporters have to protect sources, so your need to protect a source will usually be understood.
• Never use off-the-record briefings!
• Always be helpful and polite. Thank them for their help and for any good articles or coverage; don’t moan or complain when they do not
• Local newspapers and TV stations may be easier targets, especially if there is a local angle.

If you are contacted by the media, respond immediately. Media people live by deadlines. If they cannot get your side of the story right away, they may opt to do without it.

Bear in mind the factors competing for their attention:

Bulk: Journalists are sent huge numbers of press releases, most of which are irrelevant and go straight in the bin.

Time: Journalists will be worrying about their deadlines, their editors and their colleagues, sometimes they might have to compete for space.

Mess: The newsroom is rarely an orderly place. It is very easy for press releases and pictures to get lost or mislaid.
Luck: The journalist may just be in a good mood, have an interest in your kind of organisation for personal reasons, or they may not be as busy as usual.

REMEMBER THAT YOU ARE NOT GOING TO GET EVERY STORY YOU SUGGEST TO THE PUBLICATION OR PROGRAMME COVERED. BUT DON’T TAKE IT PERSONALLY!

TARGETING

Once you have selected appropriate publications for your target audience, it is crucial to think about the readers of the publication you are targeting. What you want to say to a particular audience is not necessarily what they will want to hear or what the journalists will print. Adapt your subject and message to obtain coverage, yet still achieve your major objectives.

THE IMPORTANT THING IS TO UNDERSTAND THE MOTIVATIONS OF THE PUBLICATION AND THOSE OF YOUR ORGANISATION, AND ITS PRIORITIES, AND TO RECONCILE THE TWO.

Also, it can help to identify a particular column/page in a newspaper or magazine and spoon feed the information to the journalist in a particular format that will exactly fit into that particular place, giving them exactly what they need, whether it is a specific image, a statistic or an offer of an interview.

For example, an organisation working against animal experimentation might want to get a message across to young girls about avoiding cosmetics that have been tested on animals and that testing on animals does not work and is cruel. But sometimes it will not be possible to get that particular message across as it stands in teenage magazines, as it will not be considered something that young girls will want to read about. So it has to be done in a more cunning manner, or nothing at all will appear in the fashionable magazine of the year! So the best approach for that market may be things like contacting feature journalists with the idea of doing makeovers with cosmetics that are not tested on animals and then prompting them to add in a statistic like: “Did you know that 95% of cosmetics are still being tested on animals?” There is the surprise factor too, as many people think that cosmetics are not tested on animals nowadays.

GENERATING LOCAL MEDIA COVERAGE

The media always want good local stories or a local angle on a national story. If you do have a good story, follow these basic guidelines and you will find the media more receptive than you ever thought.

a) Prepare Your Resources
Identify and prepare the resources you have. These could include:
- A local person who was helped by your charity and is a lively interviewee
- A family that gives a human face to recent statistics
- A success story or the opening of a new facility.

Be creative: If your organisation has relatively little exposure in the local media, try thinking up an interesting story to feed them. Brainstorm for ideas; for example:
• Is there a local person associated with your organisation doing something unusual or interesting?
• Has something you've come across while working for your organisation moved or intrigued you?
  If so, then it's likely that other local people will be interested too.
• Are there ways in which your organisation can localise national issues?

Another useful method of coming up with ideas for stories is to identify those anecdotes that you
yourself would use to describe what is lively and interesting about your organisation. These stories
will probably work well for the local media.

Identify whether your story is exclusive as this may affect the type of coverage it receives. Bear
in mind, however, that giving an exclusive to a reporter may mean that other journalists and
publications may not cover it, so it may not be a risk worth taking.

It is important to remember that once you have created a story you need to keep the momentum
going. Editors always appreciate a regular and reliable source of ideas or information, and they will
not hesitate to approach you when they need a story.

b) Decide on the Type of Story
There are different types of 'local stories'. Each one should be offered to the appropriate section
of the press or broadcast media. The main categories are news, features and picture desks. There
may also be specialist reporters that cover the environment.

News: A news item is one linked to a specific date, a one-off event or a new piece of information,
like a forthcoming fundraising event, new research findings with relevance to the local area, the
opening of a new facility locally, the participation or endorsement by a celebrity of a local event,
a local problem affecting your user groups. In short, something that will be new to readers.

Feature articles are longer than news stories; they focus on a particular topic, such as health,
education, fashion, relationships etc., and are written in advance of the news pages. A 'human
interest' feature is a personal story that is centred on a person or people who have experiences
to which readers can relate, for example, one family's experience or a triumph over tragedy. An
analytical feature could be an opinion piece or a survey based on in-depth research. Please refer
to the separate section on 'Features' for a more detailed discussion.

Events listings/diary: When you want to promote a forthcoming event try to make sure it is
mentioned in the ‘forthcoming events’ sections of all local papers. Contact local radio stations,
as they will often cover an event if they know about it in advance and can send a reporter down.
They are much less likely to cover an event retrospectively.

Photos: Are there good quality photos available, or a photo opportunity for the press? Photographs
can make all the difference, especially in local newspapers: a story is much more likely to be
printed with a good photo. Even just a photo with a caption is a good way to get coverage. Get
to know a local photographer with news experience, and build up a bank of good pictures. Good
visuals are central to successful television coverage too, so think about good picture opportunities
if you're targeting television.

Timing: You also need to establish a time frame. When do you want this coverage, and what are
the media deadlines to get it printed or broadcast by then? Be careful: copy deadlines can be
surprisingly early. Television and radio broadcasters are generally more flexible; although if your
news is not groundbreaking then don't expect it to transcend deadlines.
C) Decide Which Media to Approach
You should become familiar with the local media: the main newspapers and magazines, the free press, the local radio and TV programmes. You need to identify all possible outlets for your story, from mainstream local papers to the trade and free press and all public and independent radio and TV stations. Remember, no outlet is too small. Often the freesheets circulated in residential areas are more widely read than national dailies.

Media contact: Do you have any media contacts already? Personal contacts with journalists, family and friends, or just a friendly phone call, can be the quickest way to a story. If not, identify the contact name of the right person for your type of story. This is not difficult; just look through your local paper for stories with similar themes to yours, make a note of the section and the writer, and try to place a similar story in the same section yourself. You may have already identified the right person whilst compiling your media list. Make a list of all appropriate contacts for your particular story, in order of preference. Then work your way down with your story idea.

d) Keep the Momentum Going
Be accessible: It is important when you have a story to run in the local media that you are accessible. When contacting the media, always give your contact numbers including your home or mobile phone. Don’t be alarmed by this. You are only likely to be called at home in exceptional circumstances. However, being accessible out of office hours may prove to be the difference between a story being run or pulled.

Be persistent: If your story gets dropped from the broadcast, or gets bounced from the front page to half a column in the middle of the paper, don’t despair. It doesn’t necessarily mean your story is not newsworthy. Agendas change all the time. Editors have a range of pressures to juggle and stories often get overtaken by events and dropped. Therefore if your story does not succeed at first, and can stand the test of time, get in contact with the newspaper or broadcaster to try and find it a new angle or slot.

Establish your expertise: This is a more long-term approach. You can establish yourself with local media as the first port of call, the expert on your issue, whom journalists will want to consult again and again. If a big story breaks, nationally or locally, in your organisation’s sphere, the most knowledgeable member of your team should call the media to offer a quote or an interview immediately.

If you have done some new research on a local issue, let the media know. Always give full contact numbers, including home and mobile telephone, for easy access to the relevant expert.

e) Checklist
Identify your own team: Agree on who your media representative or public relations person should be.

Identify your best spokesperson: Find an articulate, friendly, well-informed and easily reachable person you can field to the press for interviews. This will not necessarily be your Chief Executive. Always give their home or mobile number for easy access, they will only be called at home if a story is likely to go ahead, so it’s worth it.

Be ready: Have back up photos, case studies and people prepared for interviews.

Identify your story and your media outlet: Remember the “5Ws”: who, what, where, when and why? Do you have photos to go with the text? Which media should you send it to?

Be creative: Find a way to link up local events with the ‘buzz’ of a national issue. Organise events
with local people or in a local venue if you possibly can, but if not focus on some appealing aspect of what you do and the people you work with.

**Write a news release and follow it up:** Be persistent. When you are rejected, keep working down the list of possible outlets.

### FEATURES

You may have a story which you think is of interest to the press, but you know it is not a news story, and the news desk will not be interested in following it up. In this case, it may appeal to the features pages. The following tips can help you in getting a feature article published.

**Timing:** Feature articles are written in advance; from one week up to five months ahead, depending on the frequency of the publication. Weekly magazines will begin to research ideas about three months before the publication of an issue and will start putting it together six to seven weeks before. Monthly magazines plan four or more months in advance. Submit your information in sufficient time. If you don't, another organisation will.

**Read newspapers:** As a starting point it is essential that you read a range of national, regional and local papers in order to get an idea of the current trends and ideas being published.

**Keep up to date:** Be aware of, and draw ideas from any national months, weeks, or days that may be relevant to a particular story.

**Mark your calendar:** You need to take account of anniversaries, not just as a direct link to a story, but also equally as a hook for other stories.

**Read the magazine you want to target:** Do this so that you can target your story to the right audience.

**Keep close to the human angle:** For the article to get printed, you need to involve personal case histories about people who are prepared to be interviewed, photographed and featured in the magazine. Make sure you have a ready supply of appropriate people, where possible matching the age range and profile of the magazine's readership.

**Get in touch with the right person:** Find out who you need to contact, whether it's the features editor, the health editor or another relevant person. You need to read the magazine in question and if the editors' names aren't printed, don't be afraid to phone the magazine and ask for the name and phone number or e-mail address of the person with whom you want to get in touch.

### MEDIA TOOL-KIT

Typical tools that are used, individually or in combination, to communicate to the media include:

- Press releases
- Press conferences
- Media packs
- Letters to editors
- Video footage
- Photographs.
This section considers practical aspects of writing press releases, holding press conferences and writing a letter to the editor. In addition, tips for dealing with criticism are given.

a) Press Releases
Remember that journalists receive tens, sometimes hundreds of releases each day, so you have to make sure that yours will be one of the ones that get read.

A SUCCESSFUL PRESS RELEASE IS ONE THAT ARRIVES AT THE RIGHT PLACE AT THE RIGHT TIME WITH THE RIGHT STORY.

Press release writing
Don't try and give them everything. The main purpose of the press release is to get the journalist to write a quick news story and to persuade those wanting to do a more in-depth article to call you.

Heading: This should be a catchy, short title giving a sense of the story in very few words. Use headings for subsequent paragraphs if appropriate although they are not essential.

Name check: Mention the name of your organisation in full in your introduction. Also mention it in a summary quotation about your group: “Name of organisation has made a tremendous difference to the lives of thousands of stray dogs...” for example, then you can be more sure that your organisation will be named in published articles.

First paragraph: It is absolutely vital that this is short, to the point and newsworthy. It must clearly state the ‘5Ws’: who, what, where, when and why (in any order).

THE FIRST PARAGRAPH MUST BE ABLE TO STAND ON ITS OWN AS A CONCISE PIECE OF INFORMATION.

Second paragraph: This should provide the next piece of information: either more details about the first paragraph, or new information.

Third paragraph/additional paragraphs: Use these only if you have more new information. This paragraph could be a quote from someone involved who is willing to talk to the press if requested. The quote must add a new dimension, such as the personal side of the story. Alternatively it could be a quote from your spokesperson explaining the importance of the story in strong, authoritative language.

Contact details: Your name, title, telephone number and home or mobile phone should be included in clear, bold print at the bottom of the document. Provide a contact number for when you are out of the office. This can make the difference between your story being covered or not.

Catch the journalist’s attention: The headline and first paragraph of your news release are the most important parts. You have to catch the journalist’s attention with them. Concentrate on what is news in the release and put it right at the top. Avoid the temptation to put your organisation’s name in the first sentence, instead concentrate on the issue and how it affects the reader, viewer, or listener.

Writing style: Write as clearly and concisely as you can. Remember that the journalist reading the news release knows nothing about your organisation and has very little time. So:

• Don’t use abbreviations or jargon.
• Don’t try and write a newspaper article – that’s the journalist’s job.
• Use simple, clear language.
• Use short sentences.

**Length and layout:** Do not make your news release too long. Ideally, it should be one side of A4 paper.

**Additional information for editors:** Include a short additional section of information for editors. Include the word count. Describe your charity in a few words. Give any relevant basic information and statistics. Include your website address if you have one. Think in terms of three or four sentences to explain who you are, what you do, where you do it, why you do it and how long you have been doing it. Don't include any information that you wouldn't be happy to see published. A journalist may well use some of this information to help their readers/listeners understand your story. You can also include practical information that you don't expect to be published. This might include brief details of possible case studies, photo opportunities or information about where to park.

Send press releases to named journalists, where possible. Follow up with a call afterwards.

**Radio and TV:** Do not forget news directors of radio and TV stations when circulating press releases.

You will need a visual angle for TV. Videos should be broadcast quality, betacam or mini DV, with separate sound tracks.

**b) Press Conferences**

Before you go ahead with a press conference you must be certain that:

• You have something to announce that cannot be adequately covered in a press release.
• The news warrants a press conference rather than a smaller press briefing.
• You have something to say that will benefit from detailed elaboration.
• You have anticipated and are able to deal confidently with questions.

Press conferences are similar to any other presentation and the points made in the separate chapter on ‘Presentations’ apply. The difference is anticipating the likely media questions in advance.

**The following steps should be taken if you do decide to hold a press conference:**

• **Prepare in advance:** Consider all possible questions beforehand and/or have some good quotes or examples in mind.
• **Decide a date:** Try to make sure that you do not hold the press conference on the same day that a major event may be taking place.
• **Decide a time:** 10 o'clock in the morning is usually a good time. It is not too early and gives journalists enough time to write reports and meet their deadlines for the next day’s newspapers.
• **Decide on a venue:** Try to make sure that the venue is quick and easy for journalists to get to and that it will have the appropriate facilities, such as, television, chairs, tables, refreshments.
• **Invite journalists to attend:** Make sure that this is done at least one week in advance. Send an invite to a press conference that outlines the details of where and when it will be held and what they will be able to find out by attending. Follow this up with a phone call two to three days in advance. Do not call on the day itself; if they haven’t decided to come before then, it is unlikely that they will change their minds.
• **Structure:** Keep the press conference short and allow more time for questions than for speeches.
• **Visuals:** A short video or use of some powerful photographs can make a press conference come to life.
• **Materials:** Make sure that you have copies of any relevant information, such as the press release, reports, background on your organisation, pictures and/or videos.
• **On the day:** Ask journalists that attend to sign in and keep these contact details to follow up.
c) Letters to the Editor
These are some general guidelines to follow when writing a letter to the editor:

• Keep letters tightly composed
• Use specific examples
• Provide accurate, up-to-date information
• Do not attack the opposition
• Always sign your name
• Include your contact details.

d) Dealing with Criticism
Make sure that your organisation has a clearly agreed response that is communicated internally and that you have a nominated spokesperson from your organisation to deal with criticism.

Also, ensure that you do not respond to criticism until you are fully prepared. If you are not prepared, you can easily say that “nobody from xxx is available for comment.” This is better than simply refusing to comment.

GIVING INTERVIEWS

AS WELL AS RESULTING IN MEDIA COVERAGE, INTERVIEWS ARE EXTREMELY USEFUL IN BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS WITH JOURNALISTS AND SETTING THE FOUNDATIONS FOR FUTURE INTERVIEWS AND MEETINGS.

a) General
Ask the interviewer why they want to interview you, establish how much they know about the subject and what more they want to find out. Try to identify who else they might be interviewing on the subject and find out all you can about the publication or programme they are working for.

The better you know your interviewer, the more relaxed you’ll be and the better you’ll perform. At the very least you should remember that journalists generally work at great speed and under intense pressure. They have to find a colourful angle that will attract their audience. If you can help them do that and remain true to your own organisation, you’ve got a much better chance of being asked to come back.

Don’t go into an interview before you’ve prepared some notes on the subject you will be talking about. If a journalist comes on the phone for an immediate quote promise to call back and spend at least a few minutes preparing your ground. Remember to call back as soon as possible as new stories always crop up and you could be forgotten.

You might have several points to make but at the very most your audience will remember two or three.

THE LESS YOU SAY, THE MORE THEY’LL REMEMBER, SO TRY TO IDENTIFY THE ISSUES AND SUBJECTS THAT WILL APPEAL MOST TO THE AUDIENCE.

There may be times when you feel you want to refuse to do an interview, for example, you think the journalist is going to be hostile, or they want you to comment on bad news, or you don’t have anything worthwhile to say or you will not get a chance to say what you want. However, do
remember that if you don't do the interview, it can be a wasted opportunity, particularly if a journalist calls as the result of a press release you have sent, you already know the journalist, or a journalist is writing on a topic that is close to your core business. If you don't do the interview, another organisation may take your place!

b) Preparing for the Interview
Before the interview, it is important that you find out the following:
• The title and style of the programme
• Whether the interview is live or recorded
• How long your spot will be
• The broad outline of the interview
• Whether it will be a one-to-one or group discussion
• The interviewer’s first question
• When the programme will be transmitted or article published.

Try to picture the journalist and audience reading or hearing your message for the first time and ask yourself whether it will overcome their subconscious ‘so what?’ barrier. If not, find another way of presenting it.

As long as you have done your research and prepared yourself for the interview, you should be able to cope with any type of interview. While the journalist is far more experienced at interviewing than you, you are the expert in your field and you know more about your business than the journalist.

c) During the Interview
Confidence: Have confidence in your own knowledge. You know your subject better than the journalist.

Clarity: Use a clear, conversational style. Establish a maximum of three key messages and illustrate your points with anecdotal examples for colour and credibility. Avoid jargon.

Control: Take charge of the interview. Preparation is the key. There is no such thing as a wrong question, only wrong answers.

Give examples: A good example can be worth a thousand words. People love stories so identify a graphic example or anecdote to back up every assertion.

Use analogies: Analogies are another good way to ‘ring a bell’ in the audience’s mind. Relate abstract terms and dimensions to everyday things such as converting hectares into football pitches.

Give advice: People love to be ‘in the know’. Therefore, where possible give the audience a few hot tips on how to get the best out of something or to avoid disaster.

Anticipate questions: Don’t worry too much about being asked a surprise question. There are a finite number of questions that can be asked on your subject and you’re in a better position to know them than the journalist.

Name check: Try to mention the name of your organisation a number of times to ensure that your organisation is named.

DIFFERENT MEDIA AND A DIFFERENT AUDIENCE DEMAND DIFFERENT INTERVIEW TECHNIQUES.
Don’t: Exaggerate; lose your cool; be aggressive, even if challenged; be tricked by leading questions; waffle; or get sidetracked from your message.

d) Television and Radio Interviews
For television and radio companies, down-the-line interviews are a practical and inexpensive way of conducting a conversation. The guest can be in one location and the interviewer in another.

In a TV down-the-line interview you will be directed to a very small studio, you will sit in front of a single camera and be asked to wear an ear-piece, through which you will hear studio instructions and your interviewer. It can be quite off-putting as you will not be able to see your interviewer. Make sure you are sitting comfortably and then lean slightly towards the camera. Have the confidence to look directly into the lens and remember that you are allowed to move your head, gesticulate and smile – do not treat it as a passport photo-taking session!

The mechanics of a radio down-the-line interview are the same as for television. Although you cannot see your audience, you have to sound as if you can. Find an eye point just above your microphone, and imagine a person in your line of sight whom you like, then talk to that person rather than to the disembodied voice coming through your headphones.

Make sure the journalist knows that you are available for comment and can be used as a source of information in your particular field. If your radio or television interview has gone well, call the journalist and tell him how much you enjoyed meeting him or her. Ask if there has been any viewer or listener response to your interview – it is always good to get feedback and it shows the journalist that you are interested in his or her audience and work.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
NewsTrove.Com
http://newstrove.com/
Search thousands of major news sites at once.

NGO Media Outreach: Using the Media as an Advocacy Tool
www.iccn.org/resourcestools/ngotool-kit/NGO-media_training.pdf

Social Media Change: Tips for Using the Media
http://media.socialchange.net.au/using_media/

In the UK:
BBC Radio Stations
www.bbc.co.uk
Links to all BBC radio stations throughout Britain.

Ofcom
www.ofcom.org.uk
The radio and television regulator in the UK.

Media UK
www.mediauk.com
Directory of television, radio stations and newspapers throughout the UK.
The Newspaper Society  
www.newspapersoc.org.uk/
Information on local and regional newspapers in Britain.

Radio Now  
www.radio-now.co.uk
Links to websites of all radio stations throughout Britain.

Books

Benn’s Media Directory
Probably the most detailed country-by-country source for newspaper and magazines addresses available. It also includes some broadcasters and other useful contacts for each country. Produced each year in three separate volumes covering different parts of the world: UK, Europe and (rest of) World. Each volume is available separately – it is not necessary to purchase all three.

The Nonprofit Guide to Strategic Communications
Kathleen Bonk, Henry Griggs
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787943738
'A Step-by-step Resource for Working with the Media to Generate Publicity, Enhance Fund-raising, Build Membership, Change Public Policy and Handle Crisis'

Planning Media: Strategy and Imagination
William J. Donnelly
Publisher: Pearson Education POD; 1st edition (1995)
ASIN: 0135678358

Strategic Media Planning
Kent M. Lancaster, Helen E. Katz
Publisher: Contemporary Books
ISBN: 0844234753

Surviving the Media Jungle:  
A Practical Guide to Good Media Relations
Dina Ross
Publisher: Mercury Business Books
ISBN: 1852520558
PART 3

Running an Animal Protection Society

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Chapter 13 Strategy
Chapter 14 Project Management
Chapter 15 Fundraising
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Chapter 18 Publications
It is important that in-depth analyses are carried out before a new society is started and that very careful consideration is given to all issues.
CHAPTER 12
ESTABLISHING A SOCIETY

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Establishing a society

Establishing an animal protection society is a serious commitment that will take enormous energy and dedication and seriously impact all aspects of your life. All too often, animal protection work simply takes over our lives. This can be rewarding, but it can also be physically and emotionally exhausting.

Anybody considering establishing an animal protection society should, at a minimum, read the HSUS guidance booklet (please see ‘Further Resources’ section for the reference). As the HSUS guidance advises:

“THE MORE CAREFUL THE PREPARATION, THE MORE LIKELY IT IS THAT THE ORGANISATION WILL SUCCEED IN ITS GOALS.”

It is important that in-depth analyses are carried out before a new society is started and that very careful consideration is given to all issues. Some animal protection organisations that start up without the right analysis and understanding can actually hamper existing animal protection activity or damage the welfare of the animals (for example, by sheltering in awful conditions). Others simply duplicate or confuse messages. This is why it is vital to research and plan carefully.

This chapter offers practical advice to assist you in the process of deciding which issue to tackle, what approach to take and what you need to bear in mind when it comes to establishing a board of trustees/committee and drafting a governing document.

2 DECIDING WHICH ISSUE TO TACKLE

The aim is to identify the issue that would make best use of an organisation’s resources towards ensuring the maximum improvement for the plight of animals.

An examination of the following will help in this process:

- Other existing animal protection societies in your area, if any
- The range of potential animal protection problems that could be tackled and the likelihood of success
- The resources of your prospective organisation – both human and financial.

These three topics are considered individually in the sections that follow.

a) Analysis of Other Animal Protection Societies

The first step in the process is to find out whether there are already animal protection societies in your country (see the World Animal Net link, where you can search for all societies in your country). If there are existing societies, then try to learn more about these groups: the areas of work they cover, their approaches, methods and levels of success. If possible, meet with them to find out even more.

Key questions include:

- Are these organisations potential competitors or collaborators?
- How will you avoid wasting scarce animal protection society funding through duplication or competition?
• How will your organisation differentiate itself in the animal protection society ‘marketplace’?
• What is your unique role?

Bear in mind that it may be more productive to join and strengthen their efforts, rather than
duplicate their work.

b) Analysis of the Status of Animal Protection

The next step is to examine the range of animal protection problems that could be tackled.
If you intend to work nationally, then a good research tool is to prepare a report on the status
of animal protection in your country, covering the main animal protection issues.

A full analysis of the ‘status of animal protection’ should be carried out for each of the issues
the organisation is considering from the following main headings:
• Companion Animals
• Farm Animals
• Wildlife
• Working Animals
• Animals in Entertainment
• Animal Experimentation
• Disaster Relief.

The status report should analyse:
• Major welfare problems
• Numbers of animals affected
• Severity and duration of the welfare problem
• Legislation – existing and proposed national legislation, conventions and regional or international
  agreements, enforcement issues
• Legislative system or processes – level of democracy, openness, consultation, success
  of consumer pressure etc.
• Existence of an Animal Welfare Committee (or subject-specific Animal Welfare Committees
  such as a Farm Animal Welfare Committee etc.)
• Government contacts
• Likely success with the issue
• Major threats and opportunities
• Educational opportunities
• Campaigns and media potential
• Industry initiatives and training etc.
• Financial opportunities (tenders for stray control for example)

It is most important to compare the numbers of animals involved and the level and duration of their
suffering, because all too often organisations think that the issue they are aware of, or the issue
that is most visible (such as stray animals) is the most serious, and they feel compelled to act on
these, without due consideration. An organisation may decide to be a single-issue group or tackle
multiple issues, in which case it will have to decide a level or priority for each issue.

Some organisations also carry out investigations into the most promising issues – visiting and
recording actual situations. The combination of analysis and investigation can form a powerful
backdrop to any future work on the issue, it can provide useful information about the issue and
approach to be adopted, and can be useful in attracting supporters.

c) Organisational Analysis

Finally, an honest assessment of your own resources and capabilities, both human and
financial, should be made. Assess your strengths, weaknesses and the assets at your disposal.
Then consider these against the animal protection issues that you have analysed, in order to make an assessment of how the organisation can best help.

Some of the factors to consider include:
- Number of staff
- Skills and abilities of staff (for example, there is no point in analysing or choosing companion animals as an issue, if your organisation involves highly skilled marine biologists!)
- Location and size of office
- Financial resources
- Whether you are an animal rights or animal welfare organisation
- Whether you want to campaign for social change, educate, or undertake service provision work
- Whether you are part of a regional or international network.

Weighing up the outcomes of the three analyses outlined above will facilitate your decision as to which issue your organisation should tackle. The next step is to determine HOW to go about it. The following section considers the various approaches available.

**DETERMINING THE BEST APPROACH**

Dealing with the sad end results, without tackling the root of the problem, is soul-destroying and counter-productive. This tendency to deal with end results, rather than tackling the roots, is symptomatic of the animal protection movement (probably because the compassion felt for the end results leads to such approaches). However, the aim should be total resolution of a problem, and this can only be reached by tackling, and stemming, the problem at source.

**WHATEVER YOU DECIDE TO DO, BEAR IN MIND THAT IT IS MORE EFFECTIVE TO TACKLE A PROBLEM AT ITS ROOT.**

**a) Categories of Animal Protection Activity**

There are three main approaches to tackling an animal welfare problem:
- Service delivery
- Campaigning and lobbying
- Education.

**Service delivery:** The largest and most prominent animal protection societies, including the SPCAs, are those that provide animal protection services, such as stray control, euthanasia, sheltering, fostering, re-homing, veterinary care for animals of the disadvantaged, disaster relief and rescue, inspection and enforcement, training, instruction and advice on animal protection issues (in particular to the authorities).

**Campaigning and lobbying** to improve the status and welfare of animals. Campaigning is considered the ‘engine for social change’ and has already resulted in some groundbreaking changes for animals. Lobbying can be highly effective at securing improvements to the laws protecting animals.

**Education:** The purpose of humane education is to sensitise individuals to the plight of animals, thereby generating empathy and improving the treatment of animals. It is a long-term investment that changes both the practical treatment of animals and the social climate in favour of change.
b) Factors Influencing Your Approach

THE AIM IS TO IDENTIFY THE APPROACH THAT WILL MAKE BEST USE OF AN ORGANISATION’S RESOURCES TOWARDS ENSURING THE MAXIMUM IMPACT FOR THE CHOSEN ISSUE.

Much of the analysis carried out to decide which issue to tackle will also assist in deciding on which approach to take.

The following need to be considered:

**Resources available:** The organisation’s resources, both staff and financial, as well as its particular strengths and skills. This is an important part of the decision. There is no point in deciding that you want to start an animal shelter, if you do not have the finances or the skills needed to do this.

**Nature of the problems to be tackled and the issue:** The analysis of the status of animal protection should highlight vulnerable areas to target. An analysis of feasibility can be added, examining different approaches. This could include important factors such as:

- The numbers of animals likely to be saved or helped by the chosen approach
- The likelihood of long-term beneficial change (contribution towards social change).

**Issues already covered by other animal protection societies:** Look at the issues other animal protection societies work on (if relevant) and the methods and approaches they use. Avoid creating unnecessary duplication or competitive tension in the movement. The aim should be to fill an unmet need.

**Situations specific to your country and culture:** For example, in some countries campaigning is not yet fruitful (because of low levels of democracy for example), in others it may not be permitted to run an animal shelter (as was the case in some former Communist countries in Eastern Europe). You need to examine your own situation, against the possible approaches you could take on your chosen issue.

**Cost:** The full cost of likely approaches should be evaluated and weighed against the likely end results (short and long-term). This may appear mercenary, but it is the only way to ensure that you are using your resources to save as many animals as humanly possible.

Amongst all this logical analysis, there also needs to be some creative vision and inspiration. Some organisations feel driven to work in a certain way. In this case, the organisation has to be built with this objective in mind and any shortcomings rectified to ensure that it is able to cope with its chosen mission.

Deciding which approach to take is a balance of all the above factors. The analysis is relatively simple, compared to the choice!

The next section deals with harnessing the research and resources you need to tackle your chosen issue in the way you have decided.
Detailed plans are needed before you can harness resources. But before you can put together an authoritative plan, you need to research your chosen issue and approach thoroughly and pull together all the relevant information. The following information is intended to assist you in this process.

**Research** is of utmost importance. It is the foundation for all professional activity. In campaigns work, it ensures a thorough understanding of the political and consumer environment, which is vital to the preparation of a targeted campaign with potential to succeed. In service delivery work, it is essential to ensuring the provision of the most appropriate and effective programmes, at the most competitive cost. In educational work, it can help to ensure that educational messages are appropriate, usable and reach target audiences effectively. Well-targeted research can help animal protection activity to succeed without wastage of time or money.

Research is also required to ascertain what, if any, are the legal requirements for setting up and operating a NGO in your country. Every organisation should make a point of researching, and following, the legal requirements its country (or its Charity regulatory body) imposes. This should include aspects of company law, charity law, financial law, health and safety requirements and employment law. If in doubt, legal advice should be sought.

**Meetings and consultations:** Once the available information has been collated, it is helpful to arrange background meetings and fact-finding consultations. These could include potential partners, competitors or anybody involved in the issue or the fight against it such as government, industry, academics, scientists, cultural and religious bodies, vets, lawyers, biologists and other NGOs. This may lead to a greater understanding of areas to target or avoid, driving factors of the problem, relevant political and legislative factors and potential collaborators and competitors.

It may also create a more realistic picture of the obstacles you will have to overcome!

**Staff resources:** You need to make a full and honest assessment of your staff and volunteer resources, including skills, expertise, strengths and weaknesses. This will help identify areas that need recruitment and/or training and development.

**Financial resources:** All the information you gather will help you put together a proper business plan, including a well-prepared budget and project proposal(s). A business plan is an extension of your mission statement (which is explored in the chapter on ‘Strategy’); without a business plan, it will be extremely difficult to fundraise and apply for grants. The various methods of fundraising are examined in the separate chapter on ‘Fundraising’.

It is essential that you check if there are any legal requirements for NGOs in your country. In many countries, NGOs are legally required to have a board of trustees or a committee. Some countries stipulate further requirements; for example in Brazil NGO board members must be residents in Brazil.

Whatever the legal requirement, NGOs do traditionally have boards for moral reasons. As NGOs raise money from the community, it is appropriate that elected individuals from that community oversee the use of that money and ensure that it is used in line with the NGO's objectives and the community's needs. Simply put, NGOs should have boards to ensure that the NGO is acting responsibly. This is not to say that workers in an NGO can't be trusted, just that it is very difficult
for the same person to ‘do’ and to check what’s being done, this should really be carried out by two different sets of people.

The board takes responsibility for the governance of an NGO and usually includes a chair/president, a treasurer, a secretary and general board members. Its main role is to publicly represent the NGO in a positive manner. Board members should help mobilise resources and open doors; they should be influential and share the same vision outlined in the mission statement. Obvious examples include: a local government officer, someone within the local or national education system, a prominent and respected businessperson, someone from a larger animal welfare organisation, someone from another type of NGO in the community (like the chief exec of a children’s charity) or someone from the veterinary profession.

The NGO must stipulate exactly how much responsibility the board members have, how they are elected and removed, and how and when they should meet etc. These provisions should be included in the society’s governing document.

PREPARING A GOVERNING DOCUMENT

A society’s governing document sets out the society’s reason for being and clarifies its intent. It is the ‘instruction manual’ for the NGO, which sets out the rules under which the society will operate. Again, it is important to become familiar with the legal requirements for setting up an NGO and the relevant legislation, prior to preparing a governing document.

A governing document can be referred to in a number of ways, depending upon the law of a particular country. Common names include constitution, by-laws, memorandum and articles of association and statute.

The governing document should contain all the provisions necessary for the effective and efficient running of an NGO, including:

The NGO name: The name is important. It is the most remembered and recognisable feature of an organisation, and it forms the basis of the public’s first impression of the NGO. It is therefore important that the name accurately reflects the organisation’s purpose and is sufficiently different from other NGO names to avoid confusion. In addition, the name must not include a word or expression that might cause offense.

Objectives should be clear and understandable and reflect what the organisation intends to do.

If the organisation is to benefit a particular species or group of animals this should be made clear.

If the benefits of the organisation are to be confined to a particular geographical area, this should also be clarified.

Powers: Committee members will need some powers, which they can use to help them meet the objectives of the NGO; this can include, for example, the power to raise funds and receive contributions, the power to buy or lease any property, and to maintain and equip it for use.

Membership is normally open to any individuals or organisations interested in furthering the NGO’s objectives. The governing document should explain:

- Whether any membership subscription is payable
- How people apply for membership and the criteria for acceptance
Whether members have any voting rights
How membership may be terminated by the committee. (Termination should only happen for good and sufficient reason, and the individual should have the right to be heard before a final decision is made).

Committee members: The governing document should stipulate how many committee members there will be, how they will be appointed and how long they are appointed for. It is usual for committee members to be appointed by the members of the NGO at its annual general meeting. The first committee members may be the people who formally adopt the governing document.

Meetings: The governing document should explain:
- The minimum number of committee meetings that will be held each year (the committee members of even small organisations usually meet at least twice a year)
- The procedure for calling emergency/special meetings
- The procedure for electing the person who will be in control of the meetings, – the meeting ‘chair’
- The minimum number of committee members who need to be present if a meeting is to be valid. (Usually when there are 3-5 committee members, the minimum is 2, but if there are 6-9 committee members, the minimum is 3).

Finance and accounts: All organisations need to keep complete and accurate accounts showing their income and expenditure. Annual statements of accounts for the NGO and an annual report should be produced.

The governing document should give details of the bank account and should state that the assets are to be held in the name of the NGO (not in the name of a committee member).

The number of signatories for cheques should also be stated in the governing document; usually at least two people sign cheques, one of whom should be a committee member.

Amendments: It is important that the governing document sets out a procedure for making amendments to it, as there are likely to be occasions when changes need to be made to meet the changing needs of the NGO.

Dissolution: There may come a time when an NGO cannot continue operating, so the governing document should explain:
- How the NGO may be dissolved
- What happens to any remaining assets (wherever possible they should be passed onto another NGO).

The governing document is normally put into operation by being adopted at a formal meeting of the new committee and general members. The final typed version should be signed by all the committee members and dated the day of the meeting at which it was agreed. The minutes of the meeting should formally record that the governing document was adopted.
Q What are the main barriers stopping animal protection societies from becoming professional, modern NGOs?

A There are a variety of factors including:
- Lack of professional animal protection society managers (the field is small, with a limited career structure)
- The movement appears slow to adopt modern NGO management practices
- Lack of proper strategic management
- Being reactive and passive, rather than proactive and goal-focused.

However, some organisations are becoming very professional in their approach and these can be useful models. There are also effective models in other areas of NGO activity.

Q Why are there so many animal protection organisations in some countries?

A This is probably a case of the market supplying what the market needs at any particular time. However, many animal protection organisations do run out of funding. Also, as this is an activity driven by ethics and emotions, there are many different ideas and approaches.

Q What can WSPA do to help member societies become more professional?

A In addition to providing information resources, WSPA has practical experience with a wide variety of animal protection organisations, so can recommend appropriate models or contacts. Also, WSPA and some of its member societies sometimes hold training sessions, workshops and conferences for animal protection societies. These can be very useful, both in learning new skills and concepts and in exchanging ideas and experiences.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Web Sites
Charity Commission:
www.charity-commission.gov.uk/supportingcharities/default.asp
Guidance for UK charities

The Chronicle of Philanthropy
http://philanthropy.com/

Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/ace/18478
Organisation and operation documents, including ‘How to Form an Animal Protection Society in Your Community’

HSUS advice on forming an animal protection society and developing a mission statement

The Nonprofit Resource Centre
http://not-for-profit.org/
PETA
www.collegeactivist.com/guide-1.asp
Starting a college group

www.animalactivist.com/actguide6.asp
Guide to becoming an activist

White Hat Communications
www.whitehatcommunications.com/nphome.htm
Online Non-Profit Information Centre – includes ‘Non-profit Handbook’ and ‘Improving Quality and Performance in Your Non-profit Organisation’

World Animal Net
http://worldanimal.net/
Includes the World Animal Net Directory of animal protection societies worldwide

Books
The Earthscan Reader on NGO Management
Michael Edwards (Editor), Alan Fowler (Editor)
Publisher: Earthscan
ISBN: 1853838489

Good Governance: Developing Effective Board-Management Relations in Public and Voluntary Organisations
C. Cornforth, C. Edwards
Publisher: CIMA (Chartered Institute of Management Accountants)
ISBN: 1874784906

How to Run a Voluntary Group: A Guide to Successful Organisation and Management
Chris Carling
Publisher: How To Books
ISBN: 1857031350

Managing a Voluntary Organisation
Sheila Evers
Publisher: The Institute of Management
ISBN: 0859462218

Striking a Balance
Alan Fowler
Publisher: Earthscan
ISBN: 1853833258
Effective Management and Organisation for NGOs

Issues in Voluntary and Non-profit Management
Julian Batsleer, Chris Cornforth, Rob Paton
Publisher: Addison-Wesley
ISBN: 0201565471
Strategy is about deciding the nature, domain and scope of an organisation’s activities and the way its success will be evaluated.
CHAPTER 13
STRATEGY

1. Introduction
2. Key Elements
3. Building a Strategy
   a) Developing a Mission Statement
   b) Research and Analysis
   c) Strategic Process
4. Strategic Review
5. The Movement and its Stages of Development
6. Further Resources
CHAPTER 13

INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning is vital to ensure that your organisation follows the most effective course towards its mission. Animal protection societies are bombarded with an increasingly wide and complex set of demands and it is easy to be reduced to a reactive fire-fighting organisation without a clear strategy. This invariably slows down progress towards mission completion.

“STRATEGY IS THE GREAT WORK OF THE ORGANISATION. IN SITUATIONS OF LIFE OR DEATH, IT IS THE TAO OF SURVIVAL OR EXTINCTION. ITS STUDY CANNOT BE NEGLECTED.” – Sun Tzu’s classic ‘The Art of War’ (written about 480-221 BC)

Strategy is about deciding the nature, domain and scope of an organisation’s activities and the way its success will be evaluated.

Essentially it is about using what you have available, in terms of money, people, potential allies etc., in the way that makes the most progress towards your objectives. It can be compared to a route map, which is needed to ensure the most direct route is taken between two points.

The underlying objective should be to maximise mission fulfilment, given available resources. This does not mean tackling everything! It means harnessing resources and leveraging them to the best effect.

IN SIMPLE TERMS, STRATEGY SIGNIFIES: WHERE WE ARE NOW, WHERE WE WANT TO GO, AND HOW WE INTEND TO GET THERE.

KEY ELEMENTS

A strategy can combine some or all of these factors:
- Mission Statement
- Vision
- Core Values
- Critical Success Factors
- Positioning
- Brand (Reputation)
- Operational Planning

Each will be examined in turn, as follows.

Mission Statement

THE MISSION IS, OF COURSE, THE STARTING POINT OF ANY STRATEGY. WE ALL NEED A VISION OF WHO WE ARE AND WHAT WE ARE AIMING FOR. THEN WE NEED TO DECIDE WHAT STEPS WE WILL TAKE TO CLIMB TOWARDS OUR ULTIMATE GOALS.
In essence, a mission statement is the declaration of an organisation’s purpose, its raison d’être.

The mission is important because it can engage both the hearts (culture) and minds (strategy) of the organisation’s staff and the board. A good mission that is used well can be inspirational and develop a strong, shared organisational culture. It helps to ensure that employees are emotionally tied to the organisation and that their goals are in synchrony with those of the organisation.

Guidance on developing a mission statement is given in section 3(a), below.

**Vision**

*Vision is the ultimate goal – it profiles a realistic, credible and attractive future.*

Vision is a longer-range idea of success and, as such, can be a powerful engine, driving an organisation towards excellence.

For most NGOs, a mission alone is probably sufficient. Indeed, it is debatable whether having both a vision and a mission dilutes and confuses what should be a powerful message of intent (particularly for external audiences). In reality, a powerfully worded mission statement will provide a clear indication of the organisation’s ultimate goal and vision because this is what will result if it achieves its organisational purpose, set out in the mission.

**Core Values** are central beliefs deeply understood and shared by every member of an organisation. Core values guide the actions of everyone in the organisation and help shape all of its plans.

**Critical Success Factors** refer to what the organisation must get right to succeed in its mission.

**Positioning** is similar to brand. It is about building a valued and preferred position in the minds of your target audience. It is essentially about how you would like your target audience to describe you.

**Brand (Reputation)** is about developing and communicating powerful and meaningful differences between your offerings and those of your competition.

**Operation planning** is agreeing the practical plans to implement the strategy. A distinction is needed between strategy and operational planning (although the lines are sometimes blurred).

Within NGOs, governing boards tend to deal with strategy, and management deals with operations. In practice however, management often prepares draft strategies for the board to consider and approve.

A **goal** is a specific, measurable statement of what will be done to address a problem or opportunity.

An **objective** is an activity or tactic that will help you accomplish a goal.

**BUILDING A STRATEGY**

The first stage in establishing a strategy is developing a mission statement. This is followed by research and analysis; the building blocks of strategy formulation. This will assist in establishing boundaries and limits in your strategy, which is vital to maintain focus and prioritisation. You are then in a position to chart a pathway to success, and finally, implement your plan.
a) Developing a Mission Statement
The following guidance on developing a mission statement has been adapted from the HSUS web site (see ‘Further Resources’ section for the link).

A mission statement sets forth the fundamental purposes for which your organisation has been formed. It is very important to an organisation’s formation and evolution.

It should cover:
- **Purpose**: why the organisation exists, its goals and objectives?
- **Programme**: how the organisation will achieve its purpose?
- **Principles**: what the organisation’s values are.

**REMEMBER THE 3PS! PURPOSE, PROGRAMME, PRINCIPLES - HSUS**

The mission statement should be:
- **Understandable** to the general public
- **Brief**: no more than a short paragraph
- **Realistic**: in terms of your financial and human resources
- **Specific**: to provide a framework for developing objectives and programmes
- **Broad**: enough to stand the test of time, so it does not need to be reworked frequently
- **Accurate**: reflection of the board’s intent and understanding
- **Operational**: state the expected outcome.

Don’t forget that you can’t do everything for every animal. Keep your mission focused.

b) Research and Analysis
To determine the organisation’s best fit within its industry (the role that will help it to achieve the most for animals), it is strongly recommended to carry out two types of analyses: an internal analysis of the organisation’s resources and its own particular strengths; and secondly, an analysis of its operating environment. A stakeholder analysis, which considers what the various interested parties feel the organisation should do, can also be useful.

An **Internal Analysis** considers the organisation’s resources, both financial and human, and its distinct competencies.

A common and simple tool for this is the **SWOT** analysis, which examines:
- **Strengths**: key strengths, core competencies/capabilities and ‘Unique Selling Points’
- **Weaknesses**: weaknesses in the organisation, things it does less well or cannot cope with
- **Opportunities**: opportunities that may arise for the organisation
- **Threats**: potential threats to the organisation and its work.

A SWOT analysis can be charted on paper or simply prepared from a brainstorming session, this is popular as it throws up many and varied ideas.

**External Analysis**: The **STEEPV** analysis considers the organisation’s broader environment and the situations/factors that could affect its work. This includes:
- **Social**
- **Technological**
- **Economic**
- **Environmental**
- **Political**
- **(Personal) Values**.
When considering the ‘environment’, as indicated in the formula above, the following issues within the animal protection movement should be considered:

- How receptive is the government?
- How receptive are the consumers?
- What is the likelihood of success?
- Position between organisation and wider social movement
- Is the cause more important than the organisation?
- What are the industry's major problems?
- Different forms of cooperation: joint projects, coalitions and affiliations
- How full is the ‘market’ (will you be duplicating the work of others, or is there a real need)?

**Stakeholder Analysis:** The major stakeholders of an animal protection society include the board, staff, members, supporters, funders, partners, suppliers and competitors.

In animal protection organisations, the largest stakeholder group is not even represented here, probably because it cannot be consulted. It is, of course, the animals, and just because they cannot be consulted does not mean they should not be considered. In fact, they should be given priority over all stakeholders, as they are the reason for the organisation’s existence. Animals can be considered by an assessment of how they are affected – numbers, severity and duration for example.

c) **Strategic Process**

As can be seen from the previous sections, there is a tremendous amount of information to gather and assimilate before you can even think about putting together a plan. However, once you know what you want to achieve and you have analysed your organisation’s resources, the broader environment in which it operates and the interests of the various stakeholders involved, you are in a much better position to plan how you will achieve your mission.
The following is a model of the strategic process:

**IF AN ORGANISATION WISHES TO RETAIN ITS ‘STRATEGIC ADVANTAGE’, IT NEEDS TO KEEP ABRSEAST OF CHANGES TO ITS INTERNAL CAPABILITIES AND ITS EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT, WHICH MAY NECESSITATE A CHANGE IN STRATEGY OR OTHER CORRECTIVE ACTION.**

Strategy is not a work that is set in stone as soon as it has been formulated.

**External environment**: An organisation needs to monitor emerging events and its environment and review its plans to see whether changes are appropriate. Many animal protection organisations will need to develop:

- General awareness of the broader strategic options and orientations of the sector
- Greater awareness of the plans and actions of competitors and collaborators
- Greater awareness of the political environment
- Ability to think strategically about aspects of day-to-day responsibility.

**Environmental scan** is a process for discovering and documenting facts and trends in the external environment that might impact an organisation’s future. Scanning means skimming through various sources of information, including television, newspapers and periodicals.

**Environmental scanning should include the following** (but not exclusively):

- Newspaper and news scanning for animal protection issues
- Trade journals
- Scientific press
- Trade conferences and shows
- Animal protection conferences
- Websites of key competitors
- Key animal protection meetings
- Relevant political and governmental conferences and meetings
- Funders’ conferences and meetings with funders
- Supporters’ and donors’ meetings.

When considering the position of the animal protection movement in your country, it may be helpful to bear in mind the following model, which sets out the **five major stages in the growth of the movement** (adapted from comments by Kim Stallwood, a long-time animal activist, author, editor and founder of The Institute for Animals and Society):

- **Acceptance building**: broad, softer education
- **Awareness and consensus building**: campaigning – harder, more focused, issue-related education, consumer awareness and lobbying
- **Legislation**
- **Action to embed legislation**: investigations and exposés, enforcement, legal action (test cases) etc.
- **Functioning system of protection.**
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Amnesty International: Strategic Campaigning

Humane Society of the United States
www.hsus.org/ace/18478

Humane Society organisation and operation documents
HSUS advice on forming an animal protection society and developing a mission statement

Organisational strategy
www.family-business-experts.com/organisational-strategy.html

Books
The Art of the Long View: Planning for the Future in an Uncertain World
By: Peter Schwartz
Publisher: John Wiley and Sons Ltd
ISBN: 0471977853

Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analysing Industries and Competitors
By: Michael E. Porter
Publisher: Free Press
ISBN: 0743260880

Exploring Corporate Strategy: Text and Cases with Business Dictionary
By: Kevan Scholes, Gerry Johnson, Richard Whittington
Publisher: FT Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0582843294

The Leader’s Change Handbook: An Essential Guide to Setting Direction and Taking Action
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By: Henry Mintzberg
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons Inc
ISBN: 0029213711
The New, Completely Revised Understanding Organisations
Charles Handy
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ISBN: 0141017309

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By: Liam Fahey (Editor), Robert M. Randall (Editor)
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ISBN: 0471197084

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Henry Mintzberg
Publisher: Financial Times Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273650378

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Henry Mintzberg, Bruce Ahlstrand, Joseph Lampel
Publisher: Financial Times Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273656368

The Strategy Process
James Brian Quinn, Henry Mintzberg, Joseph B. Lampel (Editor), Sumantra Ghoshal (Editor)
Publisher: Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0131227904

What Is Strategy and Does It Matter?
Richard Whittington
Publisher: Thomson Learning
ISBN: 1861523777
An important stage of project management is evaluation. Evaluation is vital if the organisation is to continuously improve its performance and avoid repeating past mistakes.
Some animal protection societies manage enormous projects, involving large amounts of resources. Yet only a few use professional project management methods. They may also be poor at feedback and evaluation and therefore their mistakes and shortcomings can be repeated. This means they could be wasting valuable resources, most importantly their hard-won donations and their most valuable asset – their people. They could also be delaying progress towards the achievement of their mission and adding to stress and burn-out. Project management tools can help organisations avoid all of these pitfalls.

A project is any activity that has:
- A unique task
- A specified target
- A set timescale
- A fixed budget.

Every project should aim to be:
- On time
- To specification
- On budget.

Project analysis: There should be considerable analysis before the start of the project, which gives consideration to the following:
- The project manager’s role and responsibilities
- The stakeholders’ interests
- Project objectives
- Alternatives
- Risk analysis.

The project manager needs to complete the following planning activities:
- Identify clear project goals
- Define the project boundaries, referred to as ‘scoping’, what is included and what is not included in the project
- Recruit and build the team
- Agree how team members will work together
- Assess the work in broad terms
- Assign accountability and decide who will do what
- Assess risks and develop contingencies
- Assess potential implications for other departments and stakeholders and consult and involve them
- Assess project resources
- Develop a fundraising strategy with fundraising professionals, if possible
- Develop a project schedule
- Break the project down into manageable parts; sub-projects
- Agree the project budget
• Develop and write up a final project plan.

A brief overview of some of the main project planning activities follows. This is intended to give a general idea of some of the various activities involved, but should be viewed as a starting point.

**Identify clear project goals:** It is vital to identify clear project goals, ensuring that these provide maximum possible progress towards priority issue goals, as agreed in the organisational strategy.

Formulate your goals so that they are achievement-orientated, and not activity-orientated. For example, you could aim to recruit a certain number of campaigners; this would be an achievement-orientated goal. The goal would be activity-orientated if you aimed to set up a certain number of stalls to recruit new campaigners.

**Defining the project scope:** A ‘scoping’ statement does several things:
- It defines the project’s place in a larger context
- It describes the major activities of the project
- It puts some boundaries on the project to define what the project will and will not do.

The project scoping statement contains the definition and detailed description of what will be produced by the project and the desired outcomes. It specifies the name and purpose of the project, the project manager’s name and a statement of support and approval from the sponsor, if applicable.

**Defining the project scope involves:**
- Defining what is expected from the project and the criteria that will be used to evaluate results. This is very important as is sets out a template against which progress can be measured. Evaluation is very important for a number of reasons: it provides an opportunity to learn from past mistakes, it extracts useful feedback which can be conveyed to funders, members and supporters, and it identifies areas that can be improved upon
- Explaining how the project will contribute to the overall goals, as set out in the organisational strategy
- Clearly defining the methods, tasks, basic conditions, project objectives and final outcome(s)
- Defining the project boundaries; what is included and not included in the project
- Identifying all the stakeholders, persons or groups of people who are participating in the project, are interested in the project performance, or are constrained by the project
- Establishing the overall direction, expectations and constraints that the team will use when they plan the project.

**Recruit and build the team:** Make sure you have the right people on the team and that they have all the training, development and support they need for the task.

Also ensure that all key stakeholders have some type of representation, to advise the team.

**Allocation of responsibilities and accountability:** Write out the allocation of responsibilities, including areas of budget responsibility and budgetary approval limits. A key feature of being accountable is being able to show that any money given was used for its intended purpose. To do this, an organisation must keep accurate and up-to-date records.

**Assessing risk:** Explore what might go wrong, then identify countermeasures to prevent problems from occurring and designate a team member who will be responsible for each countermeasure.

**Resource planning:** Identify the resources the project requires: personnel, money, equipment, materials, time, facilities etc. Optimise scheduling with respect to all available and procurable resources.
Developing a project schedule: Identify project phases, milestones and outcome schedules. Then schedule all the works that must be accomplished to meet the project key dates and objectives. Communicate the dates by which major accomplishments in the project will be completed to the project’s sponsor, to the trustees, supporters, donors and other stakeholders.

Developing the project budget: Identify and calculate the prospective costs of project outcomes. Develop a spending budget, which includes the projected cost of the project.

Writing the project plan: Compile the information gathered in the course of the planning stage into a formal project plan and obtain formal approval from the project sponsor. Agree and document the procedures that will be used to make changes to the plan.

The project plan should include:
- Project goals
- Activities
- Allocation of responsibility with regard to budget and timeline
- Other departments involved
- Risk analysis and contingency planning
- Measurable project targets, and who is responsible for each target
- Progress reporting arrangements.

It is best to think of planning as a cycle, not a straight-line process.

Once you have devised a plan you should evaluate whether it is likely to succeed. This evaluation may be based on a number of factors, including cost and likelihood of success and impact. This analysis may show that your plan may cause unwanted consequences, may cost too much, or may simply not work.

In this case you should cycle back to an earlier stage. Alternatively you may have to abandon the plan altogether; the outcome of the planning process may be that it is best to do nothing!

Finally, you should feed back what you have learned from one plan into the next.

The Planning Cycle
ESTIMATING TIME ACCURATELY

Gantt Charts and Critical Path Analyses help you to plan all tasks that must be completed as part of a project. They act as the basis both for preparation of a schedule and of resource planning. During management of a project, they allow you to monitor achievement of project goals. They also help you to see where remedial action needs to be taken to get a project back on course.

Gantt Charts can be used to estimate time for small and medium sized projects, and Critical Path Analysis and PERT are generally used for large, complex projects.

**Gantt Charts:** A Gantt Chart is a time-line chart, which plots project activities against a calendar. Durations for each task are shown graphically on a time scale ranging from hours to a year. Views can be provided of tasks, resources, or resource usage by task, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tasks</th>
<th>Month 1</th>
<th>Month 2</th>
<th>Month 3</th>
<th>Month 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task A</td>
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<td>Task B</td>
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<td>Task C</td>
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<tr>
<td>Task D</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gantt Charts:
- Help you to plan out the tasks that need to be completed
- Give you a basis for scheduling when these tasks will be carried out
- Allow you to plan the allocation of resources needed to complete the project
- Help you to manage the dependencies between tasks.

Typically, Gantt Charts indicate the exact duration of specific tasks, but they can also include:
- Relationship between tasks
- Planned and actual completion dates
- Cost of each task
- Person(s) responsible for each task
- Project milestones.

When a project is underway, Gantt Charts are useful for monitoring progress. You can immediately see what should have been achieved at a point in time and can therefore take remedial action to bring the project back on course. This can be essential for the successful and profitable implementation of the project.

**Critical Path Analysis and Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)** are powerful tools that help you to schedule and manage complex projects. They were developed in the 1950s to control large defence projects and have been used routinely since then.

The benefit of using Critical Path Analysis techniques over Gantt Charts is that Critical Path Analysis identifies tasks that must be completed on time for the whole project to be completed on time, and also identifies which tasks can be delayed for a while if resources need to be reallocated to catch up on missed tasks.
The disadvantage of Critical Path Analysis is that the relation of tasks to time is not as immediately obvious in complex projects as it is in Gantt Charts. This can make them more difficult to understand for someone who is not familiar with the technique.

A further benefit of Critical Path Analysis is that it helps you to identify the minimum length of time needed to complete a project. Where you need to run an accelerated project, it helps you to identify which project steps you should accelerate to complete the project within the available time. This helps you to minimise cost while still achieving your objective.

The Critical Path represents the sequence of tasks or events that directly affect the completion of a project. Knowing the Critical Path allows the project manager to shorten or at least control a project’s schedule by focusing on those tasks that directly affect the project’s completion.

Critical Path Analysis is an effective and powerful method of assessing:
- What tasks must be carried out
- Where parallel activity can be performed
- The shortest time in which you can complete a project
- Resources needed to execute a project
- The sequence of activities, scheduling and timings involved
- Task priorities
- The most efficient way of shortening time on urgent projects.

As with Gantt Charts, project managers in practise tend to use software tools like Microsoft Project to create Critical Path Analysis charts. Not only do these make them easier to draw, they also make modification of plans easier and provide facilities for monitoring progress against plans.

**PERT (Programme Evaluation and Review Technique)** is a variation on Critical Path Analysis that takes a slightly more sceptical view of time estimates made for each project stage. To use it, estimate the shortest possible time each activity will take, the most likely length of time and the longest time that might be taken, if the activity takes longer than expected.

**ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS RELEVANT TO PROJECT SIZE**

**Large-scale projects:** If a large-scale project is considered, it can be useful to carry out a smaller scale version, a pilot project, in order to test the project and methodology. This enables an assessment of value to be carried out, before launching into a major project that will involve a significant time and resource commitment. It will also:
- Allow operational problems to be anticipated and solved at an early stage
- Provide a positive practical example to bring funders and other stakeholders on board.

**Simple projects** are often best managed using simple timetables and action plans. These should be prepared and negotiated with project staff. These should contain sufficient control points to monitor project progress and take any appropriate remedial action.

Planning should aim to make the task easier, not to build unnecessary workloads. The simplest method for the task is often the best option.
An important stage of project management is evaluation. This cannot be done unless SMART targets (particularly measurable and timed targets) are agreed in advance. Evaluation is vital if the organisation is to continuously improve its performance and avoid repeating past mistakes. On no account should evaluation be viewed as a 'witch hunt', to apportion blame for project problems. It should be viewed as an important organisational tool to help learning and organisational development, maximising effectiveness (and therefore mission fulfilment).

There are many reasons why projects fail, including:
• Poor planning
• Time scales too ambitious
• Insufficient risk analysis
• Poor budgetary control
• No change/delay notices
• Lack of procedures
• Lack of effective monitoring and control
• Project manager was not empowered
• Team responsibilities were not clear

FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Create a Gantt Chart in Excel

Gantt Chart and Timeline Centre
www.smartdraw.com/resources/centres/gantt/

Mind Tools – Project Planning
www.mindtools.com/pages/main/newMN_PPM.htm

Project Management Institute
www.pmi.org/info/default.asp

Books
The Definitive Guide to Project Management: The Fast Track to Getting the Job Done on Time and on Budget
Sebastian Nokes
Publisher: Financial Times Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273663976

Project Management, 3rd Ed.
Harvey Maylor
Publisher: FT Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273655418
Project Management
Mike Field, Laurie Keller
Publisher: Thomson Learning
ISBN: 1861522746

Project Management for Dummies
Stanley Portney
Publisher: John Wiley and Sons Inc
ISBN: 076455283X
Having a successful fundraising strategy allows you to plan for the future and will ensure that your organisation can expand its activities and work towards its objectives.
CHAPTER 15
FUNDRAISING

1. Introduction
2. Fundraisers
3. Fundraising Basics
4. Fundraising Methods
   a) Trusts and Grants
   b) Individual Supporters
   c) Major Donors
   d) Events
5. Making a Case for Support
6. Questions & Answers
7. Further Resources
Almost all animal protection organisations need to raise money to enable them to do their work. Large organisations have whole teams of fundraisers, with people specialising in a particular area of fundraising. In smaller organisations one volunteer may be responsible for all fundraising activities and may have to combine fundraising with other duties.

In many countries of the world, charity fundraising is a new concept, and some people are uncomfortable with the idea of asking people for money. However, if you are doing good work, then you deserve to raise the money to do it. Fundraising is not begging, it is an exchange; people will pay societies to do work that they believe in, but cannot do themselves.

Having a successful fundraising strategy allows you to plan for the future and will ensure that your organisation can expand its activities and work towards its objectives. However fundraising demands a large time commitment. To fundraise successfully you need to ensure you have the people and the time to do it well.

Fundraising is a skill, and fundraisers need a variety of personal qualities to be able to raise money from a wide range of people and organisations:

**Commitment:** a fundraiser should be clear about the organisation’s aims and objectives. If you do not believe in what you are doing, you won’t raise money. Fundraisers must be passionate about what they wish to do, and that passion will be infectious. Supporters most often give to a cause because of the people carrying the message.

**Confidence:** fundraisers must enjoy working with and talking with people, they must have excellent communication skills and be persuasive. They must also have the ability to motivate colleagues and volunteers.

**Organised:** fundraisers need to have excellent organisational skills and be flexible and adaptable to new opportunities.

**Analytical:** fundraisers must be able to analyse every part of their work and assess what strategies are and are not working.

**Resilient:** fundraisers will face a lot of rejection when appealing for money and it is vital that they stay positive in stressful situations and work well under pressure.

**TIP: BE PASSIONATE ABOUT YOUR WORK.**
There is a saying in fundraising that ‘people give to people’. We give to other individuals who show passion and energy and commitment, which in turn inspires us and connects us to their work. If you communicate your genuine belief in your organisation then others will pick up on it. It then becomes part of the work of a fundraiser to stay inspired. Visit some of the animals you are helping or remind yourself of your successes before you pick up the phone or write a letter.
Raise friends before you raise funds
Fundraising is not only about money, it is also an opportunity to communicate and establish relationships with people who share the same values. Once you have friends and advocates, cash will come in.

Nurture relationships with supporters so they will be committed to the organisation’s results. It gives both parties a shared sense of a future in which small individual actions can make a difference in improving animals’ lives and ultimately improving the communities we live in.

TIP: ENJOY YOURSELF.
REMEMBER IT’S ALL ABOUT FINDING LIKE-MINDED PEOPLE WHO THINK WHAT YOU ARE DOING IS GREAT. THIS PROCESS OF ENGAGING WITH OTHERS AND INSPIRING THEM ABOUT YOUR WORK, CAN ACTUALLY BE GREAT FOR YOU. IT CAN BOOST YOUR CONFIDENCE AND GIVE YOU A RENEWED SENSE OF ALL THE CHANGE THAT IS POSSIBLE IN YOUR COMMUNITY OR COUNTRY.

Involvement
Most organisations raise far more money when their supporters are involved in the actual work. Invite donors to participate in some upcoming events, or ask them to write to their congressmen or women or come to your shelter and take dogs for a walk. Creating a greater sense of ownership in local development initiatives will help sustain these initiatives over the long-term.

Volunteers make the best fundraisers; they know the organisation firsthand, they are able to share personal experiences, they believe in the cause, they are enthusiastic and have the organisation’s best interest at heart, they lend credibility to an organisation, they are more likely to bring friends to the organisation and they come at little or no expense. Furthermore supporters give because they are usually impressed by a volunteer’s selfless dedication.

TIP: DON’T FORGET TO ASK FOR HELP.
SO YOU HAVE FOUND SOMEONE WHO LIKES YOUR WORK, YOU HAVE INSPIRED THEM WITH YOUR CONVERSATION OR YOUR LETTER – SO DON’T FORGET TO ASK FOR HELP! YOU NEED TO SAY, AS DIRECTLY AS YOU CAN, “YOU CAN HELP US IF YOU GIVE US XXX…” HOW STRONGLY YOU SHOULD ASK WILL PARTLY DEPEND ON CULTURAL DIFFERENCES. YOU WILL BE BEST PLACED TO KNOW WHAT WILL FEEL APPROPRIATELY FORCEFUL WITHOUT BEING TOO AGGRESSIVE.

Gain trust
It is important to be transparent and accountable in all your dealings with donors. Lack of trust is a major reason for not giving funds to an organisation. Organisations will not be forgiven for keeping less than adequate bookkeeping. Supporters can be very perceptive and will be more inclined to give for results than out of pity, so written appeals must be clear and concise. Successful fundraising is wholly dependent on your organisation fulfilling its mission with authority, effectiveness and efficiency. When fundraising, always watch overhead costs to ensure most of the money goes to helping the animals.

Always tell the truth. If a fundraising activity fails, admit it, learn from it and move on. Generally animal protection societies are decent, hardworking organisations, inspired by a dream, surviving on a shoestring and, by the law of averages, will make mistakes. Right the wrong and move on.
There are a variety of fundraising methods, and there is no right answer as to which methods will work best for any given country, culture or situation. Every effective fundraiser has a ritual ‘test it and see’ policy. So each time a fundraising method is used, it is tried, analysed and then amended, repeated or rejected, depending on the results. This is done on a regular basis to adapt to market forces and changes.

In general, it is best not to rely on a single source, or even just a couple of sources, of income. Legacies, trusts and grants are not regular and reliable forms of income. Legacies are, by nature, sporadic. Trusts and grants usually only offer project-by-project funding. Funding from donors and supporters is core income, and time and effort should be placed into this source, always remembering to spread the risk by developing other methods at the same time.

### a) Trusts and Grants

Foundation grants can be profitable in the short term. They are useful when a society is getting started, but then they should become a lower priority. Institutions generally only give funds for short term projects; rarely can you count on grants for ongoing core funding and overheads.

Focus on funding institutions where your supporters have or can build contacts. Let everyone know which institutions support you. Groups that have already received grants impress other funding institutions.

Little investment is needed when applying for grants. They require minimal cash and it doesn’t take long to write a proposal to a funding agency; expect one to twenty hours per proposal for research and writing. However be aware that most grant applications are rejected as there are just too many animal causes, special interest groups and animal welfare organisations battling for grant support from local and international foundations.

Grants are increasingly vulnerable to changing political climates, the priorities of donor countries and competition. Most funders refuse to fund the same groups year after year so you will be constantly searching for new institutions. In addition, grant funding does not build your organisation’s supporters and they reduce your independence to pursue programmes as you see fit. Therefore longterm reliance on grants is not desirable, nor sustainable.

### b) Individual Supporters

People care and will give if asked. One of the most important challenges for an organisation is to find people who share the same values and give them opportunities to help. Individual donors have great potential, indeed there is strength in numbers. By reaching out to the general public, you can increase awareness of your issue, increase political legitimacy and participate in social development.
When most organisations start, they need to raise more money and expand their supporter base. Older members of the community may have more funds to give, but remember to also target younger audiences so they can grow with your organisation.

**TIP: BE CLEAR ABOUT WHAT YOU NEED.**
**IF SOMEONE ASKED YOU TODAY HOW THEY COULD HELP, WOULD YOU HAVE A CLEAR LIST OF THINGS YOU NEED MONEY FOR? WOULD YOU BE ABLE TO POINT TO A FEW THINGS THAT DIDN'T COST MUCH AND OTHER THINGS THAT COST MORE?**

Contact potential supporters with a simple message so people will understand and support your cause. Every appeal should include an educational message; a supporter will become loyal if they feel they are part of the cause and more importantly, the solution. That can only happen if you educate them. Most people are also likely to respond when they react emotionally to an appeal; when they can understand the suffering of individual animals and that by giving funds for a specific purpose they can help take away that suffering.

One particularly effective method is to give indications of what specific amounts of money can buy, for example:

- $25 can buy feed for a hungry horse for a month
- $100 can buy a horse a new bridle to stop painful mouth sores
- $200 can rescue a horse and find it a new home.

It is important to realise that an individual donor relationship may start with one dollar, but it may turn into a sizable contribution in ten to fifteen years. Increase one individual donation by asking again, but be flexible in asking for a donation, don’t always ask for money. The ‘ask’ could be a request for services, volunteer work or just buying a raffle ticket. Building a relationship with individual supporters is essential for the act of giving to be continuous. A supporter can be asked as many times as possible for as long as the supporter is assured that the donation is well spent. However, once an organisation has a certain number of supporters, it can then decide whether it would be appropriate to introduce regular membership fees. This prevents the organisation from having to keep asking supporters for funds.

Whenever support is given, it must always be acknowledged and then followed up so that the supporter knows how the money has been used. If the supporter is not told how their funds have been used, they will not become committed to the society. Informing supporters of how their money is being used is also important as it ensures that they are not only contacted when an organisation needs money, otherwise they may begin to feel more like your bank than your friend.

The supporter base can be increased by mass mailing potential supporters or past supporters. Mass marketing techniques are the most reliable forms of repeat gifts, however most societies lose about 20% of their supporters every year, so new supporters must constantly be added.

Direct marketing can be expensive to start up, so involve volunteers wherever possible to personalise letters to friends, handle receipts and write thank you letters. Supporters can also be contacted by telephone; reply rates can be five times better than by mail, and average donations two or three times higher.

**TIP: BE CLEAR ABOUT WHAT DIFFERENCE YOUR WORK IS MAKING.**
**PEOPLE USUALLY GIVE TO CHARITIES BECAUSE THEY WANT THE WORLD TO BE A BETTER PLACE IN SOME WAY. HOW WILL WHAT YOU ARE DOING MAKE THE WORLD A BETTER PLACE? CAN YOU ARTICULATE THAT TO OTHER PEOPLE?**
c) Major Donors

By establishing a relationship with individuals and cultivating that relationship to build understanding and commitment to the society’s missions, there is a potential, though not easy or short term, for major donors. Potential major donors are those supporters who know all about an organisation and are probably already regular donors, have strong values and resources and view giving as an investment.

Visit your most generous supporters first, and if possible only ask for a major gift by personal contact, not by phone or mail. If you have done your research correctly you should expect that about 60% of prospective major donors give. Don’t expect very large gifts initially, but most big donors will give again and give more if you have treated them well. Some may pledge larger amounts over a few years. It is important that you identify their needs, allow them to set the pace of their relationship with your organisation, and allow them freedom of choice of when and how they want to give. Be aware that if someone has made their largest gift, they may not be able to give again.

The risk associated with targeting potential major donors is that it may annoy your most generous supporters. This risk can be reduced by good research and tailoring your request to the wants of the potential major donor. There is little cash investment required in targeting major donors; fancy printed material is not essential. But you will need time to identify prospects, to research prospects, to learn how to ask, and to provide progress reports and final evaluations.

Concentrate on upgrading current supporters who know the work you do very well and could give large amounts. Old friends may surprise you with generous gifts if they are asked properly.

d) Events

Fundraising events can raise a large sum of money in a short period of time. They can be held once an organisation has a good base of volunteers and friends. Events are a good idea to attract new supporters who would not otherwise give and to get more donations from current supporters. However they are not a good idea if they just take donations that would have been given anyway through another, cheaper method.

When events bring in new supporters, there must be a system in place to follow up and get them to give again. Without concentrated effort most events generate little awareness; to ensure they do generate awareness, events need to be well planned and must involve the right people.

The results of events vary; profits can be slim or net thousands depending on the way the event was organised. An organisation can lose a lot if it commits to big expenses and few people come to the event. Beware of bad weather and other events at the same time. Events take a lot of time and are very labour intensive; many hours of volunteer and staff time are needed. Very careful budgeting is therefore needed to ensure that you don’t lose money.

An event can be the highlight of a campaign, something that is done year after year, or it can be used as a reward for major donors. Good events can be repeated again and again for ten years or more. Many of the same donors will come each year, if invited. Repeat the same events, correcting past mistakes each time. Don’t abandon a productive event because you are bored. The donors are just getting used to it.

Although the main purpose of the event is to raise money, with effort, your guests can walk away, looking forward to returning the next time. Giving guests an enjoyable experience at an event takes a lot of hard work. The trick is to make the final results run like a seamless, timed production.
Although we may come from different cultures and faith backgrounds, and live in societies with different attitudes to charity and animal welfare, human nature is pretty much the same the world over. We all need to be persuaded to give our hard-earned money to another person or organisation. This is true for multinational corporations, governments or an elderly person who may give you a few pennies of their savings.

All these groups require, and indeed deserve, a well argued ‘case for support’; this is a statement that covers all the things they will need to know before deciding to give to a project. This checklist should be covered in any request for money, whether an official application form, a marketing letter or indeed a conversation at your charity’s open day. Get to know the principles in this checklist and get someone else to look over any letter (not the person who has prepared it), funding application or speech to ensure all the points are covered.

A case of support should touch upon the following:

**Who you are and what you are doing**

So who is your organisation? How long has it been in existence? Who runs it? Are you honest and reliable people? Why do you exist? What is your purpose? Are you trying to change the world, or just the town where you live? Make sure your organisation sounds solid, clear about its aims, trustworthy and respectable.

Also show people you will be a pleasure to work with! People want to enjoy the charities they support and the people they deal with there. So if it is appropriate, show you have a sense of humour and are kind and polite. Show that if people get involved you won’t lecture them with your personal views about animal welfare, or expose them to images or stories of animal suffering that might be distressing to them. A lot of people who care about animals will not want to be exposed to the detail of how bad things can be for animals.

**The specific objectives and programmes of the project for which you are asking**

So what exactly are you going to do if you get the funds you need? Build a shelter, treat animals, raise awareness, educate children in schools or campaign? You must show that you have thought this through, that this is a well-planned piece of work that makes good sense. How exactly will you do all this? Have you got to hire new staff or buy a vehicle? And what is your timetable?

**Why the appeal is important and urgent**

Why is it essential that you do this work and do it now? Why can’t you wait a few years? This is very
important because the majority of people who don't give do want to help but they just put off giving because they think they'll do it another time. You must make them feel they have to help NOW, that this is the moment to act if they want the world to change for the better.

And why is it important? How will the world be a better place if you do this work? How many animals will be helped? How much suffering will be eased or prevented? Inspire people with your vision of the benefits of this work. This part of your appeal should uplift the spirit and make the donor feel very happy that they could be part of something so positive and life enhancing. Positive and happy images of animals free from suffering, especially ones you have helped already, will often help you with this.

**What will happen if this appeal for support fails**
Show what might happen if the money is not raised. Paint a grim picture of the problem not getting solved or tackled, the suffering perhaps getting worse or maybe losing a critical opportunity to make a difference. You are not trying to frighten or upset your potential donor, but you do need them to understand that turning away from this opportunity to help might have consequences.

**How much money you are trying to raise**
You must know very specifically how much money you need and for what. It helps if you can provide a budget that lists all your costs, which also helps to show your honesty and how the money will be spent on the work. Also indicate how much you would like this particular person or organisation to contribute.

**Over what period of time you are attempting to raise the money**
Given a specific timescale, people will sense the urgency more clearly. For example, do you need a specific amount of money in three weeks’ time to purchase something? A timetable will also show people you have planned this properly.

**Who else is contributing**
People like to contribute to something that others also think is worthwhile. Mention other admired or respected donors in your community who have given (but ask their permission first), or tell people how many other individuals have offered their help.

**Relate to donors**
Show how a donor’s potential gift will be a reflection of what they care about. Show that you know who they are and what aspect of this work matters to them. If necessary, tell them what part of the project they are paying for. For example they can pay for the vaccines, or for a day’s work by a vet. If they particularly care about cats, see if you can give them a part of the project that will help cats.

**Be concise, coherent, urgent and motivating**
The challenge is to do all of this in a concise and straightforward way, so people can easily read and understand your important message and will be motivated to help you.

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**TIP: SAY THANK YOU AS MUCH AS YOU CAN.**
**WHEN PEOPLE ARE GENEROUS YOU SHOULD BE VERY APPRECIATIVE. MAKE THEM FEEL REALLY GOOD ABOUT THEIR DECISION, BOTH WHEN THEY GIVE AND LATER ON AS WELL. AFTER THE WORK THEY FUNDED IS COMPLETED, WRITE THEM A LETTER AND EXPLAIN THE DIFFERENCE THEY MADE. THEY WILL BE FAR MORE LIKELY TO HELP AGAIN.**
Q What is restricted funding?

A This is funding that is earmarked for a specific purpose only. Usually foundation grants are restricted – the money given by a foundation can only be spent on the work outlined in the grant application. Most organisations avoid raising donations for ‘restricted funds’, whenever they can. This is because all their work needs to be funded, and accounting for restrictive funds is often a logistical nightmare. Most organisations avoid this by wording their appeals to supporters in a way that indicates that donations are used for both the given purpose and, for example, their ‘other work to save animals around the world’.

Q What is meant by ‘mission drift’?

A Mission drift refers to a move away from the aims and objectives of an organisation in order to chase possible funding sources. This could occur, for example, when a charitable trust refuses an application, but suggests that it would provide funding for a different project. Mission drift can be avoided by charting a steady course towards the aim, with longer term planning, and then setting a fundraising strategy to achieve this course. However, offers from trusts and grant-making bodies should not be rejected out-of-hand, as they may suggest other equally, or more, effective projects.

Q Charitable fundraising is new in my country and very difficult. Should we start by copying approaches used in other countries?

A Fundraising opportunities vary greatly from country-to-country and culture-to-culture. The ‘test it and see’ policy is recommended, as outlined above. But before this, deep thought and analysis will need to be given to what is likely to succeed in your country, based on current circumstances and culture, in order not to waste time and money on methods that may not work in your region. It may also be worthwhile studying what other better-established national NGOs are doing in your country in the fundraising field.

Q We have been offered funding from a pet food company. Should we accept this?

A It is difficult to answer this question in isolation. It is recommended that an organisation establish an ethical fundraising policy, so that the Board can consider different funding options, and decide what is ethically acceptable to your organisation and what is not. This may partly depend on your area of activities and your policies.

In this specific example, there are two main considerations: firstly, does the company test on animals? Secondly, how closely is the company connected to the pet trade (promotion of pedigree animals, breeding etc.), and do they promote responsible pet ownership?
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Centre on Philanthropy and Civil Society
www.philanthropy.org/

Charities Aid Foundation (UK)
www.cafonline.org

The Chronicle of Philanthropy
http://philanthropy.com/

The Council of Europe: references to publications, articles and sources of funding
www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural_Co-operation/Youth/5._Information_services/Resources_by_topic/FUNDING.asp

Directory of Funding Sources (for environmental NGOs in central and eastern Europe)
www.rec.org/REC/Databases/Funders/Default.html

The Effect of Change, an article by Jim Henry for BOND, about the changing fundraising landscape
www.globalpolicy.org/ngos/fund/2003/0606effect.htm

European Foundation Centre
www.efc.be/

The Foundation Centre
www.fdncenter.org/

Fundraising strategies and realities
www.gdrc.org/ngo/funding/cafe-strategies.html

Global Policy Forum: Funding for NGOs
www.globalpolicy.org/ngos/role/fundindx.htm

Groundspring’s Online Fundraising Handbook
www.groundspring.org/learningcenter/handbook.cfm

HSUS: Fundraising and Public Relations
www.hsus.org/ace/16122

Humane Link: Grants
http://humanelink.view.org/educ/hegrants.html

The Institute of Fundraising
www.institute-of-fundraising.org.uk/

NGO fundraising strategies
www.gdrc.org/ngo/funding/fund-raising.html

Resource Alliance
www.resource-alliance.org
Southern African Institute of Fundraising
www.geocities.com/Athens/Delphi/4594/

List of grant giving bodies:
www.lib.msu.edu/harris23/grants/2animal.htm

Books
Boards That Love Fundraising: A How-to Guide for Your Board
Robert M. Zimmerman, Ann W. Lehman
Publisher: Jossey-Bass
ISBN: B000222F0Y

The Complete Fundraising Handbook
Sam Clarke, Nina Botting (Editor), Michael Norton (Editor)
Publisher: Directory of Social Change
ISBN: 1900360845

Corporate Fundraising
Valerie Morton (Editor)
Publisher: Directory of Social Change/Charities Aid Foundation
ISBN: 1903991005

CPR for Nonprofits: Creative Strategies for Successful Fundraising, Marketing, Communications and Management
Alvin Reiss
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787952419

Cultivating Diversity in Fundraising
Janice Gow Petty
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
ISBN: B000066BRQ

Do's and Don'ts of Fundraising: How to Be a Successful Fund-Raiser
Adrienne Johnson, Joseph Johnson, Suzanne Mayo-Theus
Publisher: Leathers Publishing
ISBN: 1585972630

Effective Fundraising: An Informal Guide
Luke FitzHerbert
Publisher: Directory of Social Change
ISBN: 1903991404

Event Planning: The Ultimate Guide to Successful Meetings, Corporate Events, Fundraising Galas, Conferences, Conventions, Incentives and Other Special Events
Judy Allen
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
ISBN: 0471644129
Fundraising for Dummies
John Mutz
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons Inc
ISBN: 0764552201

Fundraising in Diverse Cultural and Giving Environments
Robert E. Fogal (Editor)
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 078796512X

Fundraising on the Internet:
M. Warwick
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787960454

How to Write Successful Fundraising Letters
M. Warwick
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 078795652X

The Law of Fundraising
Bruce R. Hopkins
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
ISBN: 0471206121

Marketing Strategy: For Effective Fundraising
Peter Maple
Publisher: Directory of Social Change/Charities Aid Foundation
ISBN: 1903991382

A Practitioner’s Guide to Charity Fundraising
Elizabeth Cairns
Publisher: Tolley Publishing
ISBN: 0754520269

Relationship Fundraising: A Donor-based Approach to the Business of Raising Money
Ken Burnett
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787960896

Revolution in the Mailbox: Your Guide to Successful Direct Mail Fundraising
Mal Warwick
Publisher: Jossey-Bass
ISBN: B0001QNKBE

Teach Yourself: Fundraising
Jenny Barlow
Publisher: Hodder Arnold H&S
ISBN: 0340857838
Ten Steps to Fundraising Success: Choosing the Right Strategy for Your Organisation
Mal Warwick, Stephen Hitchcock
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787956740

Tried and Tested Ideas: For Local Fundraising Events
Sarah Passingham
Publisher: Directory of Social Change
ISBN: 1903991374

The Worldwide Fundraisers Handbook
Michael Norton
Publisher: Directory of Social Change
ISBN: 190399134X
Support services are the practical, operational areas of an organisation, including information technology, financial management and office management.
CHAPTER 16
SUPPORT SERVICES

1. Introduction

2. Information Technology (IT)

3. Financial Management
   a) Keeping Records
   b) Internal Controls
   c) Budgeting
   d) Financial Reporting
   e) Outsourcing

4. Office Management

5. Further Resources
Support services are the practical, operational areas of an organisation, including information technology, financial management and office management. These areas form the organisational structure of a society, enabling it to carry its main work. Despite this, these areas are sometimes pushed aside as the main project work of an organisation takes precedence. However, the work of the entire organisation can be frustrated if they are not given due attention. This chapter highlights the importance and function of support services and offers practical advice to maximise their effectiveness.

Managers of animal protection societies may have problems in managing support service departments due to a tendency to concentrate more on programme areas, or because they have little or no expertise in these areas. This can be remedied with training, commitment and application. It can also be minimised by appointing dedicated, skilled staff in these areas, or if this is not possible, by ‘outsourcing’ (contracting out) these areas.

There is a real need to involve relevant support staff in strategy and planning. The practical reason for this is that both strategy and planning are strongly influenced by financial and technological factors. Very often programme staff members make plans, only to find out later that the organisation’s support services cannot cope with the demands being made of them. Involving support staff in the planning process is also important as it helps motivate them and to make them feel part of the organisation’s mission.

IT connects you to the world. It is a vital part of networking, keeping up-to-date and well-informed and maintaining contact with national and international collaborators. In addition, an efficient and modern IT system can:

- Assist with an exciting web presence for educational, campaigning, lobbying, service delivery (such as a re-homing centre) and fundraising purposes. A website is an organisation’s calling card and its importance should not be underestimated
- Help build awareness with the use of newsgroups and electronic bulletins
- Permit e-mail mailing list for mass communication with selected groups
- Enable files, images, artwork and videos to be shared
- Automate many previously manual processes, freeing up valuable staff time
- Deal with accounts and fundraising data in an integrated software system
- Permit automatic lobbying using specially designed software
- Run shelter management operations, using purpose built software systems.

A reliable and modern IT service is critical to the future success of all animal protection societies. Increasingly funders are recognising its importance and are giving more funds to update or purchase modern IT systems. Having a modern IT system is indeed central to the continued development and expansion of a society.
Good financial management involves:
   a) Keeping records
   b) Internal control
   c) Budgeting
   d) Financial reporting

a) Keeping Records
The foundations of all accounting are the basic records that detail an organisation's earnings and spending. This includes the contracts and letters for money received and the receipts and the invoices for the things it buys.

These basic records prove that each and every transaction has taken place. They are the cornerstones of being accountable. Every society must make sure that all these records are carefully filed and kept safe.

It is also a good idea to keep a written record of each transaction. Make a list in a separate book, referred to in this section as 'cashbook', of how much your society has spent, on what and when.

Keeping accurate records is of vital importance. If an organisation cannot prove that it has used a donation for the purpose it was given, then it will be difficult to obtain more funding. Being accountable is fundamental.

b) Internal Controls
Every organisation should ensure that it has the proper controls in place so that money cannot be misused.

Controls always have to be adapted to different organisations. However, some controls that are often used include:

- Keeping cash in a safe place, ideally in a bank account
- Making sure that all expenditure is properly authorised
- Following the budget
- Monitoring how much money has been spent on what every month
- Employing qualified finance staff
- Having an audit every year
- Carrying out a ‘bank reconciliation’ every month. This means checking that the amount of cash in the bank is the same as the amount that is in the cashbook.

c) Budgeting
Good financial management calls for the preparation of accurate budgets, in order to determine how much money will be needed to carry out a project, campaign, lobby etc.

To prepare a good budget, a society must first identify exactly what it hopes to do and how it will do it. After listing the activities, it should then plan how much the activities will cost and how much income they will generate.

Make sure to include everything in the budget, including salaries, equipment and supplies.

d) Financial Reporting
The final element of good financial management involves writing and reviewing financial reports.
A financial report summarises an organisation’s income and expenditure over a certain period of time.

Financial reports are created by adding together similar transactions. For instance, this might mean adding together all the money spent on fuel, new tyres and vehicle insurance and calling them ‘Transport Costs’.

e) Outsourcing
If you are unable to find one person who is capable of performing all of the above mentioned financial management functions, it may be worth outsourcing.

There are many advantages to outsourcing:
- It leaves the organisation free to concentrate on achieving its mission
- Contract companies are specialists in their field, and can be consulted and trusted to deliver what the organisation, as a customer, wants
- It overcomes problems related to recruiting and managing staff in specialist roles.

However these disadvantages should also be borne in mind:
- Loss of control and flexibility with managing support services
- It could be more costly in the longer term, costs can rise once customers rely on a company
- Difficulty of knowing whether you are being overcharged for services offered.

Some of these risks can be minimised by:
- Preparing a good contract with the company, using legal advice to ensure that any concerns are covered, and that the agreement can be terminated if you are not content with what is being delivered
- Requesting regular reports/updates, in order to monitor the service being delivered
- Regularly reviewing the situation, including competitors’ costs, and immediately taking up any problems with the contractor in order to resolve these or finish the agreement.

Regardless of the size of an office, it is essential that the working space is safe and that it provides the people working there with what they need to carry out their jobs. The aim should be to have a functional and practical working space.

It is important that one individual is made responsible for the office management. If nobody is given the responsibility, then important things may go undone. It is also counter-productive for programme staff to be diverted into support functions; this is quite simply not where their talents and motivations lie. An individual with responsibility for discharging office management duties in an efficient and cost-saving manner will be able to take pride in achieving these aims, and thereby help the organisation to achieve its mission in the way he/she is best able.

The creation of an ‘Office Manual’ of procedures is an excellent discipline. This not only helps all staff, including new recruits and volunteers, to familiarise themselves with routine procedures, but it also provides an excellent opportunity for management to review their office procedures to ensure that all support services are effective.
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Association for Progressive Communications – Financial Management for NGOs
www.apc.org/english/capacity/business/index.shtml

Excellence in Financial Management
www.exinfm.com/board/messages/9/77.html?SundayMarch520001129am

Internet Use: NGOs in Action
www.gdrc.org/ngo/internet-ngos.html

Management Accounting for NGOs
www.mango.org.uk/
www.mango.org.uk/training/courseoutlines.asp

Non-profit and NGO Finance
www.exinfm.com/nonprofit.html

NGOs and Digital Media – Survey Report
www.nmk.co.uk/article/2004/01/14/ngo

NGO Electronic Directory
www.etown.edu/vl/ngos.html

NGO Networking
www.gdrc.org/ngo/ngo-networking.html

NGO Management Courses Worldwide
www.gdrc.org/ngo/ngo-curriculum.html

Books
Charity Bookkeeping and Financial Management: A Step-by-Step Guide for Finance Workers and Treasurers in Charities and Voluntary Organisations
Sam Karuhanga
Publisher: Oak Park Consultancy
ISBN: 0953858103

Delivering IT Strategies
Leslie Willcocks, Nancy Olson, Peter Petherbridge
Publisher: Butterworth-Heinemann
ISBN: 075064821X

Financial Management for Charities and Not for Profit Organisations
Keith Manley
Publisher: ICSA Publishing Ltd (Institute of Chartered Secretaries & Administrators)
ISBN: 1872860524
Financial Management for Development: Accounting and Finance for the Non-specialist in Development Organisations (INTRAC NGO Management & Policy S.)
John Cammack
Publisher: INTRAC
ISBN: 1897748523

IT Strategies for Business
Joseph Peppard
Publisher: FT Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273600249

A Practical Guide to Financial Management: For Charities and Voluntary Organisations
Kate Sayers
Publisher: Directory of Social Change
ISBN: 1873860846
A library is a necessity, rather than a luxury. To be useful, it needs to include relevant and up-to-date resource materials.
CHAPTER 17
LIBRARY

1. Introduction

2. Information Sources
   a) Books and In-house Information
   b) Video Library
   c) Photo Library

3. Archives

4. Categorisation
CHAPTER 17

■ LIBRARY

Accurate and relevant information is vital if the movement is to lose this negative image. In fact, many organisations now have comprehensive and efficient libraries and archives, and some larger societies even employ a professional librarian to safeguard information.

A library is a necessity, rather than a luxury. To be useful, it needs to include relevant and up-to-date resource materials.

A professional organisation will strive to keep relevant information sources in an easily accessible way, through books, reports, photographs, videos or simply supporting paperwork.

a) Books and In-house Information

There are some extremely useful and interesting books about animal protection, many of which have been referenced in other chapters of this manual. They should be kept in a library, available for staff's interest and future reference.

TIP: MANY PUBLISHERS WILL GIVE OUT FREE COPIES OF BOOKS FOR REVIEW PURPOSES.

IF YOUR ORGANISATION HAS A MAGAZINE, ONE WAY TO OBTAIN NEW BOOKS FREE OF CHARGE IS TO ASK FOR A REVIEW COPY AND WRITE A REVIEW FOR YOUR MAGAZINE.

Visiting national, academic or veterinary libraries is a good way of locating relevant books. Amazon (www.amazon.com) is also a good starting point.

Although much research is now carried out on the internet, there is still a real need for in-house information. Many organisations are continuously scanning their operating environment, keeping abreast of their issues, political developments, the moves of opponents and the work of other animal protection organisations. These information sources can remain useful if filed in an accessible way.

For organisations that have a permanent library or information system, the difficulty may be in rationalising the range of information kept. It is very tempting to make this as comprehensive as possible, but this may be counter-productive as it may make it difficult to find relevant information amongst the mass of irrelevant information. It is also necessary to review information regularly and throw out unused or out-of-date materials.

Another difficulty is ensuring that staff members are made aware of relevant information, but are not bombarded with masses of information about every issue. Useful ways of dealing with this include digests (brief summaries of key information and details of where to obtain the full information) and targeted distribution lists (i.e. distribution lists for each major issue, as opposed to general lists).

Finally, all libraries and archives need a system of lending out materials, to ensure that these are traceable and returned, as well as a reference system to assist the librarian and users.
b) Video Library
Videos can be kept in a library, in addition to books. Some organisations also take their own footage. If footage is needed for media work, then a supply of broadcast quality videos (betacams or mini DVs) will need to be maintained.

When videos are lent to the media, they should be accompanied by written instructions detailing the lending conditions, including how copyright acknowledgement should be given. Some organisations have the relevant copyright burned through their broadcast quality videos, to ensure that this cannot be omitted.

c) Photo Library
Many organisations also keep a photo library for media and publications. Most are kept on computer these days, with hard copy photos being scanned and added. Photo libraries in particular need to be well categorised, please see the section on ‘Categorisation’ for more information.

It is also good practise to make photo CDs, copies of which can be easily sent out in response to requests. There could be a general one, plus various subject or campaign photo CDs for individual investigations, companies, farming systems etc.

It is also possible to include a Press Centre on the organisation’s website, where photos can be accessed and downloaded.

Copyright conditions also need to be given when photos are sent or accessed.

ARCHIVES

Important work-related information such as relevant strategies, operating plans, time-lines, contacts etc. should also be referenced and kept in archives. Good planning and logical record keeping are essential.

Archives need to be readily accessible. A logical system of cataloguing files can help with this. Another important aspect is the physical arrangement of the archives; space is needed to make these accessible. The most frequently used information in the archives needs to be in physical proximity to the office, once off-site stores are used for archives, busy staff members tend not to use them again!

Archives need to be regularly reviewed and unused information thrown away. However, certain information needs to be kept for a minimum period by law, for example, certain tax and accounts information and charity documentation.

Historic information, such as the founding charter and/or first meeting of the organisation, should always be kept.

CATEGORISATION

Categorisation is a process of looking at all the information sources that one has and then finding a logical method of grouping the information. This is a practical exercise and, once done, can prove to be extremely useful in saving time looking for materials.
Which categories to use will depend on each organisation’s work and information needs. For example, a society that works solely on companion animal issues, may find it useful to divide its resource materials by *activities*; shelter management, re-homing, vet techniques, educational programmes, campaigning etc. A second main category could be *organisational issues*; financial management, strategy, planning, fundraising etc. *Work-related information* should also be categorised and archived, including office manual, operating procedures, minutes of board meetings, health and safety issues etc.

The main idea is to tailor the categories for your own particular needs, making the materials readily accessible and easy to find.
Magazines and newsletters have often been the focal rallying call for social change movements.
CHAPTER 18
PUBLICATIONS

1. Introduction
2. Types of Publications
3. Audience
4. Production
   a) Schedule
   b) Template and Style
   c) Content
   d) Images
5. Some Cost Considerations
6. Further Resources
CHAPTER 18

PUBLICATIONS

Magazines and newsletters have often been the focal rallying call for social change movements. They are central to the advancement of a movement; mobilising supporters around key actions and developing an understanding of both the movement’s key issues and the work of the individual organisation.

At a practical level, a magazine or newsletter also has to be cost effective and be of use as a fundraising and supporter development tool.

Writing a society magazine or newsletter is not a simple task. These publications have to ‘talk to’ different audiences and put across different messages. An accessible standard style is needed, notwithstanding what could be a variety of contributors with widely different agendas and approaches. This requires careful planning, strong style guidance and firm editorial management.

Before embarking on a publication, the following questions should be answered:

1. Who do you want the publication to reach?
2. How many pages will it have?
3. How often will it be produced?
4. How will it get to the audience?
5. What style/tone will it have?
6. What size will it be?

The following sections will assist you in answering these questions.

2

TYPES OF PUBLICATIONS

Magazines and newsletters are the organisation’s ‘shop windows’ to the world, together with the website. This means that they need to appear professional and interesting, to involve and attract support to your cause.

In general, a magazine is a more substantial publication, whereas a newsletter is a less formal and less substantial method of updating audiences about the organisation’s work or progress, including news on individual issues or campaigns. Leaflets are prepared for a specific purpose, such as a given campaign or to introduce the organisation.

A magazine is usually published periodically for example twice-yearly or quarterly, whereas newsletters can be published more frequently, whenever there is news to report. Magazines and newsletters are a regular and general means of communication.

Whether an organisation uses magazines, newsletters or both will depend on a number of factors, including available finances. Similarly, the frequency of magazines and newsletters will depend on money and time available. Larger organisations tend to have regular magazines (quarterly or six-monthly) plus newsletters such as campaign updates or supporter newsletters. However, some smaller organisations with less funding often use newsletters instead of magazines to meet many of the same purposes, at a lower cost.
AUDIENCE

A society needs to know who its audience is, to ensure that it is reaching and ‘speaking to’ its audience in an appropriate way. Often, supporters and potential supporters are the main audience. However, a magazine or newsletter could also be used to reach other audiences, including:

- Politicians
- Corporate companies
- The media
- Other animal protection societies
- Opponents.

Due to the potentially wide range of people reading the publication, it is important that the publication is authoritative, accurate and highlights the issues as well as the current work of the society.

Questionnaires are a good way to get to know your audience. They can help you find out which aspects of your magazine are most popular with subscribers. Over time, the format and content of your magazine can be amended to make it more popular to your majority audience(s).

Questionnaires can also reveal interesting and unexpected facts; for instance, that readers want to know how they can help on particular issues. Therefore opportunities to donate, or protest, or how to buy cruelty free products should be included.

PRODUCTION

Organising the society’s magazine is a big job and should not be underestimated. The routine administration is sometimes delegated, but an experienced editor or editorial panel usually organises the overall plan and edits articles carefully. This section aims to give an overview of some of the factors that need to be considered at the production stage.

a) Schedule

A schedule has to be agreed with the printer and designer, to ensure that the magazine can be sent out at the planned time. A timetable needs to be drawn up which details when various tasks will need to be completed, to ensure that the magazine is produced by a specific date. It is usually best to work back from the due date. If you are producing your publications in-house it is still best to set a schedule and to keep to it.

Key stages in the process include:

- Brainstorming ideas for content
- Drafting content and sourcing pictures
- Editing submitted content and pictures
- Design layout of content and pictures
- Final editing
- Proofreading
- Printing.

b) Template and Style

A template for the contents of the magazine is a good way to maintain control over the length and format. It is easier to manage a magazine that has a coherent plan, and it usually results in a better quality publication.
It is also preferable to have style rules for a magazine, to ensure a coherent and recognisable style and branding.

c) Content
Examples of typical parts of a magazine include:
- Regular letters page
- Regular reviews
- Regular events calendar
- Editorial
- News pages
- Features pages.

Example of a contents list for a 20-page magazine:
1. Four pages of news. Each page to contain an ‘in brief’ column of four snippet stories and have one large news story and picture
2. A two page project-orientated feature
3. A one-page ‘day in the life’ article, written in the first person, which could relate to the feature
4. A two-page fundraising-orientated feature and a spread with a ‘viewpoint’ and ‘animal fact file’
5. In the centre of the magazine, a two-page feature on the priority campaign/issue
6. A one-page celebrity interview, in a different tone and style. This would be on the same spread as a one-page ‘profile’ type piece and could be about an individual, an organisation or a country
7. The reader would then turn to a page on ‘animal friendly’ living and book reviews before going on to an events calendar and letters page
8. The back cover contains details of how to contact the organisation.

An important part of the preparation for the magazine is collecting and recording information on an ongoing basis. It is easy to keep a ‘magazine box’, in which to put copies of all interesting information or developments. This will save an enormous amount of time when the magazine is due and help to ensure a rich content.

d) Images
Choosing the right images for articles is an important part of the magazine preparation. Often images can have a greater impact than words. However, many supporters will complain if there are too many gruesome and horrifying images in one edition. Supporters can feel manipulated, if only gruesome images are shown.

Action pictures that show the organisation’s work are very important. If supporters can see that ‘their’ organisation is actively tackling the problems, they feel more secure and appreciate that their support is worthwhile.

SOME COST CONSIDERATIONS

It is always difficult to judge how much money an organisation should spend on its magazine. This cannot be measured solely by the size of donations that come in from an accompanying appeal. As stated earlier, the magazine is the main ‘shop window’ to the organisation, and it helps to build supporter loyalty and understanding. Some of the value of a magazine will be in less tangible forms, such as changing attitudes and lifestyles, whereas some will be concrete: longer term values, such as generating future legacies.

Advertising: Many organisations decide to include paid advertising in order to make their magazines less costly. This can certainly help financially, but it should not be undertaken lightly.
Firstly, advertising should always be ethical (if possible connected to the organisation's remit – cruelty free goods or ethical investments for example) – even some pet food companies test on animals. Secondly, the balance of the magazine has to be maintained. It is first and foremost the society's magazine; it is the organisation's own 'shop window' and as such, it should feature issues relevant to its mission. It is completely counter-productive to allow it to be overtaken by advertising, becoming more like a marketing catalogue.

**Printing costs:** The number of copies printed has an effect on cost. Publications may be destined for a small circulation because they are only of interest to a minority of people. The difficulty lies in finding a way to cater for that demand at an affordable price.

For example, to print 500 copies in the UK of a 48-page report might cost in the region of £1,350; a thousand copies would cost £1,590. Most of the cost of printing – the administration, filmsetting, plate-making and setting-up – is 'fixed'. It remains the same, regardless of how many copies are produced.

But printing costs need not be prohibitive. Costs can be brought down by a variety of means, including photocopying, digital colour printing and publishing on the internet.

**Photocopying** on a machine in good condition can produce very satisfactory results, and a simple way to achieve even better quality is to improve the weight and texture of the paper. Remember that it may be a better use of your resources to have attractive pages cheaply printed than mediocre pages expensively printed.

If you have an A3 photocopier you could print the pages yourself in the correct imposition, using laser proofs as originals. In this case, you would only need to have a 'proper' cover printed (perhaps in one colour) and the booklet stapled ('saddle-stitched').

**Digital colour printing:** For a more ambitious document you could consider using one of the new digital colour technologies. Digital colour printing is a four-colour process similar to full-colour litho. One advantage of digital printing, even at less economic quantities, is the rapid turnaround: 48 hours or less.

**Publishing on the internet:** An even more radical way to escape the trap of fixed printing costs is to eliminate print altogether by publishing your documents on the internet. You could still have them designed to a high standard, but your designer would convert them to 'Portable Document Format' (PDF). Anyone who wanted to read a paper copy could print it out on his or her own printer, anywhere in the world, in exactly the same designed format.

However, it may be difficult to extract any revenue from this, so the overall profit and loss situation could be unfavourable. Also your readers would have to get a free copy of Acrobat Reader if they don't already have it from the Adobe website. You would also have to monitor the use of this facility very carefully to make sure you were succeeding in getting your message across.
Magazines
The following are some good examples of successful animal protection society magazines. It is well worth obtaining copies to study the format and content.

All Animals
The Humane Society of the United States (HSUS)
Tel: + 1 (202) 452 1100
E-mail: membership@hsus.org
Website: www.hsus.org/press_and_publications/humane_society_magazines_and_newsletters/all_animals/
HSUS’s quarterly membership magazine – in full colour and informative – co-produced by HSUS and Time, Inc.

Animals International
WSPA
Tel: + 44 (20) 7587 5000
E-mail: wspa@wspa.org.uk
Website: www.wspa.org.uk/index.php?page=911
WSPA’s bi-annual magazine

AWI Quarterly
Animal Welfare Institute, USA
Tel: + 1 (202) 337 2332
E-mail: awi@awionline.org
Website: www.awionline.org/pubs/quarterly.html
AWI’s quarterly magazine – full of very useful information

Campaign Report
The British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV)
Tel: +44 (0) 207 700 4888
E-mail: info@buav.org
The BUAV’s quarterly magazine – well thought-out sections and good design
PART 4

Essential Skills

Chapter 19  Leadership
Chapter 20  Team Building
Chapter 21  Time Management
Chapter 22  Effective Meetings
Chapter 23  Presentations
Chapter 24  Stress Management
Chapter 25  Dealing with Compassion Fatigue
Chapter 26  Continuous Learning
Chapter 27  Keeping Motivated
Leadership is not magnetic personality – that can come from charm and the ability to talk a good game. It is not making friends and influencing people – that is flattery.
CHAPTER 19
LEADERSHIP

1. Introduction
2. What is Leadership?
3. Leadership Theories
   a) Trait Theory
   b) Style Theory
   c) Contingency Theory
4. Motivation
5. Great Leadership
6. Management and Leadership
7. Further Resources
Leadership is not magnetic personality – that can come from charm and the ability to talk a good game. It is not making friends and influencing people – that is flattery.

This can only be done through choosing your staff well, knowing their personalities and motivations and managing and leading them appropriately. This is not easy – and more of an art than a science! But many of the issues involved are examined below.

A simple definition and easy answers do not exist in the area of leadership! There is no secret trick that you can learn and no secret trait that you can be born with. It is a complex subject and successful leadership necessitates a high degree of ‘emotional intelligence’ (for example, understanding psychology and individual motivations).

When it comes to developing the strength of leadership in an organisation, the question whether leaders are born or made is often debated. It is WSPA’s view that leaders can be made, providing they have the necessary qualities to start with! Responsibility for leadership training and development within organisations resides with the management; but this should be carried out for each layer of management, including team leaders and volunteer organisers.

To develop leadership, the focus must be on the four clusters of characteristics that successful and strong leaders have in common:

- Vision, perspective and a clear understanding of the big picture
- The ability to organise and empower to achieve results
- Strong interpersonal skills and the ability to communicate, influence and work with others
- Personal motivation, energy and resilience to be consistently successful.

Leadership is a complex process by which a person influences others to accomplish a mission, task, or objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive. A person carries out this process by applying their leadership attributes: beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge and skills. Although your position as a manager, supervisor, team leader etc. gives you the authority to accomplish certain tasks and objectives in the organisation, this power does not make you a leader – it simply makes you the boss.

Leadership makes people want to achieve high goals and objectives, while bosses simply oblige people to accomplish a task or objective.
Leadership theory states that there are three basic ways to explain how people become leaders. These theories are:

1. The **Trait Theory** affirms that some personality traits may lead people naturally into leadership roles.
2. The **Style Theory** affirms that some styles of leadership can be more successful than others.
3. The **Contingency Theory** takes account of other variations, for example, the nature of the task and the environment.

Each of these theories will be elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

Also, there is no doubt that people can choose to become leaders. People can learn leadership skills (providing they have the basic essentials!). This is the **Transformational Leadership Theory**. It is the most widely accepted theory today and the premise on which this chapter is based.

### a) Trait Theory

Many studies have been carried out on the traits of successful leaders. The findings indicate that good leaders come from a variety of sources and traits for success differ according to situation. Only 5% of traits were similar throughout. These include:

- **Intelligence** – above average, but not genius. Good at solving complex and abstract problems
- **Initiative** – independence and inventiveness. Capacity to perceive need for action and urge to act
- **Self-assurance** – self-confidence, belief in competence and high aspirations
- **Helicopter factor** – the ability to rise above a problem and see it in relation to its environment.

The ability to see the big picture is vital. When the word vision is used it usually means that someone has an idea of what the future could look like and a plan to get there.

### THE ONLY WAY TO INSPIRE STAFF TO STRIVE TO ACHIEVE YOUR VISION IS TO MAKE IT THEIR VISION TOO.

A successful leader needs clarity of thought (seeing the wood for the trees). To do this, you need to shift your attention from yourself and your own preoccupations, to what is going on around you (in the wider environment). If you sit in the building foyer of WSPA headquarters, for example, you can only see the underground car park. But if you sit in the top floor office by the window you can see for miles across London, viewing the London Eye and the River Thames and know exactly where the office fits into the London landscape!

Other traits identified include:

- Good health
- Above average height or well below it
- Coming from upper socio-economic classes.

Some studies have also mentioned enthusiasm, sociability, integrity, courage, imagination, decisiveness, determination, energy and faith.

### b) Style Theory

The Style Theory assumes that employees will work better for leaders who employ certain styles of leadership. This follows the belief that one strong motivation for work (particularly true in NGOs) is self-actualisation – that is esteem, self-improvement etc.
Authoritarian (Task) Leader
High concern for production but low concern for people. People who get this rating are very task-orientated and are hard on their workers (autocratic). There is little or no allowance for cooperation or collaboration. Heavily task-orientated people are very strong on schedules and expect people to do what they are told without question or debate, and when things go wrong they tend to focus on who is to blame rather than concentrate on exactly what is wrong and how to prevent it. They are also intolerant of what they see as dissent (it may just be someone’s creativity), so it is difficult for their subordinates to contribute or develop.

Team Leader
High concern for production and people. This type of leader leads by positive example. Team Leaders endeavour to foster a team environment in which all team members can reach their highest potential, both as team members and as people. They encourage the team to reach team goals as effectively as possible, while also working tirelessly to strengthen the bonds among the various members. They form and lead the most productive teams.

Country Club Leader
Low concern for production and high concern for people. These leaders use power to maintain discipline and to encourage the team to accomplish its goals. Conversely, they are almost incapable of employing the more punitive coercive and legitimate powers. This inability results from the leader’s fear that using such powers could jeopardise his/her relationships with the team members.

Impoverished Leader
Low concern for production and for people. This person uses a ‘delegate and disappear’ management style. Since he/she is not committed to either task accomplishment or maintenance, the team is essentially allowed to do whatever it wishes and he/she prefers to be detached from the team process.

Ideal situation
The most desirable type of leader is the Team Leader. However, certain situations might call for one of the other three styles to be used at certain times. For example, by playing the Impoverished Leader, you allow your team to gain self-reliance. It may be necessary to be an Authoritarian Leader to instill a sense of discipline in an unmotivated worker. The style of leadership will need to be suitable to each individual and their stage of development, as well as coping with the distinct needs of mission-driven NGO staff.

Good leaders are able to move between styles, according to what a situation dictates.

Another theory, known as the Path-Goal Theory, defines the four main leadership styles as:

Directive: These leaders are controlling and clear about what they want team members to do. They do not appreciate arguments or suggestions from the team. This style suits new, inexperienced staff.

Coaching: A Coaching Leader has a more open style. He/she asks for suggestions and input, but still takes most of the decisions and guides staff closely. This style is appropriate for a developing team.

Supportive: These leaders encourage the team to take most decisions on a day-to-day basis. They monitor closely and provide support. This style suits an improving team, which still lacks confidence.

Delegating: A Delegating Leader allows the team to take its own decisions, within certain set boundaries. Delegating Leaders have a monitoring role and make themselves available to the team as needed. This style is excellent for skilled and experienced staff.
An effective manager has to be able to move between these leadership styles in order to ensure the most appropriate and motivational method is used for each member of staff and each task (e.g. a directive style may still be appropriate for an experienced and confident staff member if an entirely new task is given).

Research has shown that style alone is not the answer to effective leadership. The Contingency Theory explains:

c) Contingency Theory
Contingency Theories take more account of other variables in the leadership situation, such as the operating environment, the nature of the task, the work group and the position of the leader in the work group. This theory reflects the best-fit scenario, where the most appropriate style can be judged and applied, according to the environment, task, group or staff etc.

It is recognised that where the situation is favourable to the leader, then the supportive style works best. To be favourable to the leader, the following elements need to be present:

- The leader is liked and trusted by the group; and
- The task is well defined and laid down; and
- The power of the leader over the group is high (i.e. able to reward and punish).

The first was considered the most important amongst these.

The Contingency Theory also recognises that a crisis or important event may cause a person to rise to the occasion, which brings out extraordinary leadership qualities in an ordinary person (this is the ‘Great Events Theory’).

MOTIVATION

A Hay Group study examined 75 key components of employee satisfaction. They found that:

- Trust and confidence in top leadership was the single most reliable predictor of employee satisfaction in an organisation
- Effective communication by leadership in three critical areas was the key to winning organisational trust and confidence:
  - Helping employees understand the company’s overall business strategy
  - Helping employees understand how they contribute to achieving key strategic objectives
  - Sharing information with employees on both how the company is doing and how an employee’s own division is doing – relative to strategic objectives.

For a more detailed discussion on how to motivate your team, please refer to the separate chapter on ‘Motivation’.

GREAT LEADERSHIP

The road to great leadership shares five common elements:

- **Challenge the process** – First, find the process that you believe most needs to be improved.
- **Inspire a shared vision** – Next, share your vision in words that can be understood by your followers.
- **Enable others to act** – Give them the tools and methods to solve the problem.
- **Model the way** – When the process gets tough, get your hands dirty. A boss tells others what
to do... a leader shows it can be done.

- **Encourage the heart** – Share the glory with your followers' hearts, keep the pains in your heart.

*Also remember that there is no such thing as ‘can’t do’* – ‘Can’t do’ is an alien concept to a real leader. Leaders get things done. They have commitment, persistence, determination and resilience. Couple all of that with creative problem-solving and you have a person around whom things happen. Indeed, things might even get shaken up when they’re around. It isn’t always comfortable being around a leader.

**MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP**

There is a real difference between management and leadership. You do not need to be a leader to be able to manage other people. However, to be an outstanding manager, you do have to have some of those essential skills and qualities that are necessary in developing as a leader.

Even if you are a manager with no major aspirations of leadership, there will be people who will turn to you for leadership, whether you like it or not. Therefore, when looking for training to develop your skills, it might be a very good idea to look at leadership courses as well as management courses.

“**OUR CHIEF WANT IS SOMEONE WHO WILL INSPIRE US TO BE WHAT WE KNOW WE COULD BE.”** – Ralph Waldo Emerson
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
The Art and Science of Leadership
www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leader.html

Leadership Now
www.leadershipnow.com/

Leadership Styles and Training
www.impactfactory.com/gate/leadership_skills_training/freegate_1159-9103-25758.html

Overview of Leadership in Organisations
www.mapnp.org/library/ldrship/ldrship.htm

Books
The 18 Challenges of Leadership: A Practical, Structured Way to Develop Your Leadership Talent
Shenaz Kelly-Rawat, Trevor Waldock
Publisher: FT Prentice Hall
ISBN: 0273688103

The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership
John C. Maxwell
Publisher: STL
ISBN: 0785270345

Encouraging the Heart: A Leader’s Guide to Rewarding and Recognising Others
Jim Kouzes, Barry Posner
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787964638

The Five Dysfunctions of a Team: A Leadership Fable
Patrick Lencioni
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787960756

The Leadership Challenge
Jim Kouzes, Barry Posner
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787968331

The Leadership Challenge Workbook
James M. Kouzes, Barry Z. Posner
Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
ISBN: 0787968218
Teamwork dynamics need to be understood to make the most effective use of teams in your organisation.
CHAPTER 20
TEAM BUILDING

1. Introduction
2. Definition
3. Effective Team Building
   a) Team Player Style
   b) Team Building’s Twelve Cs
   c) Team Dynamics
   d) Five Stages of Group Development
4. Barriers to Effective Teams
5. Further Resources
Teamwork is very common in animal protection activities – partly because staff and resource shortages compel inter-organisational and inter-departmental cooperation and partly because the movement tends towards a collective mentality, rather than a hierarchical one. There is far more to effective teamwork than simply getting together to organise a common task, as the information below will begin to explain. Teamwork dynamics need to be understood to make the most effective use of teams in your organisation.

A simple, but effective, definition of a team is a group of people working together towards a common goal.

Terms that are often used to describe teamwork include:
- Whole > Sum
- Combined effort
- Cooperation
- Reporting to one boss
- Having one aim or mission.

Some of these terms are features of good teams. For example, ‘whole > sum’ (the whole is greater than the sum of the parts) is a feature of a team that is working well together – but there are some teams whose collective performance falls short of what you might expect given the quality of individuals.

The term ‘reporting to one boss’ can be a misleading one. In a well-designed organisational structure, people reporting to one boss do not often form teams, except around certain projects. In reality, team structures are often complicated, with people belonging to a number of different teams – often consisting of members of various departments. To be effective, teams often move away from usual hierarchical arrangements.

Team building is a process of enabling the team to achieve the common goal.

- The stages involved in team building include clarifying the goal, identifying the inhibitors and removing them.
- Teamwork can use the different skills and talents within the group, unlocking diversity.
- Teamwork can achieve effective delegation to empower team members.
- Understanding the different stages of growth of teams can help enormously.
- Understanding different team roles and the value of diversity can also help a lot.
- Teamwork can be used to resolve conflict, or to form strong and trusting working relationships, if carried out sensitively.
The nature of team building varies according to the size (scale) of the team and what you are trying to achieve:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>What is changed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Individual skills and perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Team</td>
<td>Relationships between people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-team</td>
<td>Relationships between teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>The culture of the organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research has shown that all members can participate effectively in a group of up to five or seven people. As a team becomes larger, say 10 to 12 people, it may be better to split the team into sub-groups.

The first step in developing your team building skills is to identify your personal team player style. Without knowing what your style is, it is very difficult to form an effective team, which will complement your strengths and weaknesses. Once you know what your own style is, it is equally important to identify the styles (and subsequent strengths and weaknesses) of the other members of your team (often your staff).

**a) Team Player Style**

The most useful and accessible team role model is that developed by Meredith Belbin in 1981. The team roles were designed to define and predict potential success of management teams, recognising that the strongest teams have a diversity of characters and personality types.

It has been criticised due to its potential oversimplification and ‘pigeon-holing’ of individuals. However, when used wisely to gain insight about the working of the team and the identification of the team strengths and weaknesses, it can be extremely useful.

According to Belbin:

**A TEAM ROLE IS ‘A TENDENCY TO BEHAVE, CONTRIBUTE AND INTERRELATE WITH OTHERS IN A PARTICULAR WAY’**.

There are three action-orientated roles: Shaper, Implementer and Completer/Finisher; three people orientated roles: Coordinator, Team-worker and Resource Investigator and three cerebral roles: Plant, Monitor/Evaluator and Specialist. The nine team roles are summarised in the table on the following page.

The accurate delineation of these team roles is critical in understanding the dynamics of any management or work team.
b) Team Building’s Twelve Cs

Successful team building, which creates effective, focused teams, requires attention to each of the following:

**Clear Expectations:** Has management clearly communicated its expectations for the team’s performance and expected outcomes? Do team members understand why the team was created? Is the organisation demonstrating constancy of purpose in supporting the team with resources of people, time and money?
Context: Do team members understand why they are on the team? Do they understand how the strategy of using teams will help the organisation attain its goals? Does the team understand where its work fits in the total context of the organisation’s goals, principles, vision and values?

Commitment: Do team members want to participate in the team? Do team members feel the team mission is important? Are members committed to accomplishing the team mission and expected outcomes? Are team members excited and challenged by the team opportunity?

Competence: Does the team feel that it has the appropriate people participating? Does the team feel that its members have the knowledge, skill and capability to address the issues for which the team was formed? Does the team feel it has the resources, strategies and support needed to accomplish its mission?

Charter – Goal Definition: Has the team defined and communicated its goals; its anticipated outcomes and contributions; its timelines; and how it will measure both the outcomes of its work and the process the team followed to accomplish their task? Does the management support what the team has agreed?

Control: Does the team have enough freedom and empowerment to feel the ownership necessary to accomplish its goals? At the same time, do team members clearly understand their boundaries? Has the organisation defined the team’s authority to make recommendations and to implement its plan? Is there a defined review process?

Collaboration: Does the team understand team and group process? Do members understand the stages of group development? Are team members working together effectively interpersonally? Do all team members understand roles and responsibilities?

Communication: Are team members clear about the priority of their tasks? Is there an established method for the teams to receive honest performance feedback? Do team members communicate clearly and honestly with each other? Do team members bring diverse opinions to the table? Are necessary conflicts raised and addressed?

Creative Innovation: Is the organisation really interested in change? Does it value creative thinking, unique solutions and new ideas? Does it reward people who take reasonable risks to make improvements? Does it provide the necessary training, development etc?

Consequences: Do team members feel responsible and accountable for team achievements? Are rewards and recognition supplied when teams are successful? Is reasonable risk respected and encouraged? Can contributors see their impact on increased organisation success?

Coordination: Are teams coordinated by a central leadership team that assists the groups to obtain what they need for success? Have priorities and resource allocation been planned across departments?

Cultural Change: Does the organisation recognise that the team-based, collaborative, empowering, enabling organisation of the future is different from the traditional, hierarchical organisation it may currently be? Does the organisation recognise that the more it can change its climate to support teams, the more it will receive in payback from the work of the teams?
c) Team Dynamics
To be effective, a team needs not only to tackle the task in hand, but also to maintain social relations within the group and to ensure that individual needs are met.

This relationship is often depicted as:

![Task Group Individual Diagram]

Effective groups must carry out both task and maintenance functions.

Common Task Functions:
- Proposing and initiating – proposing ideas, courses of action which are relevant to the task
- Building – developing other people's proposals
- Diagnosing – analysing what is wrong, or what is causing the current situation
- Giving or seeking information
- Evaluating – evaluating the merits of certain proposals and outcomes
- Decision-making.

Common Maintenance Functions
- Gate-keeping – involving others in discussion and closing off or controlling, as necessary
- Encouraging – being friendly, supportive and responsive
- Conflict resolution – being prepared to acknowledge and deal with conflict
- Giving positive feedback
- Dealing with feelings – recognising and acknowledging people’s feelings
- Looking after physical needs – for example, refreshments, breaks, space and light.

d) Five Stages of Group Development
Like individuals, teams mature and develop. Research has shown that teams go through various common stages of development. The effectiveness of the team will depend on how well it deals with the problems that emerge at each stage.

The most common stage model that explains this is:
Forming – polite but untrusting. Formalities are preserved and members are treated as strangers.

Storming – testing others. Members start to communicate their feelings but probably still view themselves as part of their parent department rather than part of the team.

Norming – valuing other types. People feel part of the team and realise that they can achieve work if they accept other viewpoints.
Performing – flexibility from trust. The team works in an open and trusting atmosphere where flexibility is the key and hierarchy is of little importance.

Adjourning – The final stage, adjourning, involves the termination of task behaviours and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity for members to say personal goodbyes.

The team may not share clear goals or purposes and therefore defining specific goals will be important. Teams often face issues that can decrease the effectiveness of the team and specifically its ability to make decisions:
- The time trade-offs in decision-making (team decision-making can take time away from working directly on projects)
- Pressure to conform
- The potential for increased conflict over decision-making
- Group anxiety – concern about the reactions of other group members
- The potential for hidden agendas and blind spots.

Without adequate team training and preparation, it is unlikely that teams will work effectively to develop and realise a shared vision.

**BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE TEAMS**

Katzenbach and Smith (1993) list the following requirements for building effective teams:
- Teams must be small enough in terms of the number of members.
- Members must have adequate levels of complementary skills.
- The team must have a truly meaningful purpose.
- The team must have a specific goal or goals.
- The team and its members must establish a clear approach to the team’s work.
- Members must have a sense of mutual accountability.

Without team leadership (as opposed to traditional top-down leadership), teams will be unproductive. Another potential barrier is individual resistance to working in teams.
**FURTHER RESOURCES**

**Websites**
- Belbin Team Roles
  www.belbin.com/
- Keirsey Temperament Sorter
  http://keirsey.com/
- The Myers & Briggs Foundation
  www.myersbriggs.org/
- Team Building
  www.mapnp.org/library/grp_skill/teams/teams.htm
- Team Technology
  www.teamtechnology.co.uk/tt/t-articl/mb-simpl.htm

**Books**
- Creating Effective and Successful Teams
  Thomas R. Keen
  Publisher: Purdue University Press
  ISBN: 1557532893

- Creating Effective Teams: A Guide for Members and Leaders
  Susan A. Wheelan
  Publisher: Sage Publications Ltd
  ISBN: 0761918175

- Effective Teamwork: Practical Lessons from Organisational Research
  Michael A. West
  Publisher: Blackwell Publishing
  ISBN: 1405110589

- Groups That Work and Those That Don’t: Creating Conditions for Effective Teamwork
  J. Richard Hackman (Editor)
  Publisher: Jossey Bass Wiley
  ISBN: 1555421873

- The Wilder Nonprofit Field Guide to Developing Effective Teams
  Beth Gilbertsen, Vijit Ramchandani
  Publisher: Amherst H Wilder Foundation
  ISBN: 0940069202
Effective use of time can help staff to achieve animal protection objectives, and it can make work more rewarding and less stressful.
1. Introduction

2. Key Elements of Effective Time Management

3. Analysing Time Management
   a) Time Diary
   b) Key Results Mapping

4. Improving Your Time Management Skills
   a) Time Management Matrix
   b) Delegation
   c) Effective Use of a Secretary or Assistant

5. Further Resources
CHAPTER 21
TIME MANAGEMENT

Effective use of time is of vital importance in modern animal protection societies, where the potential amount of work is vast. Effective use of time can help staff to achieve animal protection objectives, and it can make work more rewarding and less stressful.

“IT’S NOT THE HOURS THAT COUNT; IT’S WHAT YOU PUT INTO THE HOURS.”—Earl Nightingale

Key elements of effective time management include:

• Identifying the kind of success you want to achieve
• Working out priorities and specific goals
• Developing a system to work towards these goals
• Being aware of your own work style, strengths and weaknesses
• Being aware of your staff’s work styles, their individual strengths and weaknesses
• Developing planning strategies, focusing on priorities
• Identifying time-wasters and consider ways of coping with them.

You can only make good use of your time if you are clear about what you are trying to achieve. Fire fighters confuse urgent activities with important activities.

WORK SMARTER, NOT HARDER, SUMS UP THE OVERALL APPROACH.

Work is often the enemy of achievement and should never be confused with results. How to use time is all about how to control the job, not the job controlling you. In fact, the most effective way of dealing with certain tasks may be to leave them undone (or at least to do them as quickly and simply as possible)!

Before you develop time management strategies, you need to assess your own skills (and problems). Two methods of doing this will be discussed below: keeping and analysing a time diary and Key Results Mapping.

a) Time Diary
Keeping a time analysis diary for a certain period of time – and doing this periodically as a check – is a good way of assessing how effectively you are using your time. It helps you identify where your time goes. How much time is spent on your priorities? How much on jobs planned by you, as opposed to work outside your control? How much of the work you do could be delegated? How much of your time is spent in meetings, on the telephone, answering e-mails, finding and filing information? How often are you interrupted? How many times do you start a job and move on to another without finishing? How often do you do things that turn out to be useless or overtaken by events?
This exercise will also provide a useful starting point for you when assessing your work style. Some people are verbal communicators and may spend a lot of time in meetings or on the telephone, whereas others may prefer written communication, but may spend too much time answering e-mails or written correspondence. Do you always use the most effective means of communication? Do you sort and organise your work in a logical way, collecting and replying to piles of letters or e-mails periodically (using short stock replies where possible)?

b) Key Results Mapping

Another useful exercise is to list your key results (critical success factors) in order of importance and then assess the amount of time spent on each:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Results (Order of importance)</th>
<th>Time Spent (1-5, 1 = most)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now map your most time-consuming tasks and assess how much these contribute towards the achievement of your key results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Spent (Order of time spent)</th>
<th>Key Results Achievement Factor (1-5, 1 = most)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consider how you can reduce time spent on tasks that do not work towards key results (including major threats or opportunities). How can you ensure that time is spent in proportion to the key results priorities identified?

**IMPROVING YOUR TIME MANAGEMENT SKILLS**

Recognise what is important to your success and ensure that this is worked on proactively and prioritised. Allocate your time to achieving key results.

**NEVER LET THE URGENT TAKE PRECEDENCE OVER THE IMPORTANT.**
Essential steps to improving time management skills:

- Plan and make action lists in priority order
- Prioritise (and be ruthless)
- Remember Pareto’s Law – the 80-20 rule – concentrate on the 20 per cent of your work that produces 80 per cent of the results. Minimise the amount of work that you do on the remaining 80 per cent
- Negotiate resources around priorities (staff, money, contracting etc.)
- Learn to say No!
- Agree your priorities and deadlines with your manager and staff
- Train and delegate effectively
- Use your secretary or assistant to help
- Find systems to deal quickly and minimally with routine or less important tasks
- Remember good enough is good – don’t waste time on non-priority tasks
- Ensure there are efficient communication channels
- Do not waste time in meetings. Develop an effective meeting strategy (see separate chapter on ‘Effective Meetings’)
- Manage telephone, e-mail and correspondence flows
- Deal with quick tasks in one go (single-touching)
- Periodically monitor your time usage again and make any necessary changes.

A method of distinguishing the important from the urgent is outlined below (a), followed by an outline on delegation (b), and the effective use of a secretary (c).

a) Time Management Matrix

The time management matrix is a good way of explaining the difference between the urgent and the important – which effective time management needs to distinguish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 Urgent and Important</th>
<th>2 Important and Not Urgent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Activities:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crises</td>
<td>Prevention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressing problems</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadline-driven problems</td>
<td>Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finding new opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship-building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recreation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3 Urgent and Not Important</th>
<th>4 Not Urgent and Not Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Activities:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interruptions</td>
<td>Trivia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some calls</td>
<td>Busy work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some correspondence</td>
<td>Some calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some e-mails</td>
<td>Some correspondence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some meetings</td>
<td>Some e-mails</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressing matters</td>
<td>Some meetings/time-wasters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popular activities</td>
<td>Pleasant activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Urgent activities appear to require immediate action – whereas importance has to do with results.
CHAPTER 21
TIME MANAGEMENT

In the matrix, if you keep concentrating on quadrant 1, it gets bigger and bigger and dominates you.

People who spend their time in quadrant 3, often think they are in quadrant 1, but their achievements are not important.

Effective people stay out of quadrants 3 and 4, urgent or not, because they are not important. They also shrink quadrant 1 down to size by spending more time in quadrant 2. Quadrant 2 is at the heart of effective time management.

b) Delegation
Consider your use of delegation:
- Do you delegate areas of responsibility or just tasks?
- Do you delegate the authority to make decisions and spend/use resources to go along with the responsibility?
- Do you avoid over-supervision and under-supervision?
- Do you avoid loss of control (by moving gradually to delegate more authority and using appropriate monitoring systems)?
- Do you train staff to accept increasing delegation or do you feel it is quicker to do it yourself?
- Do you approach it systematically:
  - Define the job?
  - Decide whether it can be delegated?
  - Communicate it clearly?
  - Train?
  - Monitor and follow up?
- Do you avoid stifling people’s creativity, by allowing staff to choose their methods (defining end results, not methods)?
- Can you back off the job and leave it to targets and monitoring?

The starting point for effective delegation is to appoint appropriate and competent staff members who have the capacity to do the job well and to learn and develop.

Staff should be progressively trained and developed, so that they can gain the necessary skills and competence. Investment in staff is an investment in the future. Although it may be more time-consuming in the short term, it is the only way to real achievement (and staff satisfaction) in the long term.

There is a real difference between managing mission-driven staff in animal protection organisations and managing staff who work for other motivations, such as money, social reasons, company etc. Managing the mission-driven is essentially a case of ensuring that personal goals are aligned with those of the organisation and that they are given the skills and resources necessary to do the job, and the advice and support to help them to perform. It is vital, therefore, to communicate and share goals and to establish tasks that work towards these goals.

c) Effective Use of a Secretary or Assistant
You can manage time more effectively by using your secretary or assistant as a personal assistant, if you do not do so already (and many managers fail to do this).

To be as effective as possible, your assistant needs to understand your job responsibilities, your priorities and your preferred working style. Likewise, you need to be familiar with his or her strengths and weaknesses, career goals and training and development needs.
The sort of jobs a personal assistant should be capable of handling include:

- Arranging meetings, travel etc.
- Preparing minutes, action points etc.
- Filing (and ordering filing systems)
- Writing – not just typing – routine letters and replies
- Drafting much of your correspondence
- Deciding which mail you should see and then giving it to someone else to take the necessary action, distributing mail which you do not even need to see and sorting the remainder into categories. For example:
  - Mail requiring your attention urgently
  - You should decide who should deal with it
- Making telephone calls for you that only involve giving information or confirming arrangements
- Asking callers for the purpose of their call, in an attempt to action it for you, whether you are available or not
- Operating a follow-up file to remind you when follow-up action is needed
- Doing the following for you, whenever possible
  - Obtaining and collating information
  - Compiling routine weekly and monthly reports.

Jobs a personal assistant should not be doing include:

- Retyping whole pages because you have not organised your amendments on computer
- Making coffee and tea for the whole department
- Typing replies to internal memos, when a hand-written comment by you on the original is adequate
- Unnecessarily retyping urgent internal notes or financial reports, when hand-written information is legible
- Personal chores, such as shopping.

Jobs that waste your personal assistant’s time are:

- Finding telephone numbers repeatedly for you, instead of keeping an index for you
- Writing lengthy minutes of meetings, when action points would suffice
- Struggling to read your hand-written manuscript drafts, when you could use a computer or dictating machine
- Continually interrupting your work, because he/she does not plan his/hers.
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Bigtimes – Everything Time Management
www.bigtimes.co.uk/

Mind Tools – Time Management Skills
www.mindtools.com/pages/main/newMN_HTE.htm

Time Management
www.businessstown.com/time/time.asp

Time Management (student handbook)
www.d.umn.edu/student/loon/acad/strat/time_manage.html

Time Management
www.counsel.ufl.edu/selfHelp/timeManagement.asp

Books
Common-Sense Time Management
Barrie Pearson
Publisher: Mercury
ISBN: 1852520949

Getting Things Done: The Art of Stress-free Productivity
David Allen
Publisher: Piatkus Books
ISBN: 0749922648

Manage Your Time
Tim Hindle
Publisher: DK Publishing, Inc.
ISBN: 0789424460

The One Minute Manager
Kenneth Blanchard, Spencer Johnson
Publisher: HarperCollins Business
ISBN: 0007107927

The Personal Efficiency Program: How to Get Organized to Do More Work in Less Time
Kerry Gleeson
Publisher: John Wiley and Sons Inc
ISBN: 0471463213

Time Management for Unmanageable People
Ann McGee-Cooper
Publisher: Bantam Doubleday
ISBN: 0553370715
Effective and constructive meetings focus on the issue(s) at hand, only include necessary participants and concentrate on reaching a workable conclusion.
CHAPTER 22
EFFECTIVE MEETINGS

1. Introduction
2. Tips for Effective Meetings
3. The Meeting Chair
4. Meeting Minutes
5. Informal Meetings
6. Further Resources
Meetings are essential. There is no alternative for meeting face-to-face in certain situations and interpersonal contacts can add a whole new dimension to working relationships. But many meetings waste a large amount of management and staff time. Some managers report that about 50% of their working time is spent in meetings. Additional time is involved in preparing for meetings and minute writing. A conscientious (and ongoing) effort needs to be made to minimise this time and to make meetings more effective, productive and satisfying.

Effective and constructive meetings focus on the issue(s) at hand, only include necessary participants and concentrate on reaching a workable conclusion. Preparation and discipline are vital. It also helps to make meetings practical and task-centred. These issues are elaborated upon in the following section.

Evaluate the need for each and every meeting. What are the aims or needs, and is a meeting the best way to achieve these?

Re-read the minutes of your recent meetings. Highlight any key decisions and action points. Assess their relative value against time spent. Then consider whether the outcome could have been achieved without a meeting, or in a shorter, more effective meeting.

In the future, after applying some of the tips given below, record the time each meeting takes and periodically review the situation.

Think about who to invite: Only invite those with a real interest. When in doubt, ask the potential participants whether they feel their attendance would be worthwhile, or whether they would like to contribute written views and be notified of the outcome instead.

Where staff members are only interested in certain agenda items, make sure they are able to attend only the relevant parts. This may involve amendments to the agenda to group their items.

Get the timing right: Meetings must start on time, otherwise valuable collective staff time is lost. Get everyone to agree that meetings will start on time from now on – then start exactly on time and expect an apology from anyone arriving late.

Schedule meetings to end at lunchtime or at the end of the day, providing a motivation to end on time. Avoid holding meetings first thing in the morning (staff like to arrange their work before attending), or straight after lunch (concentration is low).

Prepare a timed agenda indicating which items should be dealt with quickly.

Plan ahead: If possible, arrange the room so that members face each other, such as in a circle or semi-circle. For large groups, try U-shaped rows. Choose a location suitable to your group’s size. Small rooms with too many people get stuffy and create tension. A larger room is more comfortable and encourages individual expression – but not too large as this creates an impersonal atmosphere.
Use visual aids for interest (e.g., posters, diagrams etc.). Display a large version of the agenda for staff members to refer to. Consider using aids such as flipcharts and post-it notes for collecting and analysing key points, or for brainstorming and subsequent analysis.

**Draft a good agenda:** Your agenda needs to include a brief description of the meeting objectives, a list of the topics to be covered and a list stating who will address each topic and for how long. Some other suggestions follow:

- Write or approve the agenda and reject any items that can be dealt with more effectively outside the meeting.
- Condense the agenda so that the meeting can be completed on time.
- Place most important items first, so if you run out of time unimportant items can be left.
- Make the first item ‘Action not completed’, so you do not waste time in discussions on action already taken.
- Do not waste time approving previous minutes, unless this is necessary in an official board meeting.
- Make the agenda items sufficiently specific so people are able to prepare.
- Issue briefing papers to cover any information points – so the meeting can be restricted to clarification and discussion, not recapping.
- Make sure all papers are sent out in good time, to enable staff to prepare – and make it known that staff should be well prepared and concise.
- When you send the agenda, you should include the time, date and location of the meeting and any background information participants will need to know to hold an informed discussion on the meeting topic.

The following is a suggested agenda format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meeting Description:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Meeting:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date/Time:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aim of Meeting:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agenda Item</th>
<th>Timing</th>
<th>Who to Address</th>
<th>Expected Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Opening the meeting** – some tips follow:

- Always start on time; this respects those who showed up on time and reminds latecomers that the scheduling is serious.
- Welcome participants and thank them for their time.
- State the aim(s) of the meeting.
- Review the agenda at the beginning of each meeting, giving participants a chance to understand all proposed major topics, change them and accept them.
- If a meeting recorder is being used, make the participants aware that minutes or action points are being taken and feed them back to each participant shortly after the meeting.
• Clarify your role(s) in the meeting.
• Stress the need for conciseness.

Establish ground rules: You do not need to develop new ground rules each time you have a meeting. However, it pays to have a few basic ground rules that can be used for most of your meetings. These ground rules cultivate the basic ingredients needed for a successful meeting.

You may also want a ground rule about confidentiality.

List your primary ground rules on the agenda. If you have new participants who are not used to your meetings, you might review each ground rule.

FOUR POWERFUL GROUND RULES ARE: PARTICIPATE, GET FOCUSED, MAINTAIN MOMENTUM AND REACH CLOSURE.

Time management: One of the most difficult facilitation tasks is time management – time seems to run out before tasks are completed. Therefore, the biggest challenge is maintaining momentum, to keep the process moving. You might ask participants to help you keep track of the time. If the planned time on the agenda is getting out of hand, present it to the group and ask for their input as to a resolution.

Closing the meeting: Always end meetings on time and attempt to end on a positive note. At the end of each meeting, review how well the meeting aims were met, as well as the agreed actions and assignments. Set the time for the next meeting and ask each person if they can make it or not (to get their commitment). Clarify that meeting minutes or actions resolved will be reported back to members in a week at most (this helps to keep momentum going).

THE MEETING CHAIR

The chair needs to maintain order during the meeting and ensure that the agenda is dealt with quickly and efficiently.

Key duties of the chair include:
• Ensuring agendas and backing papers are sent out in good time
• Making ground rules clear
• Keeping time
• Making clear the timing and nature of each agenda item
• Ensuring that all remarks are directed through the chair, allowing only one speaker at a time
• Keeping contributions to the point and working through the agenda systematically
• Watching behaviour to bring any dissatisfaction into the open and to judge when more time is needed
• Ensuring that everybody who wants to, has an opportunity to contribute
• Ensuring that any necessary decisions are taken at the meeting
• Summing up each item (and action needed) clearly – both for the minutes secretary and to ensure agreement
• Ensuring physical arrangements (including need for breaks, drinks, food etc.) are taken care of
• Ensuring any equipment needed is in working order
• Thanking members and minutes secretary for their participation.
MEETING MINUTES

Where possible, reduce minutes to a set of agreed action points. These can be agreed at the end of each topic and written up by a personal assistant. Often, laptop computers are now used in meetings, to make an instant record.

Other important points of agreement may also need to be recorded – but these should be rare, for example, changes to policy, strategy or organisational plans. These should be recorded and explained to all relevant staff, as well as amendments made to original plans and policies.

The time taken for the meeting should also be recorded, so a meeting assessment can be carried out.

Other tips for minute writing include:
- Ensure that all of the essential elements are noted, such as type of meeting, name of the organisation, date and time, venue, name of the chair, main topics and the time of adjournment. If it is a formal or corporate meeting, include approval of previous minutes and all resolutions.
- Prepare an outline based on the agenda ahead of time and leave plenty of white space for notes. By having the topics already written down, you can jump right on to a new topic without pause.
- Prepare a list of expected participants and check off the names as people enter the room. Or, you can pass around an attendance sheet for everyone to sign as the meeting starts.
- To be sure about who said what, make a map of the seating arrangement and make sure to ask for names of unfamiliar people.
- Do not make the mistake of recording every single comment.

Example of Minutes Format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Organisation:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of Meeting:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date/Time:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agenda Item</th>
<th>Points of Agreement</th>
<th>Action (Resolution)</th>
<th>Person Responsible</th>
<th>Deadline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INFORMAL MEETINGS

A disciplined approach should also be taken at informal meetings. If you are asked to attend an informal meeting, let others know at the outset the maximum time you have available and are able to spend at the meeting.

If you are approached for an informal meeting, or visit another office for an informal meeting and have little time, stand up and remain standing as a signal that this is to be a short meeting.

Some managers walk around and have a brief word with staff on a regular basis (each morning). This is sometimes referred to as ‘management by walking around’. This is a good way to keep up to date with what is happening and to give all staff an opportunity to air any problems. It can also prevent numerous interruptions throughout the day.
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Basic Guide to Conducting Effective Meetings
www.mapnp.org/library/misc/mtgmgmnt.htm

Conducting Effective Meetings
www.cnr.berkeley.edu/ucce50/ag-labor/7labor/11.htm

Effective Meetings Resource Centre
www.effectivemeetings.com/

How to Lead Effective Meetings
www.ohrd.wisc.edu/academicleadershipsupport/howto1.htm

Meeting Wizard
www.meetingwizard.org/meetings/effective-meetings.cfm

Books
Better Meetings
Publisher: The Open University
ISBN: 0749243368

Conducting Effective Meetings – Strategies, Tactics for Successful Meetings
Gerald L. Pepper
Publisher: BrownHerron
ISBN: B00005RYZT

The Easy Step by Step Guide to Fewer, Shorter, Better Meetings: How to Make Meetings More Effective
Brian Lomas
Publisher: Rowmark Ltd
ISBN: 0953985687

Leading Effective Meetings: Participant’s Guide Package
J. William Pfeiffer
Publisher: Pfeiffer Wiley
ISBN: 0883904624

The Manager’s Guide to Effective Meetings
Barbara J. Streibel
Publisher: McGraw-Hill Trade
ISBN: 0071391347
Making presentations is an important way of getting your message across.
CHAPTER 23
PRESENTATIONS

1. Introduction
2. Planning a Presentation
3. Giving a Presentation
   a) Voice and Communication
   b) Body Language
   c) Managing Nerves
4. Presentation Aids
5. Further Resources
Making presentations is an important way of getting your message across. It can also be a nerve-wracking experience, which can easily go wrong! There are some excellent tips and advice that can help with the process and these are summarised briefly below. A professional training course can also be a real investment in terms of experience and building confidence.

PLANNING A PRESENTATION

When planning a presentation, the following items need to be considered:
- Your purpose
- Your audience (and how best to reach them)
- The length of the talk
- The key issues to cover
- The talk structure (beginning, body and conclusion)
- Use of audio-visual equipment
- Whether questions will be taken and, if so, in which format.

Talk structure: prepare your speech
- Define your purpose WHY?
- Know your audience WHO?
- Select content and structure WHAT?
- Ensure your speech has a clear introduction, middle and conclusion.

Remember the importance of body language:

Approximately

7% depends on words used
33% on voice intonation
60% on body language

The opening should grab the audience's attention.

The body of the talk should provide the substance and facts. It must have a clear structure, which the audience can follow. It helps to set out the main points that will be covered in advance.

The conclusion should be powerful and memorable. End with a BANG!
Restrict the amount covered. You will always take longer than you think! Simpler and focused messages are always more effective. The audience will remember startling ideas, images, stories or facts.

Make sure you have examples, stories, illustrations, slides, video clips, analogies, demonstrations and statistics. If you are given a long time for the talk, break it up into short sections.

**Answering questions:** This is an important part of the presentation. Questions can be used to correct misconceptions and move the audience towards your viewpoint. You can relax and act more informally in question sessions, developing a rapport with the audience. It helps to consider the audience and anticipate likely questions and your response.

Where a question is unclear, it helps to repeat your understanding of the question before answering. This ensures the audience is aware of the question and guards against misunderstandings.

### GIVING A PRESENTATION

**a) Voice and Communication**

**Voice projection:** It is important to speak clearly and to project your voice. Vary your voice and speak with enthusiasm and conviction. This will make your presentation much more interesting. Don’t talk in a monotone.

**Language:** Avoid the use of abbreviations, jargon, technical or complex language. Simple, expressive speech is more effective.

**Humour** is generally good to increase interest and build rapport with the audience, but be sure that it is used appropriately.

**Statistics:** The use of statistics can be effective if they are used sparingly and for impact. Too many statistics can be boring!

**Listen and observe:** Communication is a two-way process. Good listening is as active a process as speaking.

**Discipline:** If problems arise, remain polite. Be gently assertive, smile and keep your composure.

**Respect:** Be aware of any cultural differences, foreign speech and names, dialects, regional accents etc. Remain polite and respectful, even if your audience appears antagonistic. If you resort to anger, attack or put-downs, you will alienate and lose your audience. Respect other viewpoints, but continue to press your own.

People are offended by derogatory remarks relating to race, creed, sex, age or colour. Take care to avoid these. Also, be aware of your audience and avoid anything that may offend them.

**b) Body Language**

If you come across as a warm, sincere and dedicated person who has time for the views of your audience, you will come across well. Other suggestions include:

**Eye contact** helps to build up a relationship. Switch eye contact between people in different parts of the room. Use an eyebrow flash to acknowledge people together with a smile.
**Overt body language and mannerisms:** Have an open posture and gestures. Do not be rigid, but do not fidget or gesticulate too much. Be relaxed and confident.

**Stance:** Stand upright, with a relaxed stance. Place your feet comfortably apart and arms hanging loosely by your side (when not in use).

**Facial expression:** Smile at the audience (when appropriate). Convey cheerful warmth to your audience.

**Spatial distance:** Try to get close to your audience, but not close enough to crowd them. Try to avoid barriers created by tables, lecterns and so on.

**Silence:** Do not be afraid of pausing. Space and time are sometimes needed for the audience to digest information and for impact.

**Notes:** It looks impressive when a speaker manages without notes, but not many people can do this successfully. If you are not one of the gifted few, use notes, but do not read your speech. This makes you look stilted and you lose eye contact. Key words written on cards are recommended; tie them together and number them, so you do not drop or lose them.

**Dress:** You should dress smartly and appropriately to give a professional impression. The general rule is to dress one level smarter than your audience.

c) Managing Nerves

It is normal to be nervous. Many great speakers and actors say that they are extremely anxious when they are about to perform. This anxiety can be very helpful in aiding concentration. It will often fade once you have started to talk.

There are a great number of tips that will help you to manage your anxiety. Here are a few:

**Relax.** Drink a little water, but do not risk alcohol, as this can be counter-productive.

**Smile** at your audience as they come in. Developing a rapport helps you to relax and encourages a sympathetic response.

**Be prepared.** Arrive in good time to check that all the equipment works and your notes are in place.

**Expect things to go well** and your audience to be friendly. Pretend you are confident, even if you do not feel it initially — you soon become confident!

**Relaxation and breathing exercises** can be very calming. Try taking slow, deep breaths.

**Above all, there is no substitute for practice!**

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**4 PRESENTATION AIDS**

Audio-visual aids such as videos, slides, overhead projector transparencies and computer projectors (such as PowerPoint) can all improve a presentation.
The advantages of visual aids are numerous:
- They provide impact and a different activity to assist passive listening
- They can help illustrate complex information
- They can add variety
- They can provide useful and non-obtrusive prompts.

However, if badly used, they can be distracting and annoying! For example, do not be tempted to include too many words, or turn your back to the audience to read the screen. Do not use too many audio-visual aids in complex combinations – this has the potential for disaster!

You need to learn how to use aids. You also need to be prepared to manage without them in case there is a technical problem! Always arrive early to check that the venue has the equipment you need (in working order) and that the room will be sufficiently dark.

Don't forget that stories – which are easier to remember than facts – and props (such as models of farming systems), can also help to illustrate points effectively.

Videos can be a powerful medium, combining sight and sound; the sounds of animals can help to carry the full impact of cruelty. Videos should only be shown briefly during presentations, but are useful for breaking up presentations.

Slides are also very powerful. It is much easier to explain what it is like for animals in different systems with a picture on the screen.

You need to test the slides in advance to ensure that they are all the right way up. Different machines are loaded in different ways! Also, check that the projector is correctly focused.

Overhead projectors (OHPs) have less impact, but are most commonly available. You can even buy your own portable machine and take it with you. They are also useful back-ups to a PowerPoint presentation.

Keep OHPs simple and bold, using large type, few words and effective use of colour for impact. You can use a piece of paper to cover parts of the OHP and then reveal information bit by bit. You can also put pictures or cartoons into OHPs. As with other audio-visual equipment, check beforehand to make sure the projector is correctly focused.

PowerPoint is becoming ever more popular, for very good reasons. It can allow a variety of effects in one medium – notes, photos and video. However, they can lead to technological problems! Most screens (except video) can be printed onto OHP transparencies, as back-up.

You can take your presentation on a computer disk, or take your own laptop and link this up to the projector.
Websites
The Art of Communicating Effectively
www.projectorsolution.com/effectivepresentations.asp?

Giving Presentations
www.jaycross.com/jayhoo/giving%20presentations.htm

Giving Presentations
http://bmrc.berkeley.edu/courseware/cs160/spring99/Lectures/14-Presentations/sld001.htm

Giving Presentations
www.mmu.ac.uk/academic/studserv/learningsupport//studyskills/presentations.html

Giving Presentations and Leading Discussions
www.earlham.edu/~peters/courses/leaddisc.htm

One Step Ahead: Giving Presentations
www.askoxford.com/betterwriting/osa/givingpresentations/

Public Speaking
www.uncommon-knowledge.co.uk/public_speaking.html

What Happened to My Slides: Giving Presentations at Conferences
www.cultivate-int.org/issue3/presentations/

Books
Giving Presentations
Jo Billingham, Beatrice Baumgartner-Cohen
Publisher: Oxford University Press
ISBN: 0198606818

Lend Me Your Ears: All You Need to Know About Making Speeches and Presentations
Max Atkinson
Publisher: Vermilion
ISBN: 0091894794

Presentations for Dummies
Malcolm Kushner
Publisher: John Wiley and Sons Inc
ISBN: 0764559559

Presenting Magically: Transforming Your Stage Presence with NLP
David Shephard, Tad James
Publisher: Crown House Publishing
ISBN: 1899836527
Most of our work stress comes from things like work overload, conflicting priorities, inconsistent values, over-challenging deadlines, conflict with co-workers, unpleasant environments and so on.
CHAPTER 24
STRESS MANAGEMENT

1. Introduction

2. What is Stress?
   a) Signs of Stress
   b) Effects of Stress
   c) Types of Responses to Stress

3. Optimal Stress Level

4. Stress Management Strategies
   a) Action-Oriented Approach
   b) Emotionally-Oriented Approach
   c) Acceptance-Oriented Approach

5. Further Resources
Stress is an enormous problem in the animal protection movement. The potential workload is massive and many animal protection societies attempt to tackle far too many issues. Also, mission-driven staff members do not like to refuse to tackle any issue or to turn away any suffering animal. This leads to overload, stress and eventual burn-out for many. Stress and burn-out are key factors in staff absence and rapid staff turnover. There can also be serious physical consequences in the case of prolonged stress. It is vital to recognise this problem and to tackle it in the workplace.

Most of our work stress comes from things like work overload, conflicting priorities, inconsistent values, over-challenging deadlines, conflict with co-workers, unpleasant environments and so on. Not only do these reduce our performance as we divert mental effort into handling them, they can also cause a great deal of unhappiness.

This chapter examines the main symptoms and effects of stress, and gives an overview of the main stress management strategies.

There are various definitions of stress and this is further complicated because we all intuitively understand what stress is – although different people feel stress very differently. The most commonly accepted definition (mainly attributed to Richard S. Lazarus) is that ‘stress is experienced when a person perceives that demands exceed the personal and social resources that the individual is able to mobilise.’ Stress is an effect that our bodies can experience as we struggle to cope with our continually changing environment; it has physical and emotional effects on us and can create positive or negative feelings.

People feel little stress when they have the time, experience and resources to handle a situation. They feel great stress when they do not see themselves as being able to handle the demands put upon them. Stress is then a negative experience. It is not an inevitable consequence of an event. It depends on real ability to cope with a situation and on personal perception of the situation.

But stress is not necessarily bad. For example, the stress of creative, busy, but successful and productive work is beneficial and exhilarating. But stress can be negative and can result in feelings of being overwhelmed, feelings of distrust, rejection, anger and depression, which in turn can lead to health problems such as headaches, upset stomach, rashes, insomnia, ulcers, high blood pressure, heart disease, strokes.

a) Signs of Stress
The symptoms of stress can be physical and/or mental and can include any of the following:

Physical symptoms
- Loss of appetite, or a craving for food, when under pressure
- Frequent indigestion, heartburn or stomach upsets
- Sleeplessness, constant tiredness, fainting or dizziness
- Headaches, migraine, backaches, cramp of muscle spasms
- Impotence, frigidity, frequent tears or the urge to cry.
Mental symptoms
• Frequently feeling irritated
• Difficulty in relaxing
• Obsession with fear or disease
• Feeling hated or neglected
• Inability to make decisions
• Lack of interest in other people
• Feelings of guilt or sense of failure
• Fear of open or confined spaces, or of being alone.

b) Effects of Stress
The effects of stress are increasingly recognised:
• 1992 UN report called job stress ‘The 20th Century Epidemic’
• The World Health Organisation called job stress a ‘World Wide Epidemic’
• The US National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health reports stress related disorders as fast becoming the most prevalent reason for worker disability
• It is estimated that around 40% of worker turnover is due to job stress.

The effects of stress can be seen and felt in a number of ways. For example, you can:
• Feel anxious, depressed, frustrated, irritable, lonely and weary – perhaps all at the same time
• Behave carelessly, be accident prone, over-emotional, eat or drink to excess, tremble and become incoherent
• Find it difficult to concentrate, make decisions, or become hypersensitive.

Excessive stress causes increased blood pressure, aggravates asthma and brings on angina or coronary heart disease. It can affect both your working and private life, perhaps by increased sick leave or by reducing the amount of effort you can make. This in turn can upset your relationships with family, friends and colleagues.

c) Types of Responses to Stress
There are two types of instinctive stress responses, which are important to the understanding of stress and stress management: the short-term ‘Fight-or-Flight’ response and the long term ‘General Adaptation Syndrome’. The first is a basic survival instinct, while the second instinct is a longterm effect of exposure to stress.

Fight-or-Flight: Some of the early research on stress, around 1932, established the existence of the well-known Fight-or-Flight response. This showed that when an organism experiences a shock or perceives a threat, it quickly releases hormones that help it to survive. In humans, as in other animals, these hormones help us to run faster and fight harder. They increase heart rate and blood pressure, delivering more oxygen and blood sugar to power important muscles. They increase sweating in an effort to cool these muscles and help them stay efficient. They divert blood away from the skin to the core of our bodies, reducing blood loss if we are damaged. In addition to this, these hormones focus our attention on the threat, to the exclusion of everything else.

The Fight-or-Flight response is triggered not only by life-threatening danger. It also comes into play when we encounter something unexpected. The body’s mobilisation for survival can have clear negative consequences. We become excitable, anxious, jumpy and irritable, which reduces our ability to work effectively. The intensity of our focus on survival interferes with our ability to make fine judgments and makes us more accident prone.

General Adaptation Syndrome: While the Fight-or-Flight response works in the very short term, the General Adaptation Syndrome operates in response to longer term exposure to causes of stress.
Researchers identified that when pushed to extremes, organisms react in three stages:

- First, in the **Alarm Phase**, they react to the stressor
- Next, in the **Resistance Phase**, the resistance to the stressor increases as the organism adapts to and copes with it. This phase lasts for as long as the organism can support this heightened resistance
- Finally, once resistance is exhausted, the organism enters the **Exhaustion Phase** and resistance declines substantially.

In a work environment, this exhaustion contributes strongly to what is commonly referred to as ‘burn-out’.

### OPTIMAL STRESS LEVEL

There is no single level of stress that is optimal for everyone. We are all individuals with unique requirements and our physiological and psychological responses to stress vary greatly. What is distressing to one may be a joy and a pleasure to another.

Many illnesses are related to unrelieved stress. If you are experiencing adverse stress symptoms, you have gone beyond your optimal stress level; you need to reduce the stress in your life or improve your ability to manage it.

There is a recognised relationship between pressure and performance. When pressure is low, performance is normally low, because other activities compete for attention and we may even feel bored and depressed. When pressure and stress are high, anxieties and disturbances can overload our thinking, reducing our ability to concentrate on a task and thereby reducing our performance.

However, there is an optimum level of pressure at which we can concentrate effectively. At this level, we become involved and immersed in our work and produce the best results without adverse effects. The goal of stress management is to help us to manage stress so that we can maintain this state of optimum involvement and deliver exceptional performance.

### STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

There are three major approaches that we can use to manage stress:

- **Action-oriented**: in which we seek to confront the problem causing the stress, often changing the environment or the situation
- **Emotionally-oriented**: in which we do not have the power to change the situation, but we can manage stress by changing our interpretation of the situation and the way we feel about it
- **Acceptance-oriented**: where something has happened over which we have no power and no emotional control and where our focus is on surviving the stress.

An action-oriented approach is often best used when you have some power to change a situation. Where you do not have power, it may be appropriate to take an emotionally-oriented approach. With this approach, you seek to change your understanding of and response to, the situation. Lastly, if you have no power and a changed appreciation of the situation is not appropriate, then an acceptance-oriented approach may be best.

**a) Action-oriented Approach**

Action-oriented approaches are best where you have some control over your situation:
• Recognise what you can change.
• Change your stressors by avoiding or eliminating them completely.
• Reduce their intensity (manage them over a period of time instead of on a daily or weekly basis).
• Shorten your exposure to stress (take a break, leave the physical premises).
• Devote the time and energy necessary to making a change (goal-setting, planning and time-management techniques may be helpful).
• Review your obligations from time to time and make sure they are still good for you. If they are not, give them up.

b) Emotionally-oriented Approach
Where you do not have power, it may be appropriate to take an emotionally-oriented approach:
• Become aware of your stressors and your emotional and physical reactions.
• Notice your distress. Do not ignore it. Do not gloss over your problems.
• Determine what events distress you. What are you telling yourself about the meaning of these events?
• Determine how your body responds to the stress. Do you become nervous or physically upset? If so, in what specific ways?
• Reduce the intensity of your emotional reactions to stress (the stress reaction is triggered by your perception of danger – physical danger or emotional danger).
• Are you viewing your stressors in exaggerated terms or taking a difficult situation and making it a disaster?
• Are you expecting to please everyone?
• Are you overreacting and viewing things as absolutely critical and urgent?
• Do you feel you must always prevail in every situation?

Work at adopting more moderate views:
• Try to see the stress as something you can cope with rather than something that overpowers you.
• Try to temper your excess emotions.
• Put the situation in perspective. Do not dwell on the negative aspects and the ‘what ifs’.
• Don’t let one thing dominate you, such as your animal protection work – strive to achieve balance.
• View life as challenges to seek, not obstacles to avoid.
• Take responsibility for your life and your feelings, but never blame yourself.
• When worries start to build up, talk to someone.

c) Acceptance-oriented Approach
If you have no control over the situation and a changed appreciation of the situation is not appropriate, then an acceptance-oriented approach may be best:
• Learn to moderate your physical reactions to stress.
• Slow, deep breathing will bring your heart rate and respiration back to normal.
• Learn and practice relaxation or meditation skills.
• Try to avoid the use of sleeping pills, tranquillisers and other drugs, if possible. Learning to moderate these reactions on your own is a preferable long term solution.
• Build your physical reserves.
• Eat well-balanced, nutritious meals.
• Maintain your ideal weight.
• Avoid nicotine, excessive caffeine and other stimulants.
• Get enough sleep. Be as consistent with your sleep schedule as possible.
• Maintain your emotional reserves.
• Develop some mutually supportive friendships.
• Pursue realistic goals that are meaningful to you, rather than goals others have for you that you do not share.
• Expect some frustrations, failures and sorrows.
• Always be kind and gentle with yourself – be a friend to yourself.
• Engage in a vigorous physical exercise that is convenient and pleasurable.
• Protect your personal freedoms and space. Do what you want and feel, but respect the rights of others.
• Find a time and place each day where you can have complete privacy. Take time off from others and pressures.
• Mix leisure with work. Take breaks and get away when you can.
• Open yourself to new experiences. Try new things, new foods and new places.

FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Centre for Stress Management
www.managingstress.com/

Indiana University: Stress Management
www.indiana.edu/~health/stres.html

International Stress Management Association
www.isma.org.uk/

Mind Tools – Stress Management
www.mindtools.com/smpage.html

Online Safety Library: Stress Management

The Stress Management Society
www.stress.org.uk/

Stress Model
www.stressfree.com/model.html

Books
At Ease with Stress
Wanda Nash
Publisher: Darton, Longman and Todd (1988)
ISBN: 0232517770

The Book of Stress Survival
Alix Kirsta
ISBN: 0041320220

Complete Guide to Stress Management
Dr. C. Patel
Publisher: Vermilion (1996)
ISBN: 0091813662
Conquer Your Stress
Cary L. Cooper, Stephen Palmer
Publisher: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2000)
ISBN: 085292853X

Living With Stress
Cary Cooper, Rachel Cooper, Lynn Eaker
Publisher: Penguin (1988)
ISBN: 0140098666

The Relaxation and Stress Reduction Workbook
Martha Davis, Elizabeth Robbins Eshelman, Matthew McKay
Publisher: New Harbinger Publications
ISBN: 1572242140

Stress Management for Dummies
Allen Elkin
Publisher: John Wiley and Sons Inc
ISBN: 0764551442

Teach Yourself Managing Stress
Terry Looker and Olga Gregson
Publisher: Hodder Arnold Teach Yourself (2003)
ISBN: 0340860073

The “Which?” Guide to Managing Stress
Mark Greener
ISBN: 0852029268

What’s All This About Stress
Brenda Davison
Publisher: Liverpool Academic Press (1999)
ISBN: 187280733X
Compassion fatigue is the emotional residue of exposure to working with suffering and traumatic events.
CHAPTER 25
DEALING WITH
COMPASSION FATIGUE

1. Introduction
2. What is Compassion Fatigue?
3. Symptoms and Causes
4. Prevention
5. Treating the Condition
6. Further Resources
CHAPTER 25

DEALING WITH COMPASSION FATIGUE

Compassion fatigue, sometimes known as ‘vicarious trauma’ or ‘secondary traumatic stress’, affects people who are exposed to the traumatic suffering of others. This is a recognised psychological condition and is known to affect animal protection workers who deal with animal suffering and abuse and shelter workers who have to deal with euthanasia. It also affects doctors, nurses, emergency-service personnel, counsellors, social workers, charity workers and clergy members. Nearly everyone who performs emotionally intense animal protection work (particularly investigations, rescues, cruelty case work and euthanasia) can be susceptible to compassion fatigue.

The concept of compassion fatigue emerged only in the last several years in psychological literature. It represents the cost of caring for traumatised people or animals. Compassion fatigue is the emotional residue of exposure to working with suffering and traumatic events. Professionals who work with people or animals, particularly those who are suffering, must contend with not only the normal stress or dissatisfaction of work, but also with the emotional and personal feelings for the suffering.

Compassion fatigue may result in poor job performance and plummeting self-esteem and can even drive some people out of animal protection work entirely. It is not the same as ‘burn-out’, but can cause this. Those who suffer from it can also experience tension in their home lives and can even fall into clinical depression or suffer from other mental-health problems.

It can affect individuals who are giving out a great deal of energy and compassion to others over a period of time, but are not able to get enough back to reassure themselves that the world is a hopeful place. It is the constant outputting of compassion and caring over time that can lead to these feelings.

Professionals who witness or listen to the stories of fear, pain and suffering of animals may feel similar fear, pain and suffering – simply because they care. Indeed, it is often this ability to empathise that brings people to work in the animal protection field in the first place. If you ever feel as though you are losing your sense of self and your capacity for enjoyment and that your job is the only thing that matters to you, then you may be suffering from compassion fatigue.

Compassion fatigue is not ‘burn-out’. Burn-out is associated with stress and hassles involved in your work; it is very cumulative, is relatively predictable and frequently a vacation or change of job helps a great deal. Compassion fatigue is very different. This is a state of tension and preoccupation with the individual or cumulative trauma of animals as manifested in one or more ways including re-experiencing the traumatic event and avoidance or numbing of reminders of the event. Although similar to critical incident stress (being traumatised by something you actually experience or see), compassion fatigue is more like secondary post-traumatic stress.
The signs of compassion fatigue can mimic those of post-traumatic stress disorder, which can afflict people who have survived a traumatic event like combat, rape, or assault. Symptoms include sleeplessness, irritability, anxiety, emotional withdrawal, avoidance of certain tasks, isolation from colleagues, feelings of helplessness and inadequacy and flashbacks.

Frank M. Ochberg, a Michigan psychiatrist who founded Gift From Within, a non-profit group for people who suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder, says compassion fatigue happens when "the milk of human kindness dries up. You forget why you wanted to help [people] in the first place." It can, he says, lead to excessive drinking or other unhealthy behaviours.

Compassion fatigue develops over time – taking weeks, sometimes years to surface. Basically, it is a low level, chronic clouding of caring and concern for others in your life. Over time, your ability to feel and care for others becomes eroded through overuse of your skills of compassion. You also might experience an emotional blunting – whereby you react to situations differently than one would normally expect.

Employees of animal-related charities, such as shelters that euthanise unwanted pets, can be especially hit hard by compassion fatigue. This can contribute to the high annual turnover rates at some shelters. Unlike every other type of charitable work, killing is a part of the job at most animal shelters, notes Diane Less Baird, President of Angels for Animals, a shelter and pet-owner education centre in Greenford, Ohio. “You can only hold so many animals in your arms and feel the life go out of them,” she says, “without it starting to suck the life out of you.”

What’s more, says Carol A. Brothers, a clinical psychologist in Annapolis, Maryland, who conducts compassion fatigue workshops for animal shelters around the USA, shelters tend to encourage workers to remain stoic when euthanising or turning away unwanted pets. In addition, those workers may be less likely than other charity employees to get support from people outside work because often friends and family do not understand the level of empathy with animals and their suffering.

**PREVENTION**

**Personal prevention:** Preventing compassion fatigue is really the key. It is much easier to stop it from occurring in the first place than it is to repair things once it sets in. You have to continually practice good emotional health maintenance along the way and maintain some sort of balance in your life. In your life you should learn to take as well as to give. Treat yourself sometimes and schedule space for relaxation. You also need to put yourself in situations in which you see the positives in life, for example, attending a field trip with your child where you are truly enjoying the experience, or volunteering where you are able to give and receive. Sometimes, you cannot prevent compassion fatigue from occurring. However, practising some of these techniques can restore your ability to feel compassion and energy.

**New employees:** Managers of animal protection societies should always tell new or prospective employees what to expect and advise them of appropriate preventative measures to take. Many do not yet do this, but awareness is greater in human charities. At the Bridges Centre, a grief counselling organisation in Louisville, Kentucky, that is associated with a chain of non-profit hospices, during orientation managers tell new workers about resources, such as support groups for staff members and encourage their use, says Barbara L. Bouton, the Centre Director. “We recognise that compassion fatigue is probably inevitable in the work we do,” she says.
Establishing support systems: Giving employees opportunities to talk about the emotional aspects of their work and their feelings can help keep compassion fatigue from taking hold. After a particularly traumatic event occurs at work, start a conversation about it. The truth is that when people can show their feelings, they do better work. They have more energy.

Support groups can make a world of difference in keeping charity workers on the job and effective.

Informal support, such as providing relaxation rooms for employee use, organising relaxation sessions and yoga lessons can also help. Some animal protection societies already organise lunchtime relaxation sessions for their employees and this is an excellent idea.

Some organisations find other creative ways to combine both the need for acknowledging loss and for lightening up. At the Bridges Centre, for example, staff meetings begin with quiet reflection, the lighting of a candle and the reading of the names of patients who have died recently in the hospices. Yet the same meetings sometimes also include comic relief in the form of comedy actions, dramas and jokes between staff members.

Where possible, some organisations might consider rotating people out of particularly tough jobs after a period of time. Organisations could also consider sponsoring a workshop led by an outside expert.

In addition, employees should be encouraged to seek out stress-relieving activities outside of work. The organisation could locate and make information available about suitable activities in the area.

Keeping an eye not only on the work employees do, but also on the manner in which they do it, can help prevent compassion fatigue from overwhelming workers. The Red Cross, for example, was diligent about monitoring the emotional state of its volunteers reuniting refugee families in Kosovo who had been separated by war. They would watch for the amount of anger they would express with refugees and the number of times the volunteers would go out on assignments. They would also go to the bar in the hotel to see who was there, how often they were there and how long they stayed.

If an employee’s behaviour has changed, he or she could be persuaded to take a test that measures compassion fatigue and encouraged to seek help if needed. If an employee needs help, it is also possible to advise a referral to a counsellor (who understands compassion fatigue) outside the organisation, where counselling can be carried out without fear of job loss, or loss of face.

Charles R. Figley, a Professor in the School of Social Work at Florida State University who founded the Traumatology Institute, says that those who experience compassion fatigue find it is usually alleviated simply by acknowledging the problem and getting support. “The people who experience this are often the best and the brightest. They have extra sensitivity,” he says. And not giving these workers help can undermine not only an organisation but also its long term mission. “If we don’t do something about compassion fatigue, we’re going to lose people.”

The most important step is to acknowledge that you may be experiencing it. All of us have multiple demands and energy drains in our lives – some positive, some negative – which all require a great deal of emotional and physical attention. There are, however, many hands-on things you can do to alleviate the feelings of compassion fatigue. For one, start refocusing on yourself. Before you can tend to others and be sensitive to their needs, you have to take care of your own well-being. This can be as simple as getting plenty of rest, becoming more aware of your dietary and recreational...
habits and cutting out negative addictions in your life like nicotine, alcohol and caffeine. Remember, the healing process takes time, as does the development of the problem.

Vacations are healthy, restorative interventions that can head off negative feelings so that they do not progress beyond the point of no return. Transferring to another unit either temporarily or permanently is another alternative. A job that is more mechanical and less animal service-oriented can sometimes give people just the respite they need to regain their balance and their empathy.

Professionals who suffer from compassion fatigue must be persuaded to give themselves a break. They should also be encouraged to focus on the things they are doing right and not to become overwhelmed.

**THE SUCCESSES, HOWEVER MINOR, SHOULD ALWAYS BE CELEBRATED AND REMEMBERED. THESE SHOULD BE THE FOCUS, RATHER THAN THE MANY SUFFERING ANIMALS THAT THE ORGANISATION IS UNABLE TO HELP.**

**FURTHER RESOURCES**

**Websites**
- Compassion Fatigue, including self test
  www.vaonline.org/care.html
- Compassion Fatigue Articles
  www.vaonline.org/doc_compassion.html
- Compassion Fatigue – the Stress of Too Much Caring
  www.ace-network.com/cfspotlight.htm
- Compassion Fatigue – self test
  www.ace-network.com/cftest.htm
- How Compassion Fatigue Can Overwhelm Charity Workers
  http://philanthropy.com/jobs/2002/03/21/20020321-974239.htm
- Overcoming Compassion Fatigue
  http://pspinformation.com/caregiving/thecaregiver/compassion.shtml

**Books**
- Compassion Fatigue: Secondary Traumatic Stress Disorders In Those Who Treat The Traumatised
  Charles R. Figley
  Publisher: Brunner-Mazel Publisher
  ISBN: 0876307594

- The Master’s Touch: Coping with Compassion Fatigue
  Barrie E. Henke
  Publisher: Concordia Publishing House
  ISBN: 0570094348
Treating Compassion Fatigue
Charles R. Figley
Publisher: Taylor and Francis Group; (September 2002)
ISBN: 1583910530
Because our opponents are better resourced in many ways, it is vital that we continue to make the most of our most valuable asset – our staff. Continuous learning and Kaizen are ways of achieving this.
CHAPTER 26
CONTINUOUS LEARNING

1. Introduction
2. What is a Learning Organisation?
3. The Learning Cycle
4. Levels of Learning
5. Characteristics of a Learning Organisation
6. Kaizen
7. Further Resources
CHAPTER 26
CONTINUOUS LEARNING

The animal protection environment is a fast-changing one, where we are faced with a complex range of problems and opportunities. Because our opponents are better resourced in many ways, it is vital that we continue to make the most of our most valuable asset – our staff. Continuous learning and Kaizen are ways of achieving this. Both of these concepts are elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

A Learning Organisation is an organisation that learns and encourages learning among its people. It promotes exchange of information between employees, thereby creating a more knowledgeable workforce. This produces a very flexible organisation where people will accept and adapt to new ideas and changes through a shared vision.

“A LEARNING ORGANISATION IS ONE IN WHICH PEOPLE AT ALL LEVELS, INDIVIDUALS AND COLLECTIVELY, ARE CONTINUALLY INCREASING THEIR CAPACITY TO PRODUCE RESULTS THEY REALLY CARE ABOUT.” – Senge

A Learning Organisation establishes procedures to:
• Apply techniques to measure the organisation’s strengths and weaknesses, successes and failures
• Identity areas for improvement within the organisation
• Set organisational policies and approaches to all aspects of management
• Implement techniques to improve organisational effectiveness.

The importance of learning was first put forward by the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551-479 BC). He believed that everyone should benefit from learning:

“WITHOUT LEARNING, THE WISE BECOME FOOLISH; BY LEARNING, THE FOOLISH BECOME WISE.”

“LEARN AS IF YOU COULD NEVER HAVE ENOUGH OF LEARNING, AS IF YOU MIGHT MISS SOMETHING.”

The growing emphasis on organisational learning can be attributed to the increased pace of change in the workplace. Classically, work has been thought of as being conservative and difficult to change. Now, there is such a fast-changing environment that business as usual is no longer an option. With the pace of change ever quickening, the need to develop mechanisms for continuous learning and innovation is greater than ever.

THE LEARNING CYCLE

Evaluation is necessary for an organisation to learn from its mistakes and also to appreciate its successes. Discussion and contribution in a team framework is vital, followed by assessment and planning. Each team member should be encouraged to assess his or her own performance. This requires continuous feedback and assessment, which is commonly depicted using the Learning
Animal protection organisations can be very poor at evaluation, dashing from campaign to campaign, or project to project. This may give the feeling of constant activity, but it completely misses the important chance to learn and improve upon experiences.

An organisation that learns and wants its people to learn, should try to follow certain concepts in learning techniques and mould itself to accommodate for a number of specific attributes. These include:

- Thrive on Change
- Encourage Experimentation
- Communicate Success and Failure
- Facilitate Learning from the Surrounding Environment
- Facilitate Learning from Employees
- Reward Learning
- A Sense of Caring and Mutual Support.

If the changeover to a Learning Organisation happened overnight, the environment around the workers would be complex and dynamic. This would cause fear, uncertainty and confusion, which would hamper learning and openness to change. So it can only be introduced into a company that is prepared to reach a balance between change and stability, – a balance between the old and the new.

**LEVELS OF LEARNING**

A Learning Organisation is not simply about more training. While training does help develop certain types of skills, a Learning Organisation involves the development of higher levels of knowledge and skills. This includes four levels of learning:

1. Learning facts, knowledge, processes and procedures. This applies to known situations where changes are minor.
2. Learning new job skills that are transferable to other situations. This applies to new situations where existing responses need to be changed. Bringing in outside expertise is a useful tool here.
3. Learning to adapt. This applies to more dynamic situations where the solutions need developing. Experimentation and deriving lessons from success and failure is important here.

4. Learning to learn. This is about innovation and creativity – designing the future rather than merely adapting to it. This is where assumptions are challenged and knowledge is reframed.

This model (or an adaptation of it) can be applied at three levels – to the learning of individuals, of teams and of organisations.

5. **CHARACTERISTICS OF A LEARNING ORGANISATION**

Some of the key characteristics of a Learning Organisation include:

**A Learning Culture**: an organisational climate that nurtures learning.
- Future, external orientation – these organisations develop an understanding of their environment; senior teams take time out to think about the future. External sources and advisors (such as consultants) are widely used
- Free exchange and flow of information – systems are in place to ensure that expertise is available where it is needed; individuals network extensively, crossing organisational boundaries to develop their knowledge and expertise.
- Commitment to learning, personal development – support from top management; people at all levels are encouraged to learn and learning is rewarded
- Valuing people – ideas and creativity are stimulated, made use of and developed. Diversity is recognised as a strength. Views can be challenged
- Climate of openness and trust – individuals are encouraged to develop ideas, to speak out, to challenge actions
- Learning from experience – learning from mistakes is often more powerful than learning from success. Failure is tolerated, provided lessons are learnt.

**Key Management Processes** are in place to encourage interaction across boundaries. These are infrastructure, development and management processes, for example:
- Strategic and Scenario Planning – approaches to planning that go beyond the numbers, encourage challenging assumptions, thinking ‘outside of the box’. They also allocate a proportion of resources for new challenges
- Competitor Analysis – as part of a process of continuous monitoring and analysis of all key factors in the external environment, including political factors
- Information and Knowledge Management – using techniques to identify, audit, value (cost/benefit), develop and exploit information as a resource
- Capability Planning – profiling both qualitatively and quantitatively the competencies of the organisation
- Team and Organisation Development – the use of facilitators to help groups with work, job and organisation design and team development – reinforcing values, developing vision, cohesiveness and a climate of stretching goals, sharing and support
- Reward and Recognition Systems – processes and systems that recognise acquisition of new skills, team work as well as individual effort, celebrate successes and accomplishments and encourage continuous personal development.
Another very similar concept to a Learning Organisation is Kaizen.

Kaizen strategy calls for never-ending efforts for improvement involving everyone in the organisation – managers and workers alike.

In practice, Kaizen can be implemented in organisations by improving every aspect of the work process in a step-by-step approach, while gradually developing employee skills through training, education and increased involvement.

The principles of Kaizen implementation are:
- Human resources are the most important company asset.
- Processes must evolve by gradual improvement rather than radical changes.
- Improvement must be based on statistical or quantitative evaluation of performance (quite difficult to apply in the animal protection environment).

Support throughout the entire structure is necessary to become successful at developing a strong Kaizen approach. Management as well as workers need to believe in the Kaizen idea and strive toward obtaining the small goals in order to reach overall success. Therefore, all members of an organisation need to be trained in a manner to support this. Resources, measurements, rewards and incentives all need to be aligned to and working with the Kaizen structure of ideas.

Improvement can be broken down between innovation and Kaizen. Innovation involves a drastic improvement in the existing process and requires large investments. Kaizen signifies small improvements as a result of coordinated continuous efforts by all employees.

The Kaizen mindset
- Not a day should go by without some kind of improvement being made somewhere in the company.
- Mission-driven strategy for improvement – any management activity should eventually lead to increased mission achievement.
- Quality first: professionalism and quality as goals.
- Recognition that any organisation has problems and establishing culture where everyone can freely admit these problems and suggest improvement.
- Problem solving is seen as cross-functional systemic and collaborative approach.
- Emphasis on process – establishing a way of thinking oriented at improving processes and a management system that supports and acknowledges people's process-oriented efforts for improvement.
- A positive, win-win attitude, not a blame culture.
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Continuous Improvement
www.managementhelp.org/quality/cont_imp/cont_imp.htm

Kaizen
www.1000ventures.com/business_guide/mgmt_kaizen_main.html

Kaizen Institute
www.kaizen-institute.com

Learning Organisations
www.see.ed.ac.uk/~gerard/MENG/MEAB/lo_index.html

The Learning Organisation
www.skyrme.com/insights/3lrnorg.htm

Books
50 Ways Towards a Learning Organisation
Andrew Forrest
Publisher: Spiro Press
ISBN: 1858355990

The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation
Peter M. Senge
Publisher: Bantam Doubleday
ISBN: 0385260954

The Goal: A Process of Ongoing Improvement
Eliyahu M. Goldratt, Jeff Cox
Publisher: North River Press
ISBN: 0884271781

The Kaizen Blitz
Anthony C. Laraia
Publisher: John Wiley
ISBN: 0471246484

Kaizen and You: Personal Success Through Continuous Improvement
Igor Popovich
Publisher: Management Books 2000
ISBN: 1852522615

Kick Down the Door of Complacency:
Seize the Power of Continuous Improvement
Charles C. Harwood
Publisher: St Lucie Press
ISBN: 157444168X
Office Kaizen: Transforming Office Operations into a Strategic Competitive Advantage
William Lareau
Publisher: American Society for Quality
ISBN: 0873895568

Ten Steps to a Learning Organisation
Peter Kline, Bernhard Saunders
Publisher: Great Ocean Publishers
ISBN: 0915556324
The ability to remain motivated and to motivate your team is one of the most valuable skills you can learn.
CHAPTER 27
KEEPING MOTIVATED

CONTENTS
1. Introduction
2. Factors Influencing Motivation
3. The Master Plan
4. Motivating Your Team
5. Further Resources
Animal protection work can be gruelling, both in terms of the sheer volume of hard work it entails and because of the suffering inherent in it. As can be seen from previous chapters, it is sometimes difficult to remain motivated and optimistic and problems such as burn-out and compassion fatigue are common.

The ability to remain motivated and to motivate your team is one of the most valuable skills you can learn. This chapter of the Member Society Manual explores the factors that influence motivation and offers some practical advice.

Hierarchy of needs: Motivation is complex and highly individual. The motivation to work can be physical (earning money for food or shelter), psychological (seeking social satisfaction or security) or more unconscious and instinctive – which applies particularly to altruistic and self-fulfilment reasons. One of the most popular theories explaining motivation is Maslow’s ‘hierarchy of needs’, which categorises human motivations as follows:

1. Physiological. Food, water and shelter
2. Safety and security
3. Belonging and love. Social needs
4. Esteem, recognition and praise
5. Self actualisation and self-fulfilment

However, many researchers are now beginning to acknowledge that the factors that energise behaviour are likely to be different from the factors that provide for its persistence. It appears likely that initiation of behaviour may be more related to emotions and emotional behavioural inclinations, while persistence may be more related to volition or goal-orientation.

The following two theories examine the factors that influence motivation:
The theory works on the basis that needs are only motivators when they are unsatisfied. The lower order needs (physiology and safety) are dominant until satisfied, when the higher needs come into being.

Very few animal protection workers are motivated by physiological or security needs, as wage rates are comparatively low and advantageous conditions and benefits few. However, as the movement attracts good, concerned citizens, it will also attract workers motivated by social needs (who will appreciate the company of such individuals).

Expectancy theory: A cognitive approach is that of ‘expectancy theory’ (Vroom, 1964) which is based on the following equation:

\[
\text{Motivation} = \text{Perceived Probability of Success (Expectancy)} \times \text{Connection of Success and Reward (Instrumentality)} \times \text{Value of Obtaining Goal (Value)}
\]

Since this formula relies on the three factors of expectancy, instrumentality and value being multiplied by each other, a low value in one will result in a low value of motivation. Therefore, all three must be present in order for motivation to be high.

THE MASTER PLAN

What is clear is that motivation can be achieved by following a dream or a vision for the future that matters to you individually. So, to achieve the maximum motivation, you need to be clear about what matters to you and to set out to achieve this.

“When you determine what you want, you have made the most important decision of your life. You have to know what you want in order to attain it.” ~ Douglas Lurtan

People who have a vision control their destiny and lifestyle as they move towards this. This power of taking control is an important part of motivation. It is also an important factor in motivational management.

Once you know the direction you want to go then you can begin working on some goals. These must be achievable to provide motivation.

Goal-setting is extremely important to motivation and success.

Goals are wants. So are dreams, but goals are more specific.

Goals need to be **SMART**, that is:
- **S**trategic (taking you along the path to your dream)
- **M**easurable
- **A**chievable
- **R**ealistic
- **T**imed.
Within these goals, smaller and more immediate targets can be applied. For some, it helps to keep a prioritised day list and to work to achieve a certain portion of this each day.

Seven Rules of Motivation

1. Follow a path, but set goals along the way. When you learn to succeed at mini-goals, you will be motivated to challenge grand goals.

2. Finish what you start. A half-finished project is of no use to anyone. Quitting is a habit. Develop the habit of finishing self-motivated projects.

3. Socialise with others of similar interest. Mutual support is motivating. It is said that we will develop the attitudes of our five best friends. If they are losers, we will be a loser. If they are winners, we will be a winner.

4. Learn how to learn. Dependency on others for knowledge is a slow, time-consuming process. Learning is empowering.

5. Increase knowledge of subjects that inspire. The more we know about a subject, the more we want to learn about it.

6. Harmonise natural talent with interests that motivate. Natural talent creates motivation, motivation creates persistence and persistence gets the job done. Doing things you are good at gets results.

7. Take risks. Failure and bouncing back are elements of motivation. Failure is a learning tool. No one has ever succeeded at anything worthwhile without a string of failures.

Animal protection staff are usually mission-driven. In this case, the theory is that you simply need to align individual goals with those of the organisation and provide the necessary resources, support or training, and you will achieve motivation. However, motivation is highly complex and other factors need to be taken into account. This section examines some simple and practical things you can do to ensure that your team remains motivated.

When looking for ways to energise your team, make sure that your plans address one or more of eight basic human desires. The desire for:

- Activity
- Ownership
- Power
- Affiliation
- Competence
- Achievement
- Recognition
- Meaning.

The first few minutes of the workday can often be the most important time you will have with your team. It sets the tone for the rest of the day, inspiring others to achieve greater results or leaving them without direction or energy.
**Arrive early:** There is nothing quite as frustrating to an employee as seeing his or her boss arrive hours after the workday has begun. It is very difficult to respect and follow a leader who fails to give as much as they expect in return. Arrive at work before or with your employees and let your actions demonstrate your dedication to the company and its objectives.

**Energy:** Moods and attitudes are contagious. The moment you walk through the door in the morning you are sending a message with your body language. Walk in with a spring in your step and a smile on your face and you will spread the enthusiasm necessary for a productive workday.

**Meet and greet:** Begin the day by greeting your people, letting them know through your actions that you care about them and feel that they are valuable to your organisation. If you merely run to your office and fail to acknowledge the others around you, it will only serve to create a rift between you and ones you rely on for success.

**Praise and recognition:** We all crave and appreciate recognition and praise for our hard work. Recognition costs little or, in many cases, nothing – and almost everyone responds to it. Receiving praise is highly motivational and is part of the formula for success.

Affiliation, approval and being part of a strong team can also be enormous motivators.

**Control:** Motivation can also be enhanced by the way the job is organised. Control is an important factor – staff members like to have control over their own environments and the methods they employ. It is more motivating for staff to be given outcomes for tasks and to be left to develop their own ways and methods, rather than being told ‘what and how’ to do things.

**Results orientation:** If the organisation builds a ‘results orientation’ (as opposed to being activities focused), then success will be considered all the more valuable. It will also assist staff motivation, as they see the team working towards achievement of the vision, rather than just being active.

To achieve this, employees need to know where they are heading and why. Ensure that your employees know what you are trying to achieve and what you expect of them in the process. Relaying clear objectives will help them to schedule their own priorities and work towards these.

**Individual motivations:** Individual motivations also need to be explored and used in order to achieve maximum motivation. For example, internal motivation is longer-lasting and more self-directive than is external motivation, which must be repeatedly reinforced by praise or concrete rewards.

Some researchers claim that individuals are motivated to either avoid failure (more often associated with performance goals) or achieve success (more often associated with mastery goals). In the former situation, the individual is more likely to select easy or difficult tasks, thereby either achieving success or having a good excuse for why failure occurred. In the latter situation, the individual is more likely to select moderately difficult tasks, which will provide an interesting challenge, but still keep the high expectations for success.

Knowing your people is the key to successful motivational management.

**“IF YOU THINK YOU CAN OR CAN’T, YOU ARE RIGHT.”** ~ Henry Ford
FURTHER RESOURCES

Websites
Accel Team: Employee Motivation in the Workplace
www.accel-team.com/motivation/

General Principles of Motivation
http://honolulu.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/motivate.htm

Maslow: Principles of Motivation
http://psychclassics.yorku.ca/Maslow/motivation.htm

Motivation to Learn: An Overview
http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html

Motivation Tools
www.motivation-tools.com/

University of Minnesota Handbook – Motivation
www.d.umn.edu/student/loon/acad/strat/motivate.html

Books
1001 Ways to Motivate Yourself and Others
Sang H. Kim
Publisher: Turtle Press
ISBN: 1880336073

Coaching For Performance: Growing People, Performance and Purpose
Sir John Whitmore
Publisher: Nicholas Brealey Publishing
ISBN: 1857883039

How to Motivate Every Employee: 24 Proven Tactics to Spark Productivity in the Workplace
Anne Bruce
Publisher: McGraw-Hill Education
ISBN: 0071413332

Maximum Achievement
Brian Tracy
Publisher: Prentice Hall and IBD
ISBN: 0684803313