

**Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources
The Republic of Ghana**

**Participatory Forest Resource Management Project
in the Transitional Zone
(PAFORM)**

**Participatory Approaches for
Forest Reserve Management
PAFORM Approach and toward its Wide-use**

**ANNEX 1
Guidebook for Orientation of Community Facilitator**

January 2009

**JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY
Sanyu Consultants Inc.**

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GUIDEBOOK
FOR
ORIENTATION
OF
COMMUNITY FACILITATOR

January 2009

FSD/JICA PAFORM

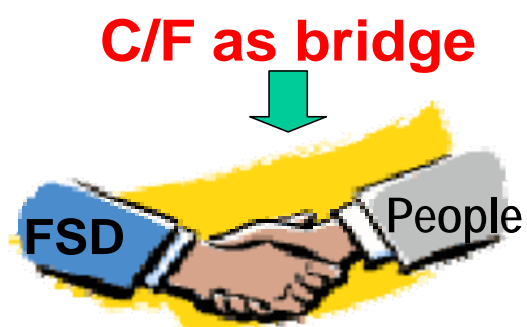


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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

What is Community Facilitator?

“Community Facilitator” is a title assigned for Participatory Forest Resource Management Project in the Transitional Zone (PAFORM) implemented from March 2004 to March 2009 in Sunyani (C/F was assigned since May 2006). The title was unique for FSD at that time, though community facilitation itself had been practiced under the objective of collaborative forest management between FSD and forest fringe communities.

The duty of community facilitator (C/F) is basically to be a liaison with the forest fringe communities and FSD. Their routine is considered as to 1) organize / arrange various workshops & surveys and 2) monitor and assist the activities of FSD with the community members. But on actual interaction with community, they are expected to play further role such as helping community members identify their hidden talents and how to develop them and make use of their power for the livelihood improvement.

C/F was put in the structure of the implementation to achieve the project purpose of PAFORM, which was to improve participatory approaches for sustainable management of the forest reserves. Subject to such project purpose, not only as a liaison but also the community facilitators were duly specialized to develop collaborative relationship between FSD and the communities in actual implementation of PAFORM. Following were some experiences of the community facilitators:

- There are some conflicts over the inner rules of Green Belt activities. C/F was invited to the meeting among the GB members to settle down the struggle again and again. Finally, he succeeded the remission of the conflict through discussions.
- Some communities were attacked by serious bushfire in February 2008. Their property including maize storehouse and houses were burnt and they faced difficulty such as food shortage. One C/F exerted himself to seek some support for the victims. He communicated with NADMO, NGOs, religious bodies, governmental agencies on behalf of the community. Thanks for his effort, he succeeded to get some supports for the community from those organizations.
- Some communities do not have access to necessary information such as sanitation or reproductive health. Once people acquire the knowledge, it is useful and practical without any financial support, which can lead to improvement of their health conditions. Some basic trainings to improve the living conditions were organized through the C/F's initiatives.
- C/F had been aware of the urgent needs of clean water of the communities in charge and he consulted with the Sunyani Municipal Assembly about their programme of drilling boreholes. As a result of negotiation, the Assembly decided to allocate their fund for drilling two boreholes in the fringe communities.

C/F was trusted by the community as they assisted the community members over their problems regardless the issues concerning with forestry. As a result, they greatly contributed to establishing good relationship between the communities and FSD. For now it has been recognized that FSD needs to develop such capacity in their staff to establish better relationship with the forest fringe communities toward sustainable management of forest reserves.

Objective of the Guidebook

The objective of this guidebook is to compile the training materials of community facilitators, which were used during the PAFORM project period, in order to be references for undertakings of community facilitator roles. When FSD organizes orientations or trainings for capacity development of FSD field staff to work as a community facilitator, it is expected that this guidebook will serve as a reference book for both trainers and trainees.

C/Fs are requested to understand background of forest management in Ghana and it is essential for them to have good communication skill. C/Fs are outsiders for communities and they have to make an effort to grasp social conditions in the communities and to establish good relationship with them. Facilitators' important task is to educe people's talent and potentials and C/Fs are expected to content with remaining a stagehand. Based on the understanding these factors mentioned above are necessary for C/Fs of PAFORM, a series of facilitation trainings was organized and materials used in the trainings are compiled in this guidebook.

The book is edited with the materials of the trainings for community facilitator in Chapter 2. These materials are complied by training which were done in 2006 to 2009 as mentioned above. It is possible for the readers to utilize these materials according to their developmental stage as C/Fs such as beginners, experience workers and seniors (trainer's trainer). If a user of this guidebook is a fresh C/F, it is recommended to refer to Chapter 2.1 to 2.3. Chapter 2.1 is useful for those who want to know history of forest management in Ghana. Chapter 2.2 and 2.3 are practical materials to understand good communication and important points to work as facilitators. If another user have experiences as C/Fs, Chapter 2.4 is effective for him/her. The training cited in Chapter 2.5 was the last facilitation training in PAFORM, which was targeting advanced C/Fs and FSD front staff, and the trainees are expected to become trainers to beginners. It is desirable for the participants of the last facilitation training to play a role to train fresh C/Fs after the PAFORM termination.

In addition to that, some working experiences of C/F in PAFORM were briefed in Chapter 3 to serve for the orientation to the community facilitation. The users can understand what kinds of efforts were done C/Fs through PAFORM project.

To be a good community facilitator, it will be the best way that you practice with the community members. This guidebook merely introduces to a piece of advice for those who will face to the community. Facilitation skill cannot be improved by only training. Continuous communication and interrelation with people can promote and improve individual's facilitation skill. It is therefore the only expectation that this book takes a decent part of the whole exercises of community facilitation.

Participatory Approaches in PAFORM

C/F is expected to take a major role in practice of PAFORM Model. Explanation on PAFORM Model is found in the Main report of the PAFORM output, "Participatory Approaches for Forest Reserve Management – PAFORM Model and toward its Wide-use". The reader of this guidebook is therefore required to also look through the main report. Here just gives a digest of the essence from the introduction of the report:

Participatory Forest Reserve Management has been discussed and practiced mainly from the viewpoint of "How can we make the locals participate in the Forest Reserve Management activities?". Taunjya system is a symbolic activity for this thought of participation. On the other hand, PAFORM has recognized, through its activities, the approach that the government administration (FSD)

participates in the activities of the locals as well as promoting the participation of the locals in the Forest Reserve Management. This two-way participatory approach for the Forest Reserve Management has been recognized when putting the Forest Reserve Management in the context of the surrounding regional development.

When we talk about “Participation”, it is so often opt to argue, “How we can make the locals participate”, but PAFORM has attempted to discuss and practice “How the stakeholders, especially FSD can participate in the activities of locals”. It is expected that FSD’s participating (or frankly saying, assisting) in the activities, whose initiative and ownership belong to the locals, will generate the friendly relationships between the administration and locals. Sustainability of the activities will also be expected since it is the activities of their own. Establishing friendly relationship with the locals and the development of the local communities (regions) will indirectly contribute to sustainable Forest Reserve Management in long run.

Participatory Approaches for Forest Reserve Management is thus defined as a combination of two approaches with different directions; “Participation of Locals in Forest Reserve Management” and Participation of Administration in the Community (Regional) Development”.

CHAPTER 2 MATERIALS OF TRAININGS USED DURING PAFORM PROJECT PERIOD

This chapter compiles of a set of training materials actually used for 3 years through PAFORM activities. In addition to that, a documentation of a series of discussions among PAFORM team members on participatory approach prepared by JICA Advisory Team of PAFORM is attached in section 2.6. Following table shows the list of the materials compiled in this chapter:

Materials from Training of Community Facilitators Compiled in this Handbook

No.	Training Title	Date Administered	Resource Person
1	Collaborating Forest Management	April 27 to 28, 2006	Mr. Eric E. Nutakor, Forest Resource Institution of Ghana (FORIG)
2	Effective Communication and Good Facilitation Participatory Approaches in Collaborative Forest Management	May 8 to 19, 2006	Mrs. Marian Tadeffa-Kubabom Development Initiatives Consult
3	Training of FSD Staff	June 13 to 22, 2006	
4	Refresher Training of Community Facilitators & FSD Staff	January 14 to 18, 2008	
5	Training of Trainers for Community Facilitators & FSD Staff	January 19 to 23, 2009	
6	Participatory Approach in PAFORM	June to July, 2007	Initiated by Mr. Shimazu (the expert of Participatory Approach)

2.1 Collaborative Forest Management Training (April 27 to 28, 2006)

C/Fs are requested to have general knowledge of background of forest management in Ghana, since they are to serve for forest management in collaboration with communities by asking people to understand the current conditions related to forest management. It is also important for C/Fs to exert themselves for establishment of good relationship between FSD and communities for smooth forest management.

This sub chapter mentions the history of relation between local people and the Ghana Government over forest resource utilization. In addition, this sub-chapter summarizes regulation of forest management and relevant institutions. It is the fact that there were some conflicts between them how to share the harvest from forests, however, there was increasing recognition of the rights of local communities by the government. The government side came to understand the potentials of people for forest management.

This sub-chapter emphasizes the importance to pay respect to social characteristics of the communities such as social structures and social values for the trust-building between FSD and communities. It also introduces some cases of collaborative natural resource management in some countries including Ghana. These cases are useful for C/Fs to understand how to establish good relationship with communities.

COLLABORATING FOREST MANAGEMENT
(C.F.M)

PARTICIPATORY FOREST RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT IN THE TRADITIONAL ZONE
(PAFORM)
TRAINING OF COMMUNITY FACILITATORS

RESOURCE PERSON: MR. ERIC E. NUTAKOR
FOREST RESOURCE INSTITUTION OF GHANA
(FORIG)



PAFORM Training Plan on Participatory Forest Management

Prepared on 18/Apr/2006

Objective	The objective of the training component is give adequate orientation to forestry participant staff in the concept of participatory forest management and to inculcate in them the mentality and tools for developing partnership with stakeholders at community level who would be involved in the implementation of participatory structures to be introduced.
Output	Trained and oriented staff capable of dealing with stakeholders at the local level to enhance collaborative forest management. They will be able to facilitate the development of partnership, implement the participatory process and monitor and evaluate the performance of the process. They will be socially oriented to the project and know how to interact with different stakeholders to achieve the objectives of the project.
Trainees	Totally 15 members (District Manager, Assistant District Manager, Area Manager (2), Range/Plantation Supervisor (5), Candidate of Community Facilitator (6))
Other participants	Project manager, assistant project manager, zonal manager, Kengo Yoshida (JICA Advisor), Ben (JICA Technical Assistant). Customer Service Officer
Observers	Other Range/Plantation Supervisors in Sunyani District
Trainer	Mr. Eric E Nutakor, FORIG
Venue	PAFORM Seminar Room
Date	27 – 28 April, 2006

Curriculum

27th April 2006

9:30-9:40	Opening remarks (Mr. Sowah)
9:40-10:45	Traditional forestry, strengths and weaknesses
10:45-11:00	Interaction
11: 15-12:30	Social perspectives of forest policy: how it affected forest management
	Lunch
1:30-2:45	Sociological orientation: Involving people in forest management
2:45-3:00	break
3:00-4:15	Collaborative methods: constraints and opportunities

28th April 2006

9:00- 10:30	The principles of pluralism in forest management
10:30-10:45	Interaction/break
11:12:30	The methodology of multi-stakeholder participation in FM: Interest groups, and partnerships, agreements, implementation, monitoring and evaluation etc
	Lunch
1:30-3:00	The methodology of multi-stakeholder participation in FM: Interest groups, and partnerships, agreements, implementation, monitoring and evaluation etc (continued)
3:15-4:30	Critical assessment of Examples of collaboration in Ghana and field experiences of participants
4:30-4:45	Training evaluation

Collaborative Forest Management Facilitator Training

PAFORM/JICA
Sunyani
April 27-28 2006
Presented by
Eric Nutakor
FORIG, Kumasi

The paradigm shift

- What we are here to do. Re socialization, a new way of doing things.
- What is the objective? Social orientation and skills of facilitation in collaboration within a rural community for sustainable forest management
- Goal: understand the system in which you will work or socialize and learn skills to deal with the system
- Why the need to know your system?
 - You are bringing innovation for social change; new thing to an existing culture (a way of doing things and the totality of knowledge and values).
 - So you will meet with various attitudes (socialization or behaviour) based of the perceptions (Social psychology) or worldview of the people; **Resistance** **apathy** **expectation** **optimism** **pessimism** and **cynicism** to: new ideas, new values, i.e. the goals and objectives of collaborative management (social change) by elements of society.

- attitudes ultimately affect the success levels of interventions into cultural systems
- So how do you overcome these problems?
 - You must understand how society functions and how to use that knowledge to enhance your work.
 - You need to know the structure of society, its culture its value systems, norms, traditions, beliefs etc
 - to determine and understand its perceptions and attitudes under given conditions i.e. its dynamics of progress, adaptation, resistance to change etc or motivations and aspirations.
- You need to have a definite innovation to introduce to the system and you must know how to impart it.
- That innovation will be termed "pluralism" or call it "collaboration"

- **Involving people in collaborative forest management.**
 - The question is; is it important? To whom and why should it be so important?
- **What is the implication of what you are seeking to do?**
 - Social change/ transformation for progress, upsetting the status quo, creating dis- equilibrium to re-establish a new equilibrium, make progress (a value judgment)
- **Whom will it affect and how.**
 - Elements of society (strata of the system with different interests) and the entire structure; institutions, families, individuals, livelihoods,
 - perceptions, attitudes, value systems, and norms will all be upset.
 - So you need to be very tactical, alert and knowledgeable of the system and the tool of innovation.

Your attitude in all this

1. You must be considerate of the sensitivities of the recipients, beneficiaries and victims to ensure that in the end all the diverse interests become average winners.
2. This can only come about if you have a positive social orientation to the democratization of FRM.
3. You must be a believer, an ardent one and not just run-of-the-mill.
4. You must be a fanatic and a moderate at the same time i.e., you must facilitate and not get emotionally involved.
5. You will be impartial in mediating the interaction of interest groups, otherwise known as stakeholders.

They could be local people or otherwise.

6. You will lead and follow them step-by-step, providing information support, guidance and assistance.
7. You will not give and take instructions but you will communicate and listen more

8. You will help them determine and negotiate the various roles, returns rights, and interactive relationships of each respective individual or groups of them in order to
enhance cohesion and sustainability of the new innovation.

This innovation must be worked out and belong to the existing culture as you will meet it.

If you do not agree with me so far then we can end the workshop!?

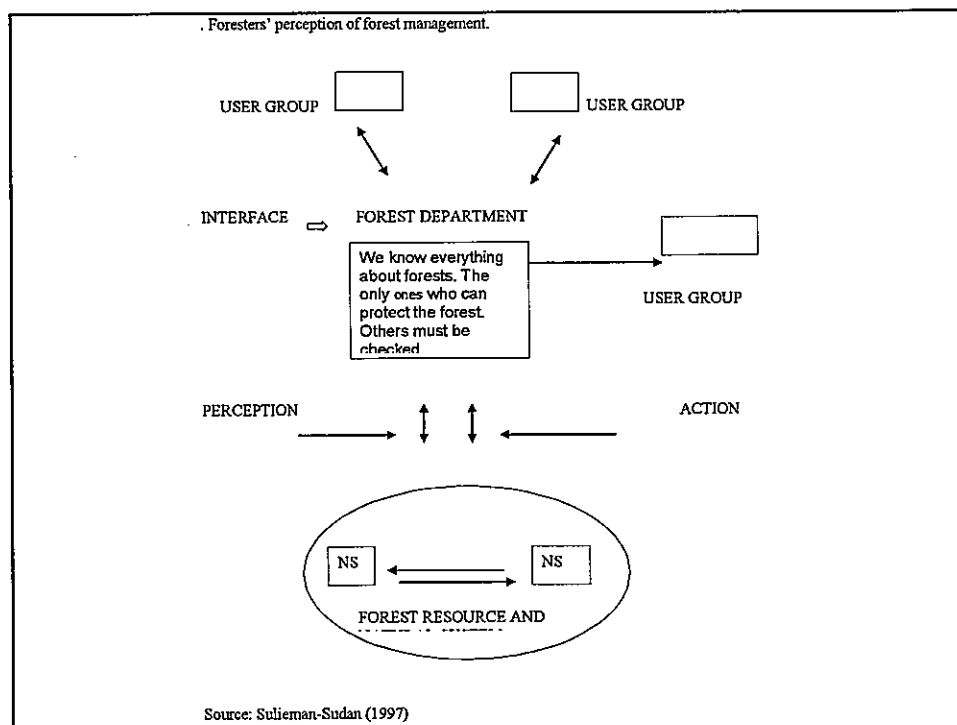
- **Module 1:**

- **Traditional forestry, strengths and weaknesses**

- Objective:

- Appraisal of what we have been doing in the past,
- plus attempts to reform the system

- **Formal Traditional Forest Management in Ghana**
- Can precisely be described as "Forestry by the forester, for the people".
- It was practiced for nearly 50 years



Principles & operational norms

- Applied science based on the application of technologies for:
 - Silvicultural practices
 - Regulating timber yields
 - Protecting forests against destructive agencies (e.g. people).
- Aimed at benefiting wider society based on the management of lands reserved as permanent forest resources (forest reserves)
- Emphasis was on management of forest reserves for sustained timber supply for the wood industry and involved
 - 40 year harvesting cycle
 - 100% stock survey
 - allocation of timber yields

Principles & operational norms (continued)

- Forest policing was very essential
- No management plan for NTFP's in forest reserves
- Forest values relating to non-timber forest products, spiritual, cultural and broad environmental services were of little importance
- Timber resources outside forest reserves were of little interest
- It assumed local forest communities had no worthwhile knowledge in forest management
- It assumed local forest communities had no interest in conservation or forest protection and may quickly liquidate the forests if not watched with vigilance
- Local people entering and carrying out any activity within reserves was unlawful without prior written authority of the Forestry Department

Summarizing the situation (Sulieman-Sudan1997)

- Local people were used to forest utilization prior to government intervention
- Intervention was for the purpose of managing the resource for the whole nation.
 - Thus, funds generated from forest resources were channeled to government chest for development projects;
 - these funds in many African countries failed to trickle down to the rural people who live close to the resource.
 - The forestry service was created with people technically skilled to deal with trees.
 - The assumption was that foresters knew everything and other actors knew nothing.
- This institution tried to, or took over the resource (by legislation and enforcement of regulations) from the local people.

What happened?

- After many decades the specialized government institutions (as well as the government) realized that
 - forestry resources could not be managed by them alone.
 - They thus started calling for others (now disillusioned and suspicious of the Forestry Service) to help in rescuing the forests.
- In the traditional participatory approach, whenever the forestry agencies decided to involve others,
 - they made the management decisions, with moderate consultation
 - defensive positions were taken by the forestry agencies
 - interactions were conducted in a rigid environment.

- Hence, in systems where participation was regulated and mandated by statutory provisions the resultant attitude of the agency was to
 - construct bullet-proof plans for fear of challenge (Daniels and Walker, 1997).
- Overall the attitude had been for forestry services
 - (whose staffs were more knowledgeable in biological aspects only)
 - to make the decisions and then require the public or community to accept them.

Consequences of traditional forestry

- Prohibitive cost of vast army of forest guards to protect forests
- Tension between forest guards and local people
- Land owning communities alienated from forest resources
- The rights of indigenous people and adjoining communities to both timber and non-timber forest products were severely curtailed.
- Access to NTFP's in the reserve granted by an expensive short term permit obtained through bureaucratic procedures and affordable only to people outside the communities
- Communities often resenting their legal exclusion from resource use and largely disregard rules leading to illegal activities in reserves

- Outside reserves, farmers and local communities were marginalized which was disincentive to tree planting and retaining on farms and constrained sustainable management of the forest resource
- Benefits from forest resources flowed to formal local government (District Assembly) and traditional land and forest holding authorities at the expense of farmers and communities
- Traditional land and forest holding authorities resentful of the proportion of forest and land revenues that goes to formal local government
- Lack of transparency and accountability within the indigenous socio-political system with regards to land and forest revenues
- Widening gap between forest fringe communities and both forms of local governance (traditional authorities and formal local government) often resulting in frictions that have detrimental effects on forests.

Reversing trends to ensure sustainable forest management: the catalysts

- The need to involve local communities in forest management to alleviate some constraints resulting from the formal traditional forest management arose.
- Local communities have a wealth of knowledge in forest management and have managed forests and land resources such as traditional forest reserves, sacred groves and the like under traditional norms and regulations.
- Unfortunately, formal forestry failed to recognize the importance and potentials of these practices in formal forest management until the 1980's and 1990's when the evolution of social/rural forestry mandated the Forestry Department to encourage local communities to establish woodlots.

- Some successes were reported from South East Asia.
 - By 1993, the concept of collaborative forest management had emerged in Ghana.

- Collaborative forest management was described as
 - any interaction between local people and the FD which enhanced the management of the forest resource

 - and improves the flow of benefits to local people.

Expediting action on people participation was due to:

- Government resources for effective policing of forests against illegal loggers and alienated communities as well as for efficient management of forests were inadequate

- There was both international and national outcry for need to integrate local communities into forest resource management. Donor funds were sometimes linked to the people participation concept.

- There was also increasing recognition of the rights of local forest communities to forest resources and the need to defuse anti-forestry Department sentiments at the local level

- Results from numerous projects from elsewhere in Ghana also indicated local people's potentials in forest management in terms of possession of wealth of knowledge, interest and concern for forest resources

- Local people were willing to collaborate in forest management and donors were prepared to fund experimental collaborative forest management approaches
- A supportive forest policy had also been instituted.

Was all that good enough?

Limitations of traditional public participation

- Research from around the world show that
 - As the size and complexity of the natural resource issues increase, the feasibility of a single agency making adequate decisions decreases
 - Traditional public participation (public involvement) is often structured as an internal/external, us versus them, zero-sum conflict relationship. In that context, strategies of both the agency and the publics more likely become competitive rather than collaborative,
 - In addition, public participation occurs in a fairly rigid format.
 - Because the agency's public participation activity is largely the result of external mandates, there is a considerable body of legislation, regulation, and case law that collectively defines the adequacy of those efforts (US Congress, Office of Technology Assessment 1992).

- Finally, a "Catch-22" comes from agency personnel focusing on the appeals/litigation process.
 - Fear of having decisions challenged or overturned creates a defensive stance, where the strategy becomes one of crafting "bullet-proof" decisions.
 - Unfortunately, this orientation is often perceived as suspicious and confrontational by interest groups,
 - in turn increasing the likelihood of adversarial relationships and
 - ultimately the very appeals that motivate the Forest Service behavior initially.
 - In other words, an escalatory conflict spiral ensues

The lack of success may be linked to three factors:

- aptitude,
- motivation, and
- structure

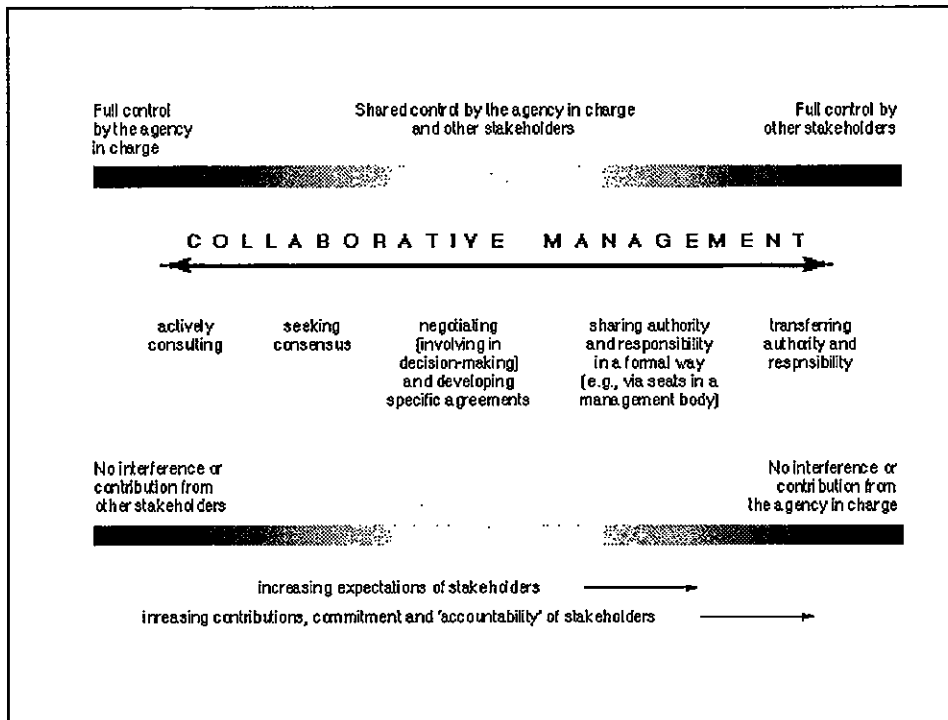
- First,
 - Forest Service personnel may be inadequately trained for the difficult task of managing multi-party multi-issue conflict, even though their knowledge of biological and physical sciences is first-rate
- Second,
 - There may not be sufficient motivation to manage the conflict, perhaps because the Forest Service can more readily achieve its goals by appearing to compromise between irreconcilable interest groups (O'Toole 1988).
- Third,
 - The complexity of public lands conflict may overwhelm public participation as a conflict management structure

Transnational Experience with Public Participation

- In her comparative study of forestry conflicts in six countries (Finland, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, and the US), Hellstrom (1996) concluded that
 - the US was characterized by a high level of policy conflict over forestry.
- But she also found four specific themes of debate that cut across the six countries:
 - forest health,
 - protected areas,
 - forest management, (Conservation and utilization/production) and,
 - public land management goals, and
- concluded that conflict over forestry is probably inevitable:

The participation process (Borrini-Feyerabend, 1997).

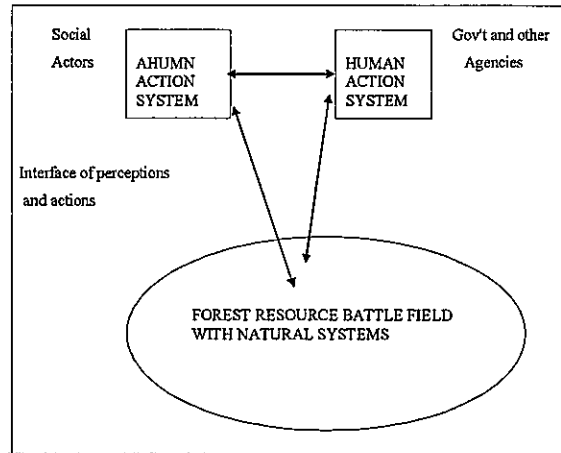
- There are a number of participatory processes existing in different parts of the world, which enable us to travel the length of a participatory continuum (PC),
- moving from total agency control of the resource to
- that of total control by local people
- These examples indicate that the level and nature of participation depend on the particular context, i.e.
 - resource type,
 - socio-political environment,
 - human and material resources.
- The general commitment of all parties to the process as well as legislative and policy situations are also very important for participation



The trend

- The new trend in public participation is toward practices that are more consistent with a systems perception of forest management or what we shall refer to as pluralism:
- First, one less often hears the notion that public involvement is used to "educate the public so that they will understand why our proposal is the best thing to do".
- Second, public participation is increasingly looking for ways to reduce the "us-versus-them" dynamic, and create opportunities for participatory learning.

SYSTEMS PERCEPTION OF FOREST RESOURCES



Adapted from Sulieman-Sudan (1997).

Conclusion

- So that is why we are here:

To learn a new and more effective way of collaboration and conflict management in forestry

Module 2

- **Social perspectives of forest policy: how it affected forest management**

The 1994 forest and wildlife policy

There have been two major forest policies in Ghana

- (1948)
 - The 1948 policy largely formed the basis for which formal traditional forestry was practiced.
- The 1994 forest and wildlife policy, however is people centered. Its main aim is to ensure
 - conservation and sustainable development of the nation's forest and wildlife resources for
 - maintenance of environmental quality and
 - perpetual flow of optimum benefits to all segments of society.
- Various forest and land based institutions including local community authorities were involved in developing the policy.

Social perspective of the Forest and Wildlife policy

The 1994 forest and wildlife policy is very supportive of the involvement of people in forest management. It takes into consideration the ff.

- People's rights to natural resources for maintaining a basic standard of living
- People's responsibility to ensure sustainable use of resources
- The need to incorporate traditional methods of resource management in national strategies
- Retaining some proportion of financial benefits from resource utilization to fund the maintenance of resource production capacity and for the benefit of local communities
- Development of a decentralized participatory democracy by involving local people in matters concerning their welfare

Strategies to ensure participation

- Promotion of public awareness and involvement of local people in forestry and wildlife conservation
- Development of consultative and participatory mechanisms to enhance land and tree tenure rights of farmers and ensure access of local people to traditional use of natural products
- Initiation of contract and liaison with local authorities and communities to pursue integrated development activities related to sustainable resource management

Major forestry institutions and their roles in forest management

- **Ministry of Lands, Forestry and Mines:**
Primarily responsible for the formulation and coordination of forest policies
- **Forestry Commission:**
Provide advice, monitor and coordinate forest policy on behalf of the ministry
- **Forestry Services Division (FSD):**
lead executing and operational agency responsible for forest management, protection and development

- **District Forestry Office (DFO):**
 - Operational unit controlling
 - logging
 - revenue collection
 - protection of forest reserves through clearing and maintenance of boundary lines, fire breaks and apprehension of illegal farm establishment
 - Control and monitoring of NTFP extraction through issuing of permits and collection of fees for NTFP's harvested

- CFMU/FDS

- Collaboration with communities in forest reserve management
 - assigning roles in
 - boundary maintenance
 - fire prevention
 - checking illegal activities

- Collaborating with communities in forest dedication to management

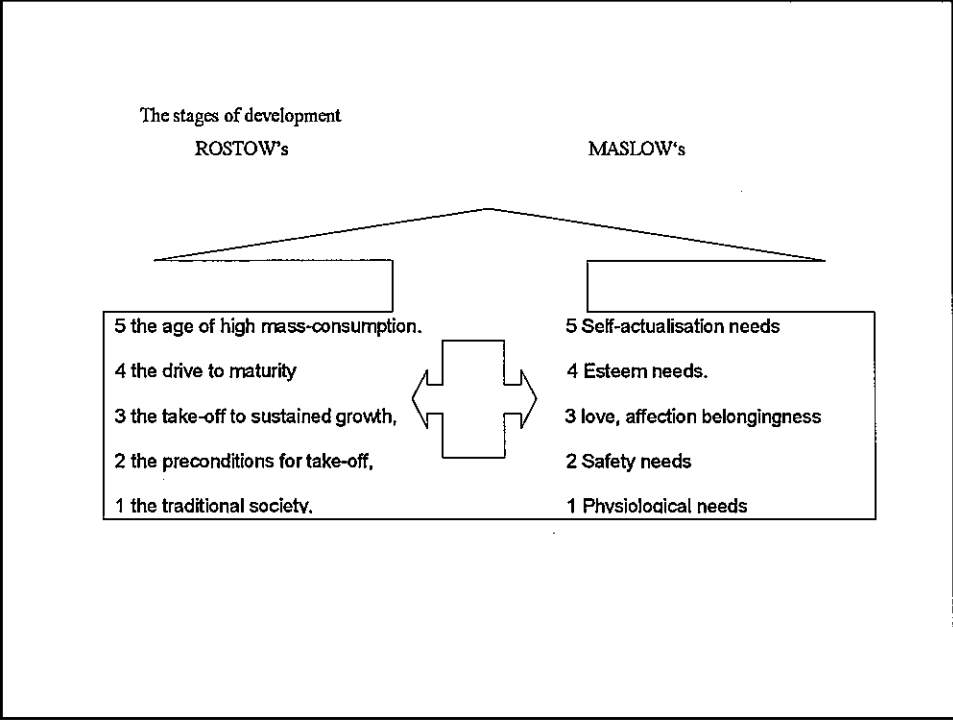
- Criticisms:

Dictating the collaboration initiative and partnerships?
Partnering and mediating?

Where does collaboration fit in?

- With development policy
- With social policy
- With environmental policy
- And with sustainable resource management

??



Any conclusions

- Will collaboration work?
- It depends on the approach?

2. What is society?

August Comte the father of sociology sees society as consisting of families and social combinations which culminate in nations and humanity.

- Sociology is the scientific study of such a system/ of human relationships.

- Society can be highly structured or loose, simple or complex and hierarchical or acephalous (or 'headless')

- All these by various degrees can be traditional (homogenous) or complex (cosmopolitan)

-

Social Structure

Social structure can be defined as:

"the patterned and relatively stable arrangement of roles and statuses found within societies and social institutions.

The idea of social structure points out the way in which societies, and institutions within them, exhibit predictable patterns of organization, activity and social interaction.

The relative stability of organization and behavior provides the quality of predictability that people rely on in every day social interaction.

Social structures are inseparable from cultural norms and values that also shape status and social interaction.

Function of society:

- One of society's major functions is to facilitate the assimilation of its constituents.
- Successful assimilation serves two goals:
 - it encourages the maintenance and growth of the social system, and
 - it gives each person a sense of his or her location within the social structure.

In consequence, it is to the advantage of both society and the individual that the individual comes to adopt an understanding of the social system and one's place in it that is shared by all its members;

this understanding not only includes a sense of personal identity, but also an appreciation of the roles one will take as a participating member of society. -
Professor Gregory Elliott

Social Institutions

A pattern of social interaction, having a relatively stable structure, that persists over time. Institutions have structural properties:

they are organized – and
they are shaped by cultural values.

Thus, for example, the 'institution of marriage', in western societies, is structurally located in a cohabiting couple and regulated by norms about sexual exclusiveness, love, sharing, etc.

There is no full agreement about the number or designation of social institutions in a society but the following would typically be included:

family (kinship), economy (livelihoods), politics (power structure), education (socialization and re-socialisation), health care, and media (propaganda and advocacy).

Life and death, (the birth and death industry); gender (discriminated roles as social structure)

Social Norms

A culturally established rule prescribing appropriate social behavior.

Norms are relatively specific and precise and elaborate the detailed behavioral requirements that flow from more general and overarching social values.

For example, it is a value in traditional society that one should respect the dead, it is a norm that one should dress in dark apparel for a funeral. –

Conformity, deviance, then resistance to indo- and exogenous values and collective state regulation.

E.G FSD: normative and state legal systems giving access to forest resources and attendant conflicts and ambiguities.

Social Roles

A position, or status, within a social structure that is shaped by relatively precise behavioral expectations (norms).

A role has been described as the active component of status.

The individual, placed within a status in a social structure, performs their role in a way shaped by normative expectations.

Individuals have varying ideas about normative standards and their own unique values, so role behavior is not standardized, however radical departure from expected role behavior would usually result in social sanctions.

Social Statuses

A position in a social structure regulated by norms and usually ranked according to power and prestige. Status differs from class in that it is a measure of a person's social standing or social honor in a community.

Individuals who share the same social class may have very divergent status.

For example, ethnic origin, gender and age as well as their level of recognition in the community affect people's status.

While status is statistically related to class it is common for individuals to have inconsistent class and status locations.

Most sociologists use both the concepts of class and status to describe the systems of social stratification (the way individuals are ranked in various hierarchies of income, wealth, authority and power) found in societies.

Social Values

Relatively general cultural prescriptions of what is right, moral and desirable.

Values provide the broad foundations for specific normative regulation of social interaction.

Do we have forest values?

Rural societies

Rural sociology is a field of sociology associated with the study of life in small towns and the country.

It is a scientific study of social arrangements and behavior amongst peoples that are distanced from points of concentrated activity.

Much of rural sociology involves the examination of statistical data.

Family and marriage, traditional society and culture intrusion chieftaincy and local

governance and normative institutions- arbitration and informal learning structures, livelihoods-agrarian culture and forestry, modernity, social status migrants, gender, cast

The concerns of rural sociology:

Community revitalization, rural demographic changes, rural development, environmental impacts, the structure of food and agricultural production and forest resources, and rural-urban linkages.

Issues related to farm policies, technology transfer, farm safety, and resource stewardship, and their implications for producers, farm families, hired farm labor, and residents of rural, agriculturally dependent communities.

rural gender issues; agricultural restructuring; youth and ageing in rural areas..

Nature of rural societies:

Agribusiness is the predominant focus of rural sociology and much of this field is dedicated to the economics of farm production.

Identifying family and social relationships that influence food consumption and nutritional status. NTFPs

Sociologists define rural as those areas which are not urban. Rural sociology, then, contrasts with urban sociology.

Urban areas are usually defined in terms of size and population density. The line between urban and rural is quite arbitrary.

However, rural settlement patterns tend to be, relatively, small in scale and low in density.

Rural society is faced with various problems including the environmental degradation and overuse of natural resources;

water forest or resources, the establishment and inadequate regulation of toxic waste dumps, and poverty out migration of youth preventable diseases, high birth and mortality rates high dependency ratios low literacy levels.

The loss of rural population to urban areas is also an area of concern.

Where do we see the disparities?

Livelihoods migration population structure fertility rates (and propensities) gender social amenities environment communication education and literacy technological, industrial status; simple agrarian economies class structures and social status.

Social thinking/ social psychology

Social facts

Durkheim finds that in social life there are some facts that are inexplicable in terms of physical or psychological analysis; there are ways of acting , thinking and feeling which are external to the individual and are endowed with the power of coercion over him e.g.

Maxims of public morality, family and religious observances rules of professional behavior or conduct these realities are Durkheim's social facts which constitute the proper domain of sociological study.

- Social facts exist as social currents even in the absence of any clearly defined social organization.
- E.g. waves of enthusiasm, and indignation that grip individuals in a crowd these currents are truly social, for they have objective reality and a constraining effect on the individual

Thoits, Peggy A. :

Sociologists generally devote their efforts to identifying which social phenomena (social facts) have effects on individuals while

Psychologists generally specialize in identifying the mechanisms or processes through which social phenomena have their effects on individuals.

Consequently, sociologists often use, explicitly or implicitly, the work of psychologists to fill in the missing links that tie society to the individual.

- **The Various Social Psychologies**

Allport (1968):

- Social psychologists attempt to understand how the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others influences the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals. Allport's definition best applies to work within the discipline of psychology - what House (1977) and Stryker (1977) have termed psychological social psychology.
- The bystander intervention or "helping" literature provides a useful example.
- This research shows that the more witnesses to an emergency (actual presence of others), the less likely any one witness is to assist the victim (individual behavior) (Latane & Darley 1970).
- The key word in Allport's definition is how others affect the individual. The psychologist's goal is to identify the mechanisms or processes through which others' actual or implied presence affects the person:

Bystander research shows, for example, that multiple witnesses to an emergency are able to "diffuse responsibility" for taking action to other people.

Diffusion of responsibility is a mechanism that helps to explain nonintervention.

An alternative brand of psychological social psychology has flourished in recent years.

This is cognitive social psychology or the social cognition approach, which investigates how people store and process information.

Information is stored as prototypes, schemas, scripts, and the like; information processing includes attending to cues, retrieving from memory, and making judgments, inferences, attributions, and predictions about oneself and others.

Cognitions are loosely viewed as social in this approach because they are derived from social experience and have consequences for subsequent interpersonal behavior.

For example, masculine and feminine schemas are presumed to be the products of traditional sex-role socialization and to function as socially constructed and inculcated models for rapidly recognizing and classifying one's own and others' behavior (Markus, Bernstein & Siladi 1982).

The emphasis in this branch of social psychology once again is on understanding mechanisms or processes; in this case, the mental processes through which an individual's (socially derived) cognitions have effects on his/her own thoughts, feelings, or behaviors.

Conflict and organizations (resource management).

Conflict management is essential to collaboration.

1. A series of episodes with five stages: antecedent conditions;
 - Latent conflict;
 - Perceived conflict;
 - Manifest conflict;
 - Conflict aftermath. (Pondy)

- 2. Competitive or opposing action of incompatibles: antagonistic state or action (as divergent ideas, interests or persons). (Webster)
- 3. A particular kind of social interaction process between parties who have mutually exclusive or incompatible values.
(Mack and Snyder)

4. A struggle to resist or overcome; contest of opposing forces or powers; strife; battle. (Funk & Wagnalls)

There are two major sets of theories of conflict to examine.

Conflicts arise in organizations because there are

- 1) divergence of individual and/or subunit goals,
- 2) competition for scarce resources and 3) threats to autonomy needs.

In 1992, Pondy revised his theory to be that an organization is not a "cooperative" system but a "pure conflict" system.

He thinks of an organization as a means for internalizing conflicts and that managers act both as fight promoters and referees.

Pondy explains the reason for this is that organizations consist of numerous pairs of tendencies (i.e. risk-taking and risk-avoiding).

If there were no active conflicts within these pairs, then one of the polar extremes would dominate and the diversity of behaviors would perish.

He proposed that it was cooperation, not conflict, that was a random occurrence in an organization and that perhaps we should be developing a model for cooperation rather than conflict

The second set of theories belong to Kenneth W.

Thomas who wrote an article in 1992, "Conflict and Conflict Management: Reflections and Update" in which he reexamined his theory of 1976.

- Thomas' first model of conflict was that conflict is the process, which begins when one party perceives that another has frustrated some concern of his/hers.

He broke down his model into conflict processes and the structure in which that process occurs. By "process," he means the temporal sequence of events, which occur as the system operates.

In Thomas' process model, he defines conceptualization, behavior and outcome. This model provided a way of analyzing the mental and interpersonal events that lead to different conflict-handling modes and their consequences.

The structural model used four different classes of variables: a) behavioral predispositions; b) social pressures; c) incentive structures and d) rules and procedures.

An objective of this model was to capture the rich diversity of causal forces exerted on conflicting parties.

In 1992, Kenneth Thomas also modified his theories. He concentrated on three themes that encompass the definition of conflict:

the interdependence between the parties;

b) the perception of incompatibility among the parties' concerns and
c) some form of interaction.

Conflict involves the strategic intention of a party and what that party is attempting to accomplish in satisfying their own and others' goals.

Thomas has also integrated emotion into the conflict process to show how emotions add additional motivational forces to the conflictive episode

Now you might say, "So what?"

This seems like just a lot of research." Understanding the variables listed in these models will give you a better understanding of the conflicts that happen within an organization.

We all work in organizations and we all have conflicts of some sort. References:

CONFLICT

A state of affairs in which two or more parties claim possession of something not all can have simultaneously.

E.g., value conflicts, conflicts of interest, and territorial conflicts.

All social SYSTEMs contain conflicts and their definition and resolution marks social DEVELOPMENT (see MORPHOGENESIS, PARADOX, GAME THEORY). (Krippendorff)

Perceptions of conflict in natural resource management

	Old- traditional management	new-pluralism
Perception	Negative pathological	Positive potential for progress
Decision / attitude	Surgical treatment Must be removed	Systemic treatment Should be explored and utilised
Action / strategy	Conflict resolution Intimidation of minorities	Engagement interaction consideration of all views Collective learning
Result	Un-sustainability status quo No confidence	Collaboration, progress Confidence Sustainability

Politics of society: How do you get in and play?

Acephalous societies:

Literally 'headless', meaning that the society is without any formalized or institutionalized system of power and authority.

Collective decisions are made in a variety of ways, including informal community gatherings.

Related concepts are

Monocephalous (one leader, as in a monarchy or modern state) and

Polycephalous (many leaders, where the society operates as a number of independent units, each having a leader but all representing the society as a whole).

(Extract from Indigenous Peoples in Asia - by Gerald Faschingeder)

The non-stratified organisation of society of indigenous peoples

Although some of these peoples today consist of some million members, indigenous peoples usually are smaller groups that count no more than some hundred thousand members.

Many peoples are acephalous societies, so to say "politically headless", which does not mean that there is a lack of political concepts, but that they do not know a highest leading person.

Rather, they are legendarily organized, i.e. they consist of several similar parts or "segments" that are equal in rank, and these segments may subdivide into sub segments of various sizes (e.g. peoples in "brotherhoods", subdivided in clans, subdivided in families).

So, these societies are not dis-organised or without structures, as the former term "primitives" implied.

Of course, they know social differentiation and hierarchies, but nevertheless, there is less division of labour to be found than in non-indigenous societies.

Although the acephalous or segmentary organisation cannot be presented as universal principle of all indigenous societies, this comment indicates why most of the indigenous societies were not and are not easily compatible with non-indigenous ones.

www.indigasia.org/eng/peoples/indigenpeopleinasia.htm

In-digenous societies do have specific cultural characteristics, but their common features cannot be reduced to a single criterion.

René Kuppe, for example, mentions three central points of this topic: "a close relationship between these societies and their lebensraum, a lack of organisation as state and social stratification (from the point of view of western sociology), and the dealing with conflicts within a society that is not based on institutional force by the state." (Kuppe 1990:10). -

Gender As a Social Structure

Barbara J. Risman

(North Carolina State University)

In this article, the author argues that we need to conceptualize gender as a social structure, and by doing so, we can better analyze the ways in which gender is embedded in the individual, interactional, and institutional dimensions of our society.

To conceptualize gender as a structure situates gender at the same level of general social significance as the economy and the polity. The author also argues that while concern with intersectionality must continue to be paramount, different structures of inequality have different constructions and perhaps different influential causal mechanisms at any given historical moment.

We need to follow a both/and strategy to understand gender structure, race structure, and other structures of inequality as they currently operate while also systematically paying attention to how these axes of domination intersect.

Finally, the author suggests we pay more attention to doing research and writing theory with explicit attention to how our work can indeed help transform as well as inform society.

Defining culture:

there are different levels of the definition the ethnographic definition will be the focus (and not e.g. the lifestyle definition)

Sir Edward B. Tylor wrote in 1871 that

"culture or civilization, taken in its wide ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society

“ A set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs”. UNESCO, 2002

While these two definitions range widely, they do not exhaust the many uses of this concept

In 1952 Alfred Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn compiled a list of more than 200 different definitions of *culture* in their book, *Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions* [Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952].

The two definitions stated above, as well as many others, offer a "laundry list" of things that comprise culture.

The listed items are treated as objects with an existence and life-line of their own.

For example, a law, a stone tool, a marriage, come into space-time at one set of coordinates and go out of it another.

While here, they change, so that one may speak of the evolution of the law or the tool.

A culture, then, is by definition at least a set of cultural objects. Leslie White asked, what sort of objects are they?

Are they physical objects? Mental objects? Both?
Metaphors? Symbols? Reifications?

In *Science of Culture*, published in 1949, he finally concluded that they are objects sui generis, "of their own kind". In trying to capture what that kind is, he hit upon a previously unrealized aspect of symbolization, which he called the symbolate.

He then defined culture as
"symbolates understood in an extra-somatic context."

The key to this definition is the discovery of the symbolate. The reader is invited to the article on symbol for further presentation.

Culture as values, norms, and artifacts

A common way of understanding culture sees it as consisting of three elements:

- » *values*
- » *norms*
- » *artifacts.*

(See *Dictionary of Modern Sociology*, 1969, 93,)

Values comprise ideas about what in life seems important.

They guide the rest of the culture. Norms consist of expectations of how people will behave in different situations.

Each culture has different methods, called *sanctions*, of enforcing its norms. Sanctions vary with the importance of the norm; norms that a society enforces formally have the status of *laws*.

Artifacts — things, or material culture — derive from the culture's values and norms.

Culture as civilization

Many people today use a conception of "culture" that developed in Europe during the 18th and early 19th centuries.

This idea of culture then reflected inequalities within European societies, and between European powers and their colonies around the world. It identifies "culture" with "civilization" and contrasts the combined concept with "nature".

According to this thinking, one can classify some countries as more civilized than others, and some people as more cultured than others.

Thus some cultural theorists have actually tried to eliminate popular or mass culture from the definition of culture. Theorists like *ew ld* (1822-1888) or *t* regard culture as simply the result of "the best that has been thought and said in the world" (Arnold, 1960: 6);

Arnold contrasted culture with social chaos or anarchy. On this account, culture links closely with social cultivation: the progressive refinement of human behavior.

Culture as stabilizing mechanism

Modern cultural theory also considers the possibility that (a) culture itself is a product of stabilization tendencies inherent in evolutionary pressures toward self-similarity and self-cognition of societies as wholes, or tribalisms.

See Steven Wolfram "A new kind of science" on iterated simple algorithms from genetic unfolding, from which the concept of culture as an operating mechanism can be developed, and Richard Dawkins "The extended phenotype" for discussion of genetic and memetic stability over time, through negative feedback mechanisms, such as Wikipædia.

Cultural change

Cultures, by predisposition, both embrace and resist change dependence of culture traits.

For example, men and women have complementary roles in many cultures.

One sex might desire changes that affect the other, as happened in the second half of the 20th century in western cultures.

Cultural change can come about due to the environment, to inventions (and other internal influences), and to contact with other cultures.

For example, the end of the last ice age helped lead to the invention of agriculture, which in its turn brought about many cultural innovations

In diffusion, the form of something moves from one culture to another, but not its meaning.

For example, hamburgers, mundane in the United States, seemed exotic when introduced into China.

"Stimulus diffusion" refers to an element of one culture leading to an invention in another.

Diffusions of innovations theory presents a research-based model for why and when individuals and cultures adopt new ideas, practices, and products.

- Acculturation" has different meanings, but in this context refers to replacement of the traits of one culture with those of another, such as happened to certain Native American tribes and to many indigenous peoples across the globe during the process of colonization.

Related processes on an individual level include assimilation (adoption of a different culture by an individual) and transculturation.

Cultural invention has come to mean any innovation that is new and found to be useful to a group of people and expressed in their behaviour but which does not exist as a physical object.

World view

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

- A world view, (or worldview) is a term calqued from the German word *Weltanschauung* meaning a "look *onto* the world".
- It implies a concept fundamental to German philosophy and epistemology and refers to a *wide world perception*.
- It refers to the framework through which an individual interprets the world and interacts in it.
- The German word is also in wide use in English, as well as the "translated" form *world outlook*.

A worldview describes a consistent (to a varying degree) and integral sense of existence and provides a framework for generating, sustaining and applying knowledge.

Threats to cultural identity

Therefore every culture is continually forced to determine its position(s) toward alien elements, in order to preserve or redefine its identity. Four different basic reactions are distinguished here, based on Clem Robyns' description (1994, 1995). In order to describe those four main attitudes toward cultural migration and possible loss of identity, two basic criteria have to be taken into account.

First, does a cultural practice acknowledge the otherness of (potentially) intruding elements from other cultures?

Does it explicitly oppose itself to "the other"? Secondly, does a cultural practice allow the intrusion of code-violating elements without transforming them according to its own rules?

An attitude in which otherness is denied and transformed may be called imperialist, while one in which otherness is acknowledged but still transformed may be called defensive.

A trans-cultural culture neither radically opposes itself to other cultures nor refuses their intrusion, while a defective culture stimulates the intrusion of alien elements that are explicitly acknowledged as such.

Both the defensive and defective attitudes can be called reactive, since they explicitly react against either the presence or the absence of cultural migrations.

Clearly these types are generalizations: neither a taxonomy nor even a methodological scheme, they should be seen as coordinates for research into specific, complex situations. Indeed, no culture will ever correspond exactly to a single type.

It is obvious that in the cases of the trans-cultural and the defective attitudes the end result would be a total loss of autonomy. In any case, cultural intrusions are normally partial: only a limited number of codes will be called into question.

(The force of the reaction will depend on the central or marginal position of the contested norms for the self-definition of the targeted culture.)

Nor will any culture ever reflect only one attitude: like any model dominating a given culture at a given moment, these basic attitudes can (and will) be contested and eventually replaced by other ones.

The imperialist stand

An imperialist attitude toward the other is characterized by a paradoxical claim of, on the one hand, the irreducible specificity of one's own identity, and, on the other hand, the universality of its values. But how can a culture claim to be specific AND universal at the same time? Several basic strategies can be combined here.

The main one is to deny "the other" the status of a "valid culture": "only our culture is universally human." The other is reduced to a barbarian or to an exotic curiosity. In matters of "foreign policy," this superiority complex naturally leads to assuming the role of "cultural guide" for the more primitive people.

As to "internal policy," an assumption of superiority leads to an unscrupulous assimilation of the imported alien cultural artifacts - an assimilation that effectively denies their specificity.

The defensive stand

Power relations can change, of course, and otherness, instead of being assimilated, denigrated and hidden, can intrude as such.

Generally, i.e. if the target culture doesn't take a defensive stand (cf. infra), such intrusions provoke defensive reactions, and that is a second possible attitude.

First of all, a sense of threat to one's own identity, of alienation, is expressed. A culture characterized by a defensive posture enhances its specificity by heavily emphasizing the otherness of the "alien" culture.

The threatening intrusion of the alien culture is often characterized as an "invasion." This "colonization" causes a weakening, a degeneration of the threatened culture.

When this sense of threat is born out of a frustrated feeling of superiority, and especially when "representatives" of the invading culture (or of any alien group) exist within the threatened culture, it will generally lead to racist reactions.

Thus the same rhetoric will be used against both foreign cultural elements and foreign people. A defensive culture will try to keep alien elements out, for instance by import bans.

The trans-cultural stand

Without completely losing sight of its specificity, a cultural practice can consider itself explicitly as a part of a larger cultural domain.

The third, or trans-cultural doctrine therefore doesn't explicitly consider imported elements "other," or "alien," let alone "threatening."

Both foreign cultural elements and those of "local production" are seen as equal contributions to a common goal.

Often, such an attitude is a reaction against what is seen as "unfruitful provincialism": the local production is not really considered defective or uninteresting, but is expected to reach beyond its local context.

Still, this attitude may lead to disavowal or neglect of local features and products.

In such a case, we are no longer witnessing a local cultural practice establishing its position within a larger entity, but a larger, hegemonic culture ignoring or denigrating local practices.

The defective stand

Finally, a cultural practice may acknowledge that it lacks the necessary components for renewing itself, for adapting to a changing social context.

It will then take a *defective position*, turning to "alien" cultures and importing cultural elements from them.

Since this immigration is seen as an enrichment of the target culture, these cultural elements will generally be explicitly introduced as alien.

Since the target culture's own production is seen as insufficient, the imported elements will not be transformed in accordance with target culture conventions.

Criticisms

Some critics of cultural identity argue that the preservation of cultural identity, being based upon difference, is a divisive force in society, and that cosmopolitanism gives individuals a greater sense of shared citizenship.

Modul 4

Collaborative methods: constraints and opportunities

objective

- Identify constraints and innovative opportunities for participatory management
- Learn lessons
- Ultimately increase knowledge in collaboration

definition

- The term 'collaborative management'
 - also referred to as co-management,
 - participatory management,
 - joint management,
 - shared-management,
 - multi-stakeholder management or round-table agreement)

used to describe a situation in which some or all of the relevant stakeholders in a protected area are involved in a substantial way in management activities.

(Borrini-Feyerabend 1997)

- The process
- In a collaborative management process, the agency with jurisdiction over the PA (usually a state agency)
- develops a partnership with other relevant stakeholders (primarily including local residents and resource users) which
- specifies and guarantees their respective functions, rights and responsibilities with regard to the PA.
- What about their returns?

The relationship

- The relationship between the agency in charge of the PA and its other stakeholders is often not as good as would be desirable.
- It is not uncommon, for instance,
 - that the agency in charge sees the local community primarily as a potential threat to the protected area,
 - that the indigenous inhabitants of the area are not recognized in their role in maintaining biodiversity or
 - that local residents see the creation of a protected area as an oppressive development, bringing in foreign values and depriving them of wealth and culture.
- Not surprisingly, conflicts and misunderstandings between agencies and local residents are the cause of some of the most serious failures in the management of protected areas

Targets for partnership

- **In general, the partnership identifies:**
 - a protected territory (or set of resources) and its boundaries;
 - the range of functions and sustainable uses it can provide;
 - the recognized stakeholders in the protected area;
 - the functions and responsibilities assumed by each stakeholder;
 - the specific benefits and rights granted to each stakeholder;
 - an agreed set of management priorities and a management plan;

- procedures for dealing with conflicts and negotiating collective decisions about all of the above;
- procedures for enforcing such decisions; and
- specific rules for monitoring, evaluating and reviewing the partnership agreement, and the relative management plan, as appropriate.

applicability

- collaborative management produces equally effective results in non-protected territories
 - such as communal lands(27)
 - or private land-ownings that depend on a shared resource

- Some collaborative methods:

- Transactive Planning (John Friedmann)
- Communities of Interest and Open Decision-Making (Jeff Sirmon *et al*)
- Search Conferencing and the Participative Design Workshop (Joel Diemer and Rossana Alvarez)
- Constructive Confrontation (Burgess and Burgess)
- Collaborative Learning

- Comparing Collaboration Approaches

- Similarities:

- The five collaborative approaches presented here have a number of similarities as well as some noticeable differences. All five approaches feature:
 - A multi-stage process;
 - Constructive, open, civil communication, generally as "dialogue";
 - A focus on the future;
 - An emphasis on learning;
 - Some degree of power-sharing and "leveling of the playing field."
- These characteristics are consistent with the underlying notions of pluralism.
- Three features in particular—dialogue, learning, and power-sharing—would seem to be essential elements of any pluralistic process.
- Although not explicitly stated in their published descriptions, all five collaborative approaches appear responsive to the value of diversity, of participants, ideas, and worldviews

variance

- Collaborative Learning (CL), Transactive Planning (TP), and Search Conferencing/Participatory Design Workshop (SC-PDW) incorporate a systems perspective, with CL doing so more comprehensively.
- Communities of Interests/Open Decision-making (CI-OD) and CL both incorporate constructive argument into the collaborative process.
- Constructive Confrontation (CC) and TP are explicitly transformative, that is, they intend to change the parties and/or the situation.
- The methods utilize different conflict frames. CI-OD, CC, and SC-PDW attempt to "resolve the conflict" while CL seeks to "manage the conflict" through "improvement in the situation."

- The methods employ different metaphors. CC emphasizes "health" and "medicine," CI-OD "community," SC-PDW "bureaucracy," and TP and CL "systems."
- CC and CL employ visual "conflict" or "situation" maps.
- Participation in SC-PDW seems limited, while the other methods seem more accessible and inclusive.
- CL includes iterative small group interaction as well as large group tasks.

conclusions

- There is no single approach
- Interest in developing pluralism means employing various innovations and flexibility

Transactive Planning (John Friedmann)

Discussion paper 1:

Objective:

Identify the elements of social contact and involvement

Identify the shortcomings

Introduction:

"Centering projects in localities and regions requires mutual learning, patient listening, and a tolerance for contrary views."

Effective planning needs direct community involvement and thinking of the project as involving a process of social learning, with frequent assessments of what has been accomplished and what has gone wrong, and a willingness to make appropriate adjustments in the course of the implementation process itself

These elements lie at the heart of Transactive Planning.

Method

Transactive Planning joins scientific and technical intelligence with personal knowledge at the critical points for social intervention. It is a far more client-driven process than traditional expert-driven planning had been, placing more value on the informal knowledge of the citizenry, particularly at the problem definition stage.

Transactive planning integrates processes of mutual learning with an organized capacity and willingness to act

It's goals include fostering innovation and changing knowledge into action through an unbroken sequence of interpersonal relations

Transactive Planning incorporates aspects of traditional planning, including typical planning stages such as describing the present situation, analyzing that situation, devising an appropriate planning strategy, assessing feasibility, and so on.

Differences

Transactive Planning differs from traditional planning, though, in its emphasis on communication, mutual learning, and transformation. Transactive Planning's most notable natural resource application has been in management plan development for the Bob Marshall Wilderness in Montana (Ashor, et al., 1986; Moore, 1994).

Two Levels of Communication

Traditional planning approaches, (Friedmann), fail to communicate effectively with the people whom planners are supposed to serve. Although planners and clients may exchange messages, relevant meanings are not communicated well.

The answer, Friedmann believes, "is not simply a matter of translating the abstract and highly symbolic language of the planner into the simpler and more experience-related vocabulary of the client." Rather, "the real solution involves a restructuring of the basic relationship between the planner and client" (1973, p. 172).

In Transactive Planning two levels of communication are essential.

First, there is subject-matter-related communication. This is communication concerned with the issues of the planning situation.

The second and more critical level is "dialogue," which refers to the interpersonal components of the planning process that determine if the participants **feel respected** and build **trust on one another**; i.e., open, authentic communication.

Dialogue requires interpersonal skills such as

The art of **listening**,

The **ability to trust** others and make **oneself vulnerable** to them,

A **willingness to suspend rank and material power**, and

A **responsiveness to others' needs** .

Mutual Learning (Transactive)

Genuine dialogue helps people learn quickly from complex, new situations. Planners are successful professionally to the extent that they can draw upon their analytical skills and are "rapid learners". Planners, therefore, are very good at dealing with scientific and technical knowledge.

Planners, though, have not dealt well with local or client knowledge, that is, knowledge drawn from experience. Doing so can generate new options for change. As Friedmann explains:

in mutual learning, planner and client each learn from the other--the planner from the client's personal knowledge, the client from the planner's technical expertise. In this process, the knowledge of both undergoes a major change.

A common image of the situation evolves through dialogue; a new understanding of the possibilities for change is discovered. (1973, p. 185)

Therefore Planners must learn to share control where possible, to yield as well as persuade. Clients must respect the knowledge of planners, and work with planners to negotiate common meanings. Such learning occurs through dialogue.

5.1.3 Transformation (Transactive)

Transactive Planning and the change it directs occur within a **system**.

Any system obeys its own laws of internal change and to change a process means to act upon the sources that generate the lawful behaviour of the system.

Both planner and client must respect the laws of transformation and be mindful of their limited abilities to control the flow of events

Learning and respect are essential to transforming a system (Social change).

Learning cannot be imposed; parties need to respect the processes and styles by which people learn.

Parties involved in mutual learning will not succeed by destroying or discrediting the world views of others.

According to Friedmann, in any given problem situation, planners contribute concepts, theories, analyses, processed knowledge, and new procedures.

Clients contribute an intimate knowledge of

context,

realistic alternatives,

norms,

priorities,

feasibility judgements, and

operational details Are you going to miss out on all that?

5.2. Communities of Interest and Open Decision-Making

Discussion paper 2 module 4

Objective:

Identify the elements of social contact and involvement

Identify the shortcomings

Introduction:

Writing in the *Journal of Forestry*, Jeff Sirmon, William Shands, and Chris Leggitt contend that, to counter adversarial battles in forest conflicts, "we need to find new ways to get people to talk to one another about what they really want from the forests, and find effective ways to engage them in civil dialogue and mutual education about their needs and values" (1993, p. 17). They propose a way: the "communities of interests and open decision-making (sic)" model (CI-OD).

Communities of interests

In a community of interests, responsibility for problem-solving falls not on a single leader but on a group.

In confronting difficult policy issues, people must struggle with their orientation, values, and potential trade-offs . . . only the group--the relevant community of interests--can do this work" (Heifetz & Sinder, 1988, p. 187). In a community of interests, both power and leadership are shared. Leadership is key to the effectiveness of this approach.

"Leadership must emerge from the communities of interest--communities that must discover ways of working effectively with each other" (Sirmon, 1995, p. 178).

This idea of shared leadership holds implications for the natural resource agency manager. Rather than serving simply as the convenor of a collaborative process, Sirmon (1995) asserts that the manager "must also be an effective intervenor and actively participate in dialogue and interchange with the communities . . . [she or he] "will also be an educator, a provider of data, a developer of viable alternatives, an interpreter of laws and regulations, and a representative of those not able to participate in dialogue and intercommunity transactions" (p. 179). The natural resource manager must also facilitate an equitable process. "The key to success," Sirmon et al. explain, "is to keep participants focused on resolving issues. Leaders from every interest must be given the opportunity to argue their points of view and be willing to respect those who disagree. Resolution takes time and requires patience" (1993, p. 19).

Open Decision-making

The "open decision-making" component of the CI-OD model stems from a 1990 report on national forest planning prepared by a research team from the Conservation Foundation and Purdue University. The report (Shands et al., 1990) concluded that the traditional public involvement method (public hearings, scoping, comment letters) was too formal and rigid. The report recommended a process of "open decision-making" in which the Forest Service and contending interests would work together. According to

Sirmon et al. (1990), the report included four guidelines for joint problem solving in "open decision-making":

- Encourage a frank exchange of views among all interests, especially before views harden.
- Encourage the sharing of information.
- Help identify opportunities for joint problem solving.
- Make it clear how a decision was reached. (P.20).

Sirmon, Shands, and Liggett (1993) explain that communities of interests establish "the working environment for open decision-making. Both feature leadership that is shared and distributed among participants, free and open communication and mutual education, and a transparent decision-making process" (p. 20). Sirmon and his colleagues (1993) provide a number of forest management examples where CI-OD principles have been at work, including fire recovery planning on the Siskiyou National Forest in Oregon, travel and access management planning on the Huron-Manistee National Forest in Michigan, and forest plan revision on the Targhee National Forest in Idaho. Critical to these processes in the sharing of information (including technological data, such as GIS), opportunities for debate, and a willingness to compromise.

Search Conferencing and the Participative Design Workshop

In a fashion similar to Communities of Interest and Open Decision making, the Search Conferencing and Participative Design Workshop (SC-PDW) method is a two stage process. Developed by Joel Diemer and Rossana Alvarez, as a combination of two techniques, SC-PDW is presented as an adaptive social process that can respond to value conflicts in constructive ways (1995, p. 10-11). Neither search conferencing or participative design as techniques are new (Diemer and Alvarez, 1995; see also Emery, 1982; Gray, 1989), but Diemer and Alvarez see their combination as a public participation innovation compatible with ecosystem management and sustainable forestry.

5.3.1 Search Conferencing

Diemer and Alvarez (1995) note that the search conferencing idea evolved from strategic planning and small group work done in the 1960s at London's Tavistock Institute of Human Relations. The method was subsequently taken to Australia by Fred and Merrelyn Emery where it was applied over three hundred times in the 1970s. It has also been used extensively in Canada (Trist & Murray, 1993).

The SC process starts, Diemer and Alvarez (1993) explain, "begins when people within the system recognize a need" (p. 12). These people, presumably some management organization or agency, then undertakes a lengthy planning process that involves, first, selection of participants. Using a "community referencing system," a planning team prepares a "social map" of the relevant community and criteria for selecting search conference participants. Second, the planning team determines the research needs of the search conference group (p. 13).

Search conferencing is designed to generate a "planning community" in three phases. First, SC participants brainstorm significant events, both globally and locally. This is typically done in response to specific questions, such as "what do we want the world to be?" (P. 13). Second, participants exam their particular system (organization, community, issue) and generate a "communal history." They critique their "system" and determine its most desirable future (p. 13). Third, parties "integrate the information compiled during phases 1 and 2." They identify "desirable and achievable futures" and detailed action plans for reaching their goals (p. 13).

5.3.2 Participative Design Workshop

After the search conference has produced a strategic plan, community members work together in a PDW to learn about "organizational design principles" necessary to organize for the long term. This occurs via three "briefings." Briefing 1 introduces the concept of "bureaucracy." Brief 2 features the second design principle, "participatory democracy." The final briefing emphasizes tasks the group needs to pursue in order to match the design principles to the earlier generated strategic plan. As in the case of Search

Conferencing, Diemer and Alvarez base many of their PDW ideas on the work of Emery (1993).

Diemer and Alvarez emphasize that SC and PDW need to occur consecutively and will likely require thirty to forty hours of group interaction. They see the search conference providing "adaptive relations between system and environment," with the PDW contributing the organizational knowledge needed to sustain the adaptive strategic plan. SC-PDW has been applied on a number of projects, including planning and community relations in the Chequamegon and Nicollet National Forests in northern Wisconsin.

5.4 Constructive Confrontation

"Puzzled by the question of how to better address . . . resolution-resistant [public policy] conflicts, Heidi and Guy Burgess (1996) write, "we and several colleagues at the University of Colorado's Conflict Research Consortium have undertaken a research program devoted to finding more constructive ways of 'handling' (from a third party point of view) or 'confronting' (from a disputants' perspective) highly intractable conflicts" (p. 306). As part of this research program, Burgess and Burgess have posed the question, "How can one confront a particular conflict more constructively?" (P. 306). Drawing upon data from a variety of sources (e.g., interviews, case studies), Burgess and Burgess have developed a framework, "constructive confrontation" (CC). They consider this process potentially "transformative," with the potential for empowerment and recognition in the public conflict arena equivalent to Bush and Folger's (1984) work in community conflict. CC has been applied to a number of projects in the Rocky Mountain region.

5.4.1 Conflict and Health

Constructive Confrontation views conflict and its management in terms of a health care metaphor. The CC approach "follows a medical model," Burgess and Burgess report, "in which destructive conflict processes are likened to diseases--pathological processes that adversely affect people, organizations, and societies as a whole" (1996, p. 307). As in medicine, Burgess and Burgess explain, CC utilizes an incremental approach. "Constructive confrontation alerts parties and intermediaries to pitfalls to be avoided, pathologies to be corrected, and opportunities to be exploited," without specifying a specific agenda or end result (1996, p. 308).

5.4.2 Constructive Confrontation Steps

Constructive Confrontation consists of three general steps: diagnosis, treatment, and monitoring. Diagnosis starts with the development of a conflict map. This map "should identify active and potential adversary groups and intermediaries, along with their interests and positions" (Burgess & Burgess, 1996, p. 308). This step follows the interest-based dispute resolution model popularized by Fisher and Ury (1991). Diagnosis next tries to differentiate core aspects of the conflict from "conflict overlays." "Overlays are extraneous problems in the conflict process that get 'laid over' the core, making the core issues harder to see and address." Examples include misunderstandings, escalation and polarization behaviour, fact-finding, procedural, and framing problems (Burgess & Burgess, 1996, p. 308).

Diagnosis considers the extent to which the conflict seems intractable. In doing so, diagnosis "needs to include an analysis of the power strategies available to the parties." Examples of power "pathologies" are "inadequate identification of strategic options, misjudgements of the costs and benefits of alternative strategies, overlooking ripe moments, and fighting to the bitter end" (Burgess & Burgess, 1996, p. 314).

Treatment follows conflict diagnosis. According to Burgess and Burgess (1996), treatment involves "the identification and implementation of realistic, incremental steps for reducing as many of the overlay problems as possible" (p. 309). Some treatment actions are relatively easy and can be implemented by the parties themselves. Other actions "require either the acquisition of new skills (for example, active listening), outside assistance from conflict professionals (facilitation, transformative mediation, or structured dialogues, perhaps), or the making of hard choices for which there are no clear answers (deciding whether to pursue a short-term victory even though it is likely to provoke a damaging, long-term backlash, for example)" (Burgess & Burgess, 1996, p. 309).

Monitoring comprises Constructive Confrontation's third step. As Burgess and Burgess (1996) explain, "once specific options are selected and implemented, results should be monitored and adjustments made as the conflict continues and changes over time" (p. 309). Burgess and Burgess emphasize that constructive confrontation is different than problem-solving, which "has a clear beginning, middle, and end." In

contrast, constructive confrontation is "an ongoing process that can be continued--if the parties make the effort--as long as the conflict lasts" (1996, p. 309).

5.5. Collaborative Learning

Collaborative Learning (CL) is a framework for public policy conflict management and decision making. Its specific applications to date have been in the natural resource arena. Its methods and techniques are designed for situations with the following features: (1) multiple parties and issues, (2) deeply held values and cultural differences, (3) scientific and technical uncertainty, and (4) legal and jurisdictional constraints.

5.5.1 Collaborative Learning Foundations

Collaborative Learning is a hybrid of soft systems methodology (SSM), alternative dispute resolution (ADR), integrated through ideas from adult and experiential learning theory. It encourages systems thinking, joint learning, open communication, and focuses on appropriate change.

Collaborative Learning draws on ADR to address values and strategic behaviours. Mediation, the intervention of an impartial third party into a dispute, deals well with significant value differences. "Value disputes," Moore (1988) observes, "are extremely difficult to resolve where there is no consensus on appropriate behaviour or ultimate goals" (p. 256). Yet mediators, via identification and reframing methods, can address value conflict. Specific techniques include (1) transforming value disputes into interest disputes, (2) identifying superordinate goals (both short and long term), and (3) avoidance (Moore, 1986, p. 178; see also Gray, 1989). Collaborative Learning deals with parties' strategic behaviours by incorporating methods designed to promote collaborative, integrative negotiation. CL encourages parties to identify and assess innovative approaches for settling their differences, including logrolling, bridging, non-specific compensation, etc. (Lewicki et al., 1994). CL facilitators, like mediators, often use transformative strategies that encourage parties to engage in role reversal, mirroring, and future orientation.

Still, the initial basis for Collaborative Learning design resides in "soft systems methodology" (SSM). Soft systems is an application of theoretical work in systems and experiential learning (Wilson & Morren, 1990). Soft systems brings to natural resource disputes an emphasis on learning, an area alternative dispute resolution methods, including mediation, typically disregard or consider peripheral to the settlement task. As Flood and Jackson (1991) observe, SSM "is doubly systemic since it promotes a systemic learning process, orchestrating different appreciations of the situation, which is never-ending, and it also introduces systems models as part of that learning process. The systemic learning process aims to create a temporarily shared culture in which conflicts can be accommodated so that action can be taken" (pp. 177-178). Figure 2 highlights the emphases of SSM and ADR that are integrated in Collaborative Learning.

Figure 2. Collaborative Learning as a Hybrid

ELEMENTS SSM ADR

1 Promotes Learning --	High	Low
2 Emphasizes Systems Thinking	High	Low
3 Deals with Value Differences	Low	High
4 Handles Strategic Behaviours	Low	High

Collaborative Learning stresses learning about and understanding a situation prior to developing improvements in that situation. For example, as a National Forest revises its management plan, CL could be useful both in the internal functioning of Forest and District-level interdisciplinary planning (ID) teams as they try to develop an ecosystem-based perspective to their activities. It could also be a useful vehicle for communicating with and learning from the Forest's various publics/stakeholders. In summary, the key notions that define Collaborative Learning are:

- Re-defining the task away from solving a problem to one of improving a situation.
- Viewing the situation as a set of interrelated systems.
- Defining improvement as desirable and feasible change.
- Recognizing that considerable learning--about science, issues, and value differences--will have to occur before implementable improvements are possible.
- Promotes working through the issues and perspectives of a situation.

5.5.2 Collaborative Learning in Action

A natural resource management organization may use Collaborative Learning principles various ways, such as (1) in internal ID teams for pre-decisional alternative development and analysis, (2) partnership development where joint implementation is needed (important in many situations, given increased emphasis on interagency--organization approaches), and (3) in public involvement, including activities pursuant to NEPA.

No matter what the context for its use, Collaborative Learning offers a set of principles and techniques that must be customized to meet the needs of the situation at hand. There is no "CL cookbook". If CL is going to reach its potential, natural resource management personnel (and in some cases, stakeholders) need to be involved in decisions about how CL should be applied. This is not a technique where outsiders come in to either take the problem over, or in any way tell natural resource managers that what they have been doing is wrong. Rather CL offers some ideas and techniques that can help a management agency/organization and its publics to organize their thinking using some systems notions that are new to many of the people we work with. It will be up to each agency to figure out how best to use them. A goal in bringing CL to an area or situation is to allow

everyone to learn more from the process of developing policy decisions and programs than might otherwise occur.

The first stages of CL emphasize dialogue through which parties develop common understanding of the situation. Activities might include information exchange, imagining best and worst possible futures, and visual representations of the situation, perhaps through the use of "situation/systems" maps. In middle stages, CL participants focus on concerns and interests, and how their concerns relate to others'. Out of these concerns, CL parties identify possible changes that could be made: "situation improvements." In latter stages, which shift communication interaction from dialogue to deliberation, the participants debate these improvements. Participants deliberate whether or not the improvements represent desirable and feasible changes in the present situation, and move into implementation.

CL has been developed to be responsive to diverse cultures and communities. Visualization tasks (e.g., mapping, rich pictures), variable group interaction (e.g., 2-4-8), systems work (e.g., mapping, matrix development), and communication guidelines are designed to respect the various ways in which people prefer to participate, learn, and share knowledge.

5.5.3 Collaborative Learning Outcomes

Collaborative Learning presumes that situations are dynamic, systemic, and changing. It is a framework designed to deal with dynamically complex systems, as opposed to detail complexity (Senge, 1990). Data from a variety of applications such as the Oregon Dunes National Recreation Area (Daniels & Walker, 1996) and the Wenatchee National Forest (Daniels et. al., 1996; Blatner, Walker, & Carroll, 1997) indicate that CL can be adapted to a particular situation to generate (1) dialogue between diverse communities: scientific, public, administrative; (2) improved understanding of the specific problem situation; (3) integration of scientific and public knowledge about the problem situation; (4) increased rapport, respect, and trust among participants; (5) clearly articulated systems-based concerns about the problem situation; and (6) tangible improvements in the problem situation.

Latin American model (also found in Africa)

The Amacayacu National Park is a lush tropical mosaic of hills and swamps in the Colombian Amazon, inhabited by the Ticuna People. Managing the park involves activities aimed at "linking with local communities", such as providing information on policies and environmental problems and support to small income-generation projects.

The intent is to respect the local culture while pursuing conservation objectives, and to address as much as possible the needs of the inhabitants of the protected area. Since the Park's staffs controls all decisions (although several activities inform and benefit local stakeholders) this model represents "full control" by the agency in charge. This example is placed just right of the left extreme of the PC. It is an important show of attention, concern and desire to develop a positive relationship. A similar trend is also found in Uganda where the Bwindi forest National Park and Mt. Elgon National Park are managed in a similar way.

Nepal:

In the Annapurna Conservation Area (Nepal), a large-scale attempt at integrating conservation and local development is being promoted by the King Mahendra Nature Conservation Trust. Local, regional and national organisations discuss on an on-going basis the specific management decisions to be taken at various levels (including decisions over distribution of tourism revenues). The main aim is to involve in management all the relevant parties, so that their interests, concerns and capacities are fully taken into account. Several committees participate in developing specific agreements and dedicated agents called lami (matchmakers) facilitate the process.

United Kingdom (UK)

In the UK, the North York Moors National Park includes land that has been settled and farmed for millennia. The landscape includes large areas of semi-natural vegetation - such as ancient woodlands - interspersed with grazing areas, hedgerows, farmland and some small towns and villages.

The relationship between the Park and the local people is so close that the Park Management Plan is included as part of the general plan of Town and Country Development, which is prepared with the extensive involvement of the public. In fact, the majority of the North York Moors are under private ownership (a factor common to many National Parks in Europe) and the management plan is therefore dependent on the co-operation of the landowners.

Management Agreements can be signed between the landowners and the Park Authority and they are considered to be legally binding contracts though initial negotiation and agreements are entirely voluntary. The Park Authority can also provide some financial incentives and compensations in return for agreed works or management practices. Land use changes can be controlled in part by the Park Authority, but farming activities generally remain outside these controls. (The Authority, however, is promoting traditional, environmentally sound farming practices).

Panama (also in South Africa & Tanzania)

In Panama, an indigenous reserve known as Kuna Yala is managed in a manner similar to a Biosphere Reserve and is under the control of the local Kuna people. Funding from outside has helped develop a variety of projects but most of the technical expertise is indigenous and - most importantly - the will to maintain the area under protected status and the daily decision making are all local. It is important that local people have incentive to protect an area and this appears to be the case here, where protection enhances their livelihood.

In Ghana¹ the pluralist approach is being used by Ricerca e Cooperazione, an Italian non-governmental organisation, on the Forest Resource Creation Project. The project, which is located in the Sefwi Wiawso District in the Western region of Ghana, expects a high level of stakeholder participation. Social groups and individuals are informed, made aware and sensitised on environmental issues. Then follows the declaration and pledge by stakeholders to participate. In this instance 37 associations were identified from all over the District and made formal. Projects include:

- A) Agro forestry resource creation
- B) Environmental care, job creation programs with decentralised "co-corporation budget".

Poverty reduction is the overall objective. The approach is very human centred in decision making and sharing of responsibilities. It tends towards the far right.

¹ Information on examples in Ghana were taken from a meeting held in Prince's town in 2001 at an informal meeting of NGO's in forestry and other related areas and also personal visits by the researcher to some of the projects sites.

Full control
by the agency
in charge

Shared control by the agency in charge
and other stakeholders

Full control by
other stakeholders



C O L L A B O R A T I V E M A N A G E M E N T



actively
consulting

seeking
consensus

negotiating
(involving in
decision-making)
and developing
specific agreements

sharing authority
and responsibility
in a formal way
(e.g., via seats in a
management body)

transferring
authority and
responsibility

No interference or
contribution from
other stakeholders

No interference or
contribution from
the agency in charge



increasing expectations of stakeholders



increasing contributions, commitment and 'accountability' of stakeholders



Mod 4

Principles of pluralism
Resource- power point

Mod 5

Resource-
collaboration models
Continuum model

A

- locate the substantive positions on the continuum
- Do this in groups

B some collaboration methods \

Resource collaborative methods- print outs

- Examine the collaborative methods
- Discuss hem
- Are they useful for collaboration; to what extent?
- Identify the good and the weak points
- Compare the methods
- Can you choose one?

Mod 6

A

Resource- 4Rs for Ghana Ghana and Germany

The 4rs work sheets plain

Resource estate information

- Identify possible stakeholders
- Take on their roles and analyze the issues
- Summarize the results

Q how will you get them to collaborate?

B

Examples from Ghana and Germany

- Identify other info that you may use as a facilitator
- Look out for latent conflict issues
- What relationships will develop for collaboration

C compare the 4Rs PRA and surveys critically

most important products from the various forest reserves in the FMU. Nsorkor however is reportedly diminishing in stock in all the reserves of FMU 10.

3.5 Mining and other rights

There is no documentation of mineral prospecting or commercial mining activities within the FMU. However, Messrs. "SANKOFA" Gold Mining Company Limited have been granted licence to carry on surface gold mining in the off-reserve area adjoining the south-eastern boundary of Fure Headwaters forest areas.

3.6 Current Management

The following key features of the reserves were incorporated into the management plan:

- Environmental protection areas: hill sanctuaries, swampy areas; these are clearly marked areas.
- Bio-diversity protection: no specific areas marked.
- Fauna protection: no specific prescriptions were made in the previous plans; the new plan identified endangered species for protection and controlled hunting of most species.
- Research areas, convalescence areas and cultural areas (sacred groves and shrines). Cultural areas were usually also found outside the reserves. The new plan recommended some cultural areas to be put under protection
- Controlled logging and replacement of timber tree species
- Access by local communities' to non-timber forest products; seasonal hunting for selected species.

2.2 Effective Communication and Good Facilitation / Participatory Approaches in Collaborative Forest Management (May 8 to 19, 2006)

The training is ranked as beginner's course and this material can guide the fresh/new C/Fs to work on their tasks. Good communication skill is essential for C/Fs for trust-building with people. Communication generally consists of 1) Making oneself understand and 2) Being able to know what another person is saying. According to this material, we have to confront our communication partner, direct our full attention to the communication, duplicate the message received and so on in order to communicate well each other. Moreover, it is emphasized that visual presentation in addition to oral explanation is very useful to enhance listeners' understanding since reception of information by eyes accounts for more than 80% of all information.

This sub-chapter describes principles of participation and categorizes some types of participation such as passive one, participation by consultation etc. Facilitator is a key person for any activity implementation in the participatory manner and it is defined a facilitator as an individual responsible for guiding a group through a process to achieve a goal in this material. The facilitator does not manage the task to be accomplished, but the achievement should be done in the group process. Since C/Fs are requested to educe people's unrecognized talent and potentials, improvement of facilitation skill of C/Fs is essential. Sometimes it is challenging to handle difficult groups/individuals for C/Fs and there is description how to confront these challenges.

It is important to grasp the overall conditions in the community to achieve the participatory forest management. In order to understand social characteristics in the communities, some tools and methods are useful. In this material, some methods such as semi-structures interview, community mapping, seasonal calendar, transect walk, which can be used in the field, are introduced with some illustrations for assisting reader's understanding. Utilization of these tools enables not only C/Fs but also communities to find their surrounding situations and to enjoy their new findings.

JICA

MODULE 1

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION AND GOOD
FACILITATION

MODULE 2

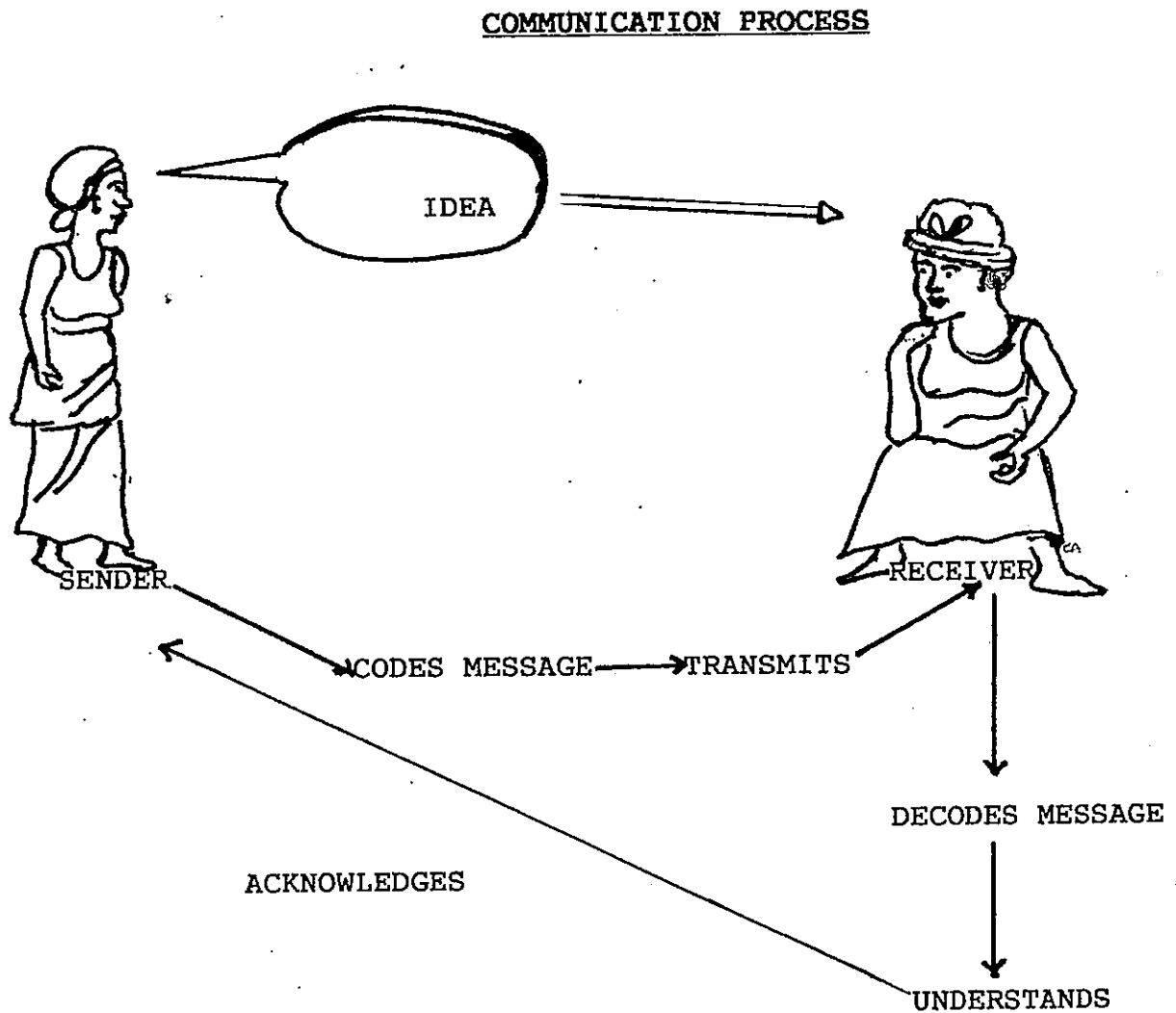
PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IN
COLLABORATIVE FOREST MANAGEMENT
(CFM)

PARTICIPATORY FOREST RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT PROJECT IN THE TRADITIONAL
ZONE (PAFORM)

TRAINING OF COMMUNITY FACILITATORS
(8 – 19 MAY 2006, Sunyani)

COMMUNICATION

- Making oneself understood
- Being able to know what another person is saying

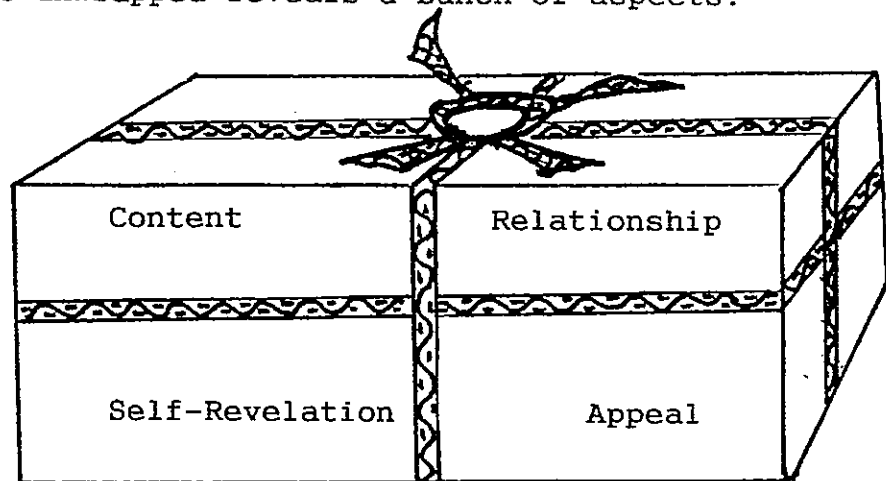


IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTICS OF SENDER AND RECEIVER IN COMMUNICATION

In order for people to communicate well with each other, they must be able to

- CONFRONT their communication partner and the topic of discussion
- DIRECT their FULL ATTENTION to their communication partner
- Attach a specific INTENTION to the communication
- DUPLICATE the message received
- UNDERSTAND the transmitted message
- ACKNOWLEDGE the receipt and understanding of the message

In communication, a message should be seen as a "gift parcel", which once unwrapped reveals a bunch of aspects.



A facilitator should be conscious of each of these aspects, if communication should succeed. Each message

- has a content or subject-matter
- contains a certain self-revelation or information about the sender, whether intentional or non-intentional
- indicates the relationship between the sender and the receiver
- has an element of an appeal or attempt to influence the other person (receiver)

Example: Sender calls the receiver a villager, a term considered derogatory nowadays.

Content	-	villager
Self-revelation-		sender is an urban person
Relationship	-	sender is superior to the receiver
Appeal	-	receiver should obey (submit to) the sender

WHY VISUALISATION?

Does the following astonish you ?

- Reception of information

by eye	83 %
by ear	11 %
by smell	3 %
by touch	1 %
by taste	1 %



- Contributions are not systematically taken up
- While one topic is being treated, discussions may jump to the next
- A great deal of concentration is required in order to keep track of discussions
- Conflicting participants get into disagreements and “loose sight” of others and the issue being discussed
- It is not easy to come to joint decisions in a reasonable and comprehensive way (for instance, when an authoritarian or dominant person makes the decision disregarding others)

GUIDED DIALOGUE

When moderator or facilitator is a participant in a discussion

- Moderator should keep his/her contribution to the minimum
- Fully exhaust the participants' knowledge of and opinions on the subject
- Record and acknowledge every contribution
- Collection of statements must be continued until no further contributions are made
- Moderator acknowledges the participants' contribution , then s/he her/himself points out relevant aspects and lets the group discuss them
- Moderator must evaluate contributions together with the participants. S/he must present her/his specialised knowledge in a convincing manner
- Always follow-up with practical applications

IMPORTANT TO REMEMBER IN COMMUNICATION:

- What has been said has not necessarily been heard

- What has been heard might not have been understood

- Understanding does not imply acceptance

- Acceptance does not mean that information is acted upon

- And if information is acted upon does not ensure that this will always be so

THE FOUR STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

FORMING

1. Group is not yet a group, but a set of individuals.
2. Individuals want to establish personal identity within the group and make an impression.
3. Participation is limited as individuals get familiar with the setting, the facilitator and each other.
4. Individuals begin to focus on task at hand and discuss its purpose.
5. The group is essentially evolving around ground rules on which future decisions and actions will be based.

STORMING

1. Characterised by intra-group conflicts and lack of unity.
2. Preliminary ground rules on purpose, leadership, and behaviour are damaged.
3. Individuals can become hostile toward each other, and express their individuality by pursuing or revealing personal agendas.
4. Friction increases, rules are broken, arguments can happen.
5. But, if successfully handled, this stage leads to new and more realistic setting of objectives, procedures, and norms.

NORMING

1. Characterised by overcoming tensions and by developing group cohesion in which norms and practices are established.
2. Members accept the group & accept each other's differences.
3. Group allegiance develops and group strives to maintain it.
4. Development of group spirit, harmony becomes important.

PERFORMING

1. Characterised by full maturity and maximum productivity
2. Reached by successfully completing previous 3 stages
3. Members take on roles to fulfil group activities since they now have learnt to relate to one another
4. Roles become flexible and functional
5. Group energy channelled into identified tasks
6. New insights and solutions begin to emerge

FACILITATOR

- Individual responsible for guiding a group through a process in order to accomplish a specific task or achieve a specific goal or outcome

The facilitator does not manage the content or task (what the group is meant to accomplish), but the **GROUP PROCESS**

ELEMENTS OF THE GROUP PROCESS

- Group dynamics
- Interaction and relationships
- Group norms
- Climate (environment of discussion or interaction) and the methods
- Tools and structure that shape the process

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWING

Guided conversation in which only the topics are pre-determined and new questions or new insights arise as a result of the discussion and visualised analysis.

TEN POINTS FOR SENSITIVE INTERVIEWING

1. Prepare as a Team and agree a Team Contract
2. Use a checklist or Interview Guide
3. Use visualisation methods to enhance participation and dialogue
4. Listen and learn
5. Ask open-ended questions using the six helpers (Who?, What?, Why?, Where?, When?, How?)
6. Probe responses carefully
7. Judge responses (facts, opinions, rumours)
8. Verify through Triangulation (cross-checking)
9. Record responses and observations fully

TOOLS IN DIAGRAMMING

1. COMMUNITY MAPPING

A tool in which community members are empowered to analyse and better understand their own condition in a visual/diagrammatic manner. It can start by asking the community members to draw a map of their community on the ground, using local/available materials. While drawing the map, the facilitator can ask questions relevant to the aims of the group. Possible objectives of a mapping exercise are :

- a. Identification of problems, constraints, and needs in the community
- b. Identification of local resources and potentials in the community
- c. Identification of socio-economic factors with regard to the first two objectives
- d. The historical development trends of the settlement scheme.

Key questions that may be asked in relation to the above objectives are:

- a. How was the historical development of the community?
- b. What are the local resources?
- c. What are the constraints for the exploitation of resources?
- d. What are the problems as perceived by different groups?
- e. What are the causes of these problems?
- f. Which are the most pressing problems as perceived by different groups? Ranking of problems.
- g. What are the aspirations of different groups?
- h. How can the identified problems be addressed using local resources and through community self-help?

2. SEASONAL CALENDAR

Use to illustrate trends and changes in activities and/or events over the course of a single day, a week, or a year, whatever is appropriate

Data or information that can be generated in a seasonal calendar:

- a. Rainfall patterns: days of rain per month, comparing the present and 20 years ago for a particular area
- b. Price trends: amount of harvest and price changes, in a year or number of years
- c. Income and expenditure: income and expenditures for every item, in a year and for men and women
- d. Health and Climate: rate of illness and frequency of rains, in a year

3. DAILY ACTIVITY CALENDAR

Illustrate the schedule of activities for men and women. This is used to emphasise on the differences in activities for both sexes and the relative time input utilised per activity. It is also useful in determining which is the best time to engage men and women in organisational activities.

3. TRANSECT WALK

A tool to further familiarise the investigator and the community about local issues and the environment. This involves walking across the length of the community with a key informant/local guide, observing the surrounding, and asking questions on pre-determined issues such as:

- Soil
- Available water
- Vegetations/types of plants or crops
- Socio-economic indicators like schools, housing types, market
- Problems in relation to the above issues
- Development opportunities in relation to the above issues

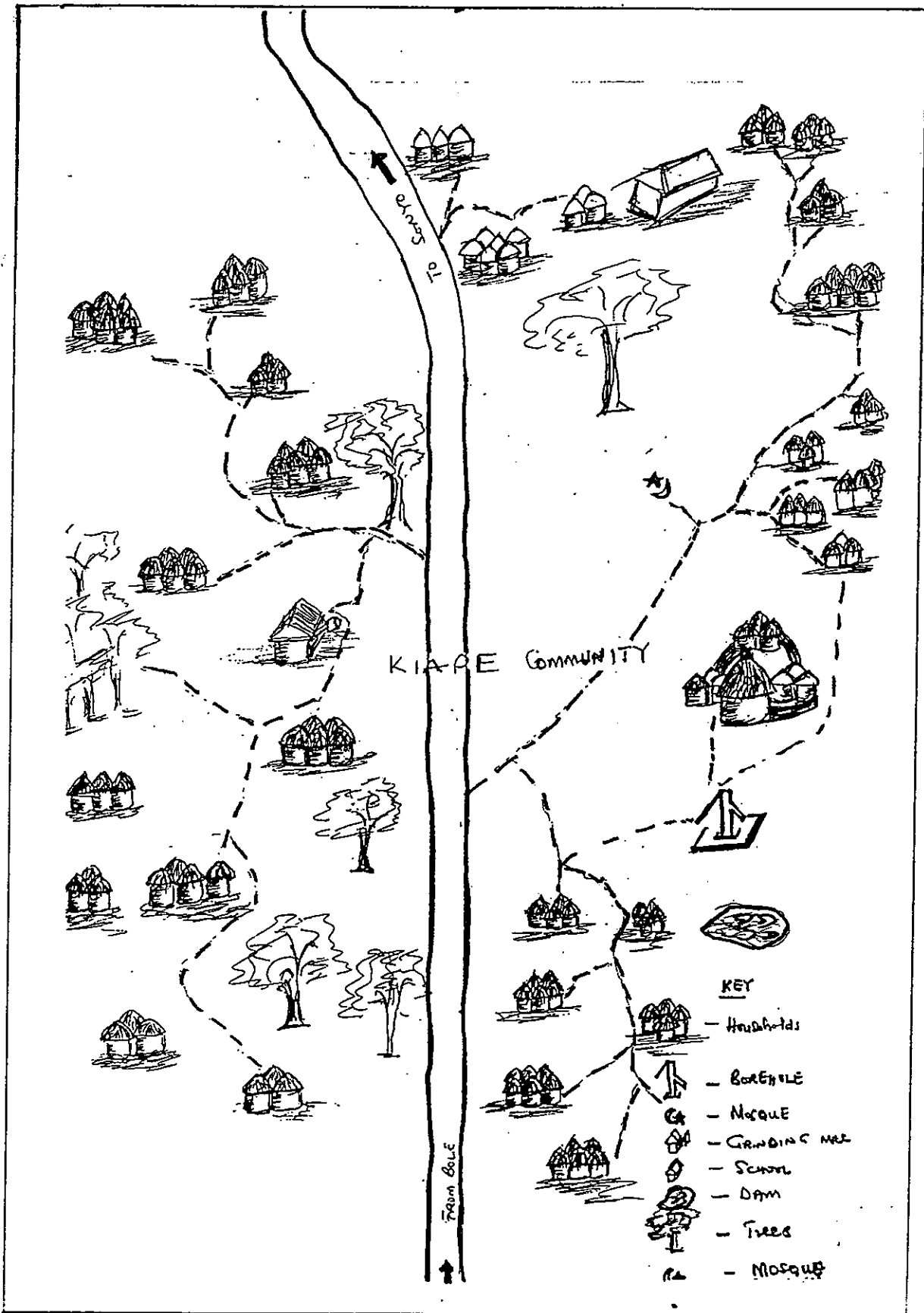
4. VENN DIAGRAM

This tool is used to understand institutional linkages and relationships, based on the perception of different groups in the community (e.g. men and women, rich and poor/marginalised, authorities/leadership and community members, etc.). It involves asking participating groups to symbolise (e.g. circle, triangle, etc.) the various organisations or authorities/leadership that they have to deal with, and illustrate the degree of linkages and influence each of these entities have over their affairs.





This tool helps to highlight contrasting perceptions of different roles, responsibilities and linkages, pointing to areas of conflict and dispute as well as resolving these. After constructing the series of diagrams of the existing situation by different actors, people can be facilitated to discuss ways of resolving conflicts, filling institutional gaps, or encouraging linkages.

This tool is useful for networking.

COMMUNITY MAP AS DERIVED BY THE MEN AND WOMEN OF KIAPE COMMUNITY, BOLE DISTRICT (MAY, 1996)



TRANSECT WALK

					
SOIL	Clay and Small patches of Sandy Soil	Sandy Soil and Small patches of clay from	Clay, Shallow Silt and rocky	Sandy Soil	Clay Soil Small patches of Sandy Soil, rock patches
WATER	2 small ponds partly main (rainfed) Roof catchment (2 houses partly installed)	Roof catchment at Short partly kept one pan partly kept	Dam, Sealy water Brown embankment one pan partly kept	Shallow wells	1 pan (well maintained) broken down 2 pan partly maintained River has fresh water, dry Valley.
VEGETATION	Natural bushes, Shrubs, trees (shebuts and Mangos)	Natural bushes cleared for Short and Market Centre	Natural bush and Grass consisting of acacia species	Indigenes hard weed trees	Natural bush and Ficus's consisting of acacia species
Socio-Economic INDICATORS	Majority	Schools with corrugated iron roofs and Market centre	Mainly grass thatched houses with mud walls	grass thatched houses. A few corrugated iron roofs	grass thatched houses and 1 thatched corrugated iron roof
PROBLEMS	Inadequate water supply, Lack of dig facilities, Poor Ploughing practices	Inadequate water supply, inadequate school facilities, Poor transport no health facilities	Inadequate water supply, Disorganised community, Poor Security, Migration of people	Inadequate water supply, bad dig	Inadequate water supply Disorganised community local animals destroying crops, on of overgrazing
OPPORTUNITIES	Rehabilitate dam Rehabilitate cattle ranch Borehole Secures Tanks for dam construction	Improve roof Catchment Rehabilitate Pan Technical assistance External Assistance	Rehabilitate dam introduce Sisset growing	Rehabilitate tanks Cash crop (beans and Cashewnuts)	Rehabilitate 4 pans Introduce Soil Conservation Rehabilitate dam Siting for pan Sisset growing

TOOLS IN ANALYSING OPTIONS

A. FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

A tool to assess the potential success of a change and to identify what can be done to aid its success. The concept considers change to be accompanied by driving forces, pushing a change towards success and restraining forces that limit success.

If an option is finally chosen, the information from the Force Field Analysis should then be used in implementation of the idea. The driving forces should be promoted and the action plan has to be drawn up to lessen the restraining factors.



B. PROS AND CONS ANALYSIS

The tool is useful in assessing the positives and negatives or advantages and disadvantages of a certain change option or solution.

PROPOSED SOLUTION	
PROS	CONS

DECISION-MAKING TOOLS

A. Multi-Voting Technique

1. A tool that organises and increases the efficiency of the decision-making process. The method is used when the group has several options. Members are invited to indicate their preferences by placing their token (e.g. stone, stick, etc.) beside their preference. As an alternative, members can be asked to mark or tick with a marker. The following are the steps:
 1. List options on a flipchart or on the ground with symbols representing each option
 2. Distribute the tokens. One token represent one vote. When the options are many, a rule can be set, for instance, 20% of the number of options on the list. So, for example, if there are 10 options, each person would have 2 votes (20% of 10) and receive two tokens. If there are 20 options on the list, each member would have 4 votes or tokens.
 3. Explain to the group that they can use their votes in any way they choose. If they have two votes each, each one of them may put all his/her votes on one option or distribute these to two options.
 4. Count the votes and if one option got the most number of votes, then the process is finished.
 5. If there are options that got the highest but equal votes:
 - a) You can continue to vote until one option comes out
 - b) You can move into a dialogue and consensus-reaching process to select one option.

B. PREFERENCE RANKING OR PAIR-WISE RANKING

This tool is normally used to determine main preferences and priorities of individuals or groups for a set of items as well as compare the priorities of different groups against one another (e.g. men and women, young and old, rich and poor). The steps are as follows:

1. Draw a matrix with X and Y axes
2. List the options or alternatives on both the X (across the top or first row) and Y (down the left side or first column) axes
3. Ask the group to which they prefer more for each pair appearing on the matrix, that is, first box on the X axis and second box on the Y axis; then, first box on X axis and third box on the Y axis, and so on.
4. Facilitator should ask the group the reason they chose one option over the other. This shall serve to explain the criteria that the group would be using to assess options such as being considered.
5. The group should continue the process for all possible combinations. For a list of 6 options or items, there will be 15 combinations.
6. After all combinations have been compared, the frequency of occurrence of each option is added up and the most preferred option would be the one obtaining the highest frequency.

Ex. Assessing options for selecting preferred fruit of children in Village X, where the options are:

Mango - Ma Watermelon - Wa Pineapple - Pa
 Banana- Ba PawPaw - Pw Avocado - Av

	Mango	Watermelon	Pineapple	Banana	Pawpaw	Avocado
Ma		Ma	Ma	Ma	Ma	Ma
Wa			Wa	Ba	Pw	Av
Pa				Ba	Pw	Pa
Ba					Ba	Av
Pw						Av
Av						

The preferred fruit is mango appearing 5 times on the matrix.

BASIC DEFINITIONS: PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

PLANNING

A systematic approach to decision-making over alternative ways of achieving a desired goal and objective, using available human, natural, and financial resources within a specified time frame, in order to benefit a particular group of people.

MONITORING

Finding out problems and correcting work-in-process, at regular intervals after plans had been put into implementation, ensuring that:

- Activities are being implemented within the time frame agreed
- Inputs are ready on time
- People who need to know about progress are well informed
- Constraints (or bottlenecks) are identified and solutions discussed and implemented
- Resources are used efficiently.

EVALUATION

A process of assessing the

- Successes and failures of a project
- Actual effects of activities on the identified target group
- Extent to which identified objectives were achieved
- Unintended, including the adverse, consequences of planned activities

THE FACILITATOR'S BASIC RESPONSIBILITIES CHECKLIST

- **Clarify objectives**

- **Ensure full participation**

- **Stay on track**

- **Stay on time**

- **Clarify understanding**

- **Ensure commitments to action**

- **Recap**

BEHAVIORS THAT HINDER A GROUP DISCUSSION

The Silent Type

May be simply quiet by nature and or may not want to be part of the process

The Monopoliser

Full of ideas, usually first and most frequent to speak. This person's confidence can intimidate or unduly influence others. May tend to repeat points.

The Intimidator

Forcefully spoken, judgmental, has strong opinions; to this person the answer is obvious; often critical of others; tend not to listen

The Nice Guy

Always want to please everyone; agreeable; hesitant to take a position.

The Unhappy Camper

Negative, looks for fault with the process and/or others' ideas.

DEALING WITH DIFFICULT INDIVIDUALS

- As soon as you begin to see problems arise, take the opportunity to talk to the person individually. Try to understand what is bothering them. Sometimes disruptive people just want more individual attention. Try to diffuse the situation before the person becomes a ringleader for wider opposition
- If this has not helped and there is somebody in the group who has a personal relationship with the individual and can act as an intermediary, ask that person to discuss the disruptive behaviour sympathetically with the person in question.
- Give the person a particular responsibility in the meeting that will focus his/her energies, such as leading a sub-group or organising games.
- Do a role play in disruptive behaviour to illustrate to the person the effects of his/her behaviour without addressing him/her directly.
- You can encourage other members to comment on the issue being raised by the disruptive person.
- Only deal with difficult individuals publicly in exceptional cases.

HANDLING DIFFICULT GROUPS

In both training and community forum environment, group work is organized to allow for more participation and learning. A work group which has been well established and knows what is to be done and why, should be able to work without the Facilitator.

The Facilitator's role in group work is to observe, and if the group process deviates from productive work and its aims, the Facilitator should:

- i) realize that there is a disturbance;
- ii) analyze which type of disturbance there is;
- iii) react to the disturbance appropriately, and
- iv) direct the group back to its work.

Handling disturbance or difficult groups require a careful analysis of the reasons for the disturbances. There are three possible categories of difficult groups or disturbances, namely;

- a. The Passive Group
- b. Group with Never-Ending Discussions
- c. The Aggressive Group

Below are examples of such reasons and hints on how to resolve them:

A. THE PASSIVE GROUP

1. Participants have difficulties in switching from lectures on theoretical issues, to practical and active group work

What to do:

- * Clearly indicate differing phases of work (e.g. by changing rooms or arrangements of the room, etc)
- * Encourage the group to become physically active by assigning simple tasks (e.g. re-arrangement of the room, preparation of flipcharts/brown papers, etc)



(Source: Lohmeier, Jochen. ZOPP Moderation Update. COMIT, Berlin, September 1995.)

2. Participants feel that too much is demanded from them and do not know how to approach their task.

What to do:

- * Find out what was not understood; clarify misunderstanding or misconceptions.
- * If required, provide an additional input on the topic; explain more.
- * Simplify the task.

3. The Participants are reluctant to deal with the topic or with the facilitator.

What to do:

- * Find out what the opposition is directed towards by doing the following steps:
 - i) Ask each participant, one after the other in sequence, to express his/her views on what is happening in the group;
 - ii) Acknowledge each contribution, but, avoid giving responses until everybody has expressed their views;
 - iii) Express gratitude to all contributors; and,
 - iv) Decide on how to proceed together with the participants; open the floor for solutions/suggestions and come to a conclusion; or agree on when and how to handle the issues which have emerged; and
 - v) Direct the group back to work.
- * Complete the discussion of every issue raised by each contributor.
 - acknowledge contributions which according to the participant's view have not been dealt with
 - realize misunderstandings and try to clarify them

4. Participants are exhausted and tired

What to do:

- * Discontinue the teaching of theoretical issues.
- * Change the activity or the topic.
- * Propose physical activity (exercises, moving around).
- * Take a recreational break.

5. Individual group members do not participate

What to do:

- * Assign a special task to those who are not participating.
- * Try to integrate them by referring to their specific experiences or their personal strengths.
- * Organise the group work in such a way that "non-participating" members are not together with persons they may fear or dislike or who intimidate them (e.g. supervisors, experts).

B. DEVIATIONS, NEVER-ENDING DISCUSSIONS

1. The topic is not important to the participants and they manifest the lack of interest by kidding, making irrelevant contributions, critical remarks, etc.

What to do:

- * Explore what participants think about the task
- * Explain the relevance and applicability of the task or topic
- * Show how the current step (task) is linked to other steps



- * In case the criticism of the task is justified, consider changing it and deal with questions which participants believe are more important to the general topic of the workshop
2. Participants are not used to working with a team especially if they come from situation in which authoritarian or hierarchical structure dominates.

What to do:

- * Introduce/explain the rules for team work.
- * Steer the discussion for some time.
- * Insist on visualising the contributions and recording the results of discussions.
- * Clearly discuss alternatives or differing points of view and indicate ways of finding a compromise
- * Comment on the work so far done to encourage the group to be proud of it
- * After an initial phase of setting up the group, let them work on their own

C. THE AGGRESSIVE GROUP

1. Conflicts of interest between factions resulting to participants not listening to each other, at times, attacking one another

What to do:

- * Facilitators should not take sides, but, act as a mediator.
- * Remind the participants of the rules of good communication.
- * Ask the participants to visualize their differing points of view so that arguments are made clear and consistent to the subject matter.
- * Elaborate upon the common objective of the work that is to be done.
- * Draw the attention away from opposing arguments towards areas of ^{agreements} ~~agreements~~ and towards possible solutions
- * Discuss the positive effects of agreeing.

PURPOSES A FACILITATOR ASKS QUESTIONS

- **Integrate existing knowledge of participants**

- **Stimulate exchange of experiences**

- **Have a problem-situation described**

- **Have solutions elaborated**

- **Ask about opinions**

- **Check understanding**

- **Evaluate situation**

SUCCESS OF “QUESTION AND ANSWER” METHOD

- **The ability to ask questions**

- **The capability to deal with answers and cope with the reactions of others**

- **The ability to stimulate questions**

- **Adequate reaction to questions**

IN ASKING QUESTIONS, ONE ENTERS INTO A DIALOGUE WITH OTHERS.

GOOD QUESTIONS

- **Are concise, including one idea**
- **Are understandable**
- **Do not pre-empt the answer**
- **Allow for differentiated answer**
- **Enforce reflection**
- **Are answered voluntarily and with advantage**

BAD QUESTIONS

- **Yes/No questions; a differentiated answer is not possible**
- **Rhetoric questions; they do not ask for an answer, as the answer is already contained in the questions**
- **Suggestive questions; they propose an answer**
- **Alternative questions; they only allow for the choice among alternatives offered**
- **Teacher's questions; they only allow "right" or "wrong" answers**
- **"Trick" questions; they are purposefully misleading as they suggest a "wrong" answer**

HOW TO DEAL WITH ANSWERS

Answers which are wrong

Incomplete Answers

Unclear Answers

Answers which do not belong to the question discussed

Answers which are premature

No answer - silence

WHAT TO DO AS A FACILITATOR

In a community forum or group discussions,

- * Ensure that your message is well duplicated and understood by the receiver
- * Be clear in your intention
- * Always get feedback
- * Summarise at every interval
- * Repeat important points
- * Use a variety of languages, idioms, wise sayings, proverbs/jokes
- * Be calm and respond to issues appropriately
- * Message should be clear and simple
- * Know your community well (eg. facilitator is among "playmates" tribes so that jokes may be thrown, etc.)
- * Let everybody see your face in your presentation and hear your voice
- * Maintain eye contact
- * Pay closer attention to the participants than yourself
- * Be selective on the kind of self information you will give so the community will not feel uncomfortable.
- * Consider everybody's contribution

WHAT NOT TO DO AS A FACILITATOR

In a community forum or group discussions,

- * Do not make judgements of a message/do not jump to conclusions (clarify and investigate further)
- * Do not assume you know more than everyone else
- * Do not stay rooted in one place, make movements from time to time to relate to the audience
- * Do not argue with a participant

PRINCIPLES OF PARTICIPATION

Defined Methodology and Systematic Learning Process

The focus is on cumulative learning by all the participants, which include both professional trainees and local people.

Multiple Perspectives

Recognises that different individuals and groups make different evaluations of situations, which lead to different actions.

Group Learning Process

Recognition that the complexity of the world will only be revealed through group analysis and interaction

Context-Specific

Approaches are flexible enough to be adapted to suit each new set of conditions and actors.

Facilitating Experts and Stakeholders

The methodology is concerned with the transformation of existing activities to try to improve people's situation. The role of the external "expert" or facilitator is to help people carry out their own study and so achieve something

Leading To Change

Participatory process leads to debate about change, and debate changes the perceptions of the actors and their readiness to contemplate action (dialogue).

TYPES OF PARTICIPATION

Passive Participation

People are told what is going to happen or what has already happened. It is a unilateral (one-way) announcement by an administration or project management without listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.

Participation in Information Giving

People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers using questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.

Participation by Consultation

People participate by being consulted, and external people listen to views. These external professionals define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in the light of people's responses. Such a consultative process does not share the decision-making, and professionals are not obligated to take on board people's views.

Participation for Material Incentives

People participate by providing resources, for example labour, in return for food, cash, or other material incentives. Much on-farm research falls in this category, as farmers provide the fields but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of learning. It is very common to see this category, yet people have no stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end.

Functional Participation

People participate by forming groups to meet pre-determined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organisation. Such involvement does not tend to be at early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather after major decisions have been made. These institutions tend to be dependent on external initiators and facilitators, but may become independent.

Interactive Participation

People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local institutions or the strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, and so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practises.

Self-Mobilisation

People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. Such self-initiated mobilisation and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power.

2.3 Training of FSD Staff (June 13 to 22, 2006)

This material is also suitable for fresh/new C/Fs 1) to understand project cycle management and operational planning, 2) to enhance knowledge and skills on participatory approach in collaborative management, and 3) to acquire the knowledge regarding conflict management. This sub-chapter is compiled as a training report, therefore, the readers of this material can easily understand how the participants of this training acquired and enhanced their knowledge and skills through this training. The composition and contents of this material does not have big difference with previous sub-chapter. However, since there are many exercises illustrated, which can be done as group works, and it is possible for the users to enjoy learning by practice of these exercises as group works. In addition, the training participants' leanings are compiled as "Leanings" and the readers can study their discussions and lessons learnt through the training, which are very useful and practical.

**FOREST SERVICES DIVISION (FSD)/
JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY
(JICA)**

FINAL REPORT

**Participatory Forest Resource Management
Project in the Transitional Zone (PAFORM)**

**TRAINING OF FSD STAFF
(13 – 22 JUNE 2006, Sunyani)**

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Development Initiatives Consult

12 July 2006

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

CFM	Collaborative Forest Management
CSO	Customer Service Officer
FSD	Forestry Services Division
FRMP	Forest Resource Management Plan
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
PAFORM	Participatory Forest Resource Management Project in the Transitional Zone
SRA	Social Responsibility Agreement
SSI	Semi-Structured Interview

Participatory Forest Resource Management Project in the Transitional Zone (PAFORM)

TRAINING OF FSD STAFF

I. BACKGROUND

The PAFORM is a collaborative project between the Forest Services Division of the Government of Ghana and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) of the Government of Japan. The Project, that covers the period 2004 to 2009, seeks to promote sustainable management of forest resources in the transitional zone for the benefit of all segments of society. The Sunyani Forest District is the target project area.

The Project has recognized the critical role of communities in sustainable forest management, thus it has identified their participation in development and implementation of Forest Resources Management Plans (FRMPs). These FRMPs would serve as inputs to the development of a Forest Reserve Management Framework that will guide all operations within the Reserve.

The role of management and staff of FSD has been recognized as crucial in harnessing and upgrading knowledge of communities on forest management to a level that would contribute to sustainability of use and societal benefits. The integration of participatory approaches to the standard forestry techniques is, therefore, necessary for the success of PAFORM.

An 8-day training has been organized as an initial step to equip management and staff of the Sunyani Forest District Office with the necessary participatory skills. This report presents the background of the training, the objectives, methodologies used, the modules and the processes that transpired, and the evaluation results.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE TRAINING

The overall objective of the training was to enhance the knowledge and skills of the management and staff of the Sunyani Forest District Office in order for them to perform their role in PAFORM. Specifically, the training aimed at:

1. Enhancing their familiarity with the goals and strategies of PAFORM through an orientation on Project Cycle Management and discussion of the Project Design Matrix and Operational Plan;
2. Enhancing their knowledge and skills on participatory approaches in collaborative forest management; and,

3. Enhancing their knowledge on the concept and approaches to conflict management and negotiations

The Trainer was also tasked to provide an assessment of knowledge and skills level of the participants at the end of the training. An assessment format was devised for this purpose and the results of the assessment are shown in Annex 1. The results were fed back to individual participants in order for them to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses.

III. METHODOLOGY USED AND TRAINING SCHEDULE

The training used both theory and practical methods to impart the identified skill areas. Participant interaction was maximized and the following tools were used in all the modules:

- Brainstorming (including idea cards)
- Role plays
- Group Exercises
- Individual work
- Games
- Case Studies

The use of a mix of tools was also meant to demonstrate to the candidates how they can employ similar tools in their community work. Techniques to form sub-groups were also made creative. The Trainer made use of animal sounds, motor sounds, shoe sizes, role models, birthday calendar as basis for forming groups for exercises. Ice breakers were also introduced at appropriate times.

However, a limiting factor was introduced when the original training duration had to be adjusted from the scheduled 7-hour day to a 5-hour day, leading to the reduction in scope under each module. The adjustment was on the urgent plea of the participants who argued that the original schedule would have deprived them of time they need to attend to clients with critical issues. They complained that they were not consulted on the scheduling of the training and had not made alternative arrangements to cover critical work requirements. PAFORM management led the discussion of this issue and had agreed to the reduction of training hours.

The Trainer basically reduced the scope under each module by leaving out some of the exercises, without taking out the introduction of concepts and short discussions that will clarify the concepts. Annex 2 presents the Training Programme as originally planned. The major change was the adjournment of daily session at 3:00 pm instead of 5:00 pm.

IV. PARTICIPANTS

There were a total of 9 participants/trainees, holding the following positions within FSD:

Sunyani Forest District Manager	-	1
Assistant Sunyani Forest District Manager	-	1
Area Plantation Manager	-	2
Plantation Supervisor	-	5

They were joined throughout the training by two observers, namely:

PAFORM Technical Assistant	-	1
JICA Volunteer	-	1

There were 2 females in the group, a Plantation Supervisor and the JICA volunteer.

The expectations/hopes and fears of the participants were gathered on the first day of the workshop and is shown as Annex 3. The expressions of expectations served as discussion points to level off understanding on what could and could not be covered by the training. The session also tried to address fears at an early stage of the training. Participants were also encouraged to use their expressions of expectations to monitor the progress of their learnings.

V. PRESENTATION OF THE MODULES AND OUTCOMES

This section presents the processes used to implement the various modules planned for the training as well as the results of discussions and exercises.

V.1 MODULE 1: PROJECT CYCLE MANAGEMENT OPERATIONAL PLANNING

The aim of the module was for participants to gain a deeper understanding of the Project Design Matrix (PDM) and accompanying Operational Plan that guide the implementation of PAFORM. Eventually, PAFORM management expects that the FSD staff would be able to translate the Operational Plan into their individual activity plans.

In order to understand the PDM, an overview of the concept of Project Cycle Management, its principles, and components were discussed. A handout was distributed to guide discussions and highlighted by the following definitions:

Project Cycle Management is a method or a tool for managing the entire cycle of development project- from planning and implementation to evaluation- by means of a project format termed the PDM.

The PDM is based on the *Logical Framework* approach to project planning that designs and presents a project as a hierarchy of targets and objectives- from Activities, to Outputs, Project Purpose, and Overall Goal. These objectives, except for Activities, are evaluated through Objectively Verifiable Indicators that are qualified by Means of Verification, as well as further objectified by Important Assumptions, factors that are external to but may have impact on the project. The PDM follows the following format:

Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Overall Goal			
Project Purpose			
Outputs			
Activities	Inputs		

The overview on PCM paved the way for easier understanding of the PAFORM PDM (Annex 4) and Operational Plan. To further consolidate understanding, participants were asked to perform an exercise to translate the PAFORM Operational Plan into 3-year Activity Plans for each staff category, that is, District Manager, Area Plantation Manager, Plantation Supervisor, and PAFORM Technical Assistant.

Four groups were formed and tasked to produce the Activity Plan using a format that include identification of Activities, Expected Outcome, Persons Responsible, Implementing Units, and Period of implementation. The outputs of each group were presented and considered drafts for further consideration in project planning.

V.2 MODULE 2: EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION & GOOD FACILITATION

The module made use of exercises to initiate discussions on the various concepts, principles, and skills areas required for effective communication and good facilitation. Role Plays were enacted to illustrate some important behaviours. Handouts were distributed as they become relevant to the consolidation of lessons.

The module was divided into 6 topics, namely: Communication and the Communication Process, Guided Dialogue, Group Dynamics and Communication, Facilitation, Handling Difficult Individuals and Groups, and Question and Answer.

A. COMMUNICATION AND THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

EXERCISE 1: PERSONAL COLLAGE

Objectives:

1. Participants learn skills in presentation
2. Enhance awareness on patterns in communicating
3. Participants get to introduce some aspects of themselves, enhancing group familiarity

Procedure:

- a. Participants were asked to draw a historical profile of him/herself, describing significant events in their lives that led them to the present time, event, place. The following indicative “stepping stones” were provided to serve as a guide, although they were asked to use other indicators as they seemed fit:
 - Childhood experience
 - Influence of parents, relatives, and friends
 - Formal schooling and/or other training
 - Work experience and changes in jobs/profession
 - Travels to various places
 - Key events, meetings, readings
- b. After 10 minutes, each participant presented their personal collage.
- c. After each presentation, the group gave comments focusing not on the substance but on form and manner of presentation. The following key questions were used:
 - What did you like in the presentation?
 - What did you not like in the presentation?
 - What can be done better?

LEARNINGS

It was initially difficult for some participants to start their drawing, convinced that they did not have the skill. Nevertheless, confidence was enhanced as the Trainer gave assurances that the exercise was not meant to test their drawing skills, but, to learn more about them as individuals and practise the art of presentation.

On the feedback sessions, a few tended to give comments relating to substance, but many more gave significant comments on form. The following were the lessons obtained by the group:

1. Eye contact with listeners or audience is very important. Facing the visual for too long during presentation (i.e. "talking to the visual") and only looking at the Trainer would tend to lose the interest of the listeners.
2. Efforts should be made to make presentations clear (audible delivery) and systematic in order to succeed in communicating messages.
3. If visual presentation has not been made clear, good verbal explanation can also lead listeners to understand the message.
4. If written text has to be integrated in a picture presentation, the text should be made very clear.
5. Confidence in presentation is very important.
6. It is always a good start to introduce the topic and even provide a very brief outline of the presentation.
7. Straight forward presentation and precision are positive ways of capturing audience's interest.
8. Lengthy presentations could potentially lose audience interest. If there is a need to elaborate on any point of the presentation, this would be dictated by questions from the audience.
9. Avoid using words or expressions that are biased (e.g using "rival" to refer to a second wife in a polygamous household; babies "trapped" at the back of their mothers' back, etc.). These can possibly create misunderstanding or conflict in certain cultural settings.
10. The use of the left hand in pointing at a visual presentation should be minimized in a setting such as rural Ghana since this is frowned upon by tradition.
11. Too much non-verbal actions, such as flailing of arms or movement of pointing stick, could distract audience attention from the actual topic being presented

EXERCISE 2: EMPHATIC LISTENING

Objective: Participants develop the skills of active and emphatic listening

Procedure:

- a. The following topics were prepared for the participants to select from:
 - Ghana's participation in the 2006 World Cup
 - Oil price increases
 - Increase in crime rate
- b. Participants were divided into two groups, assigning the following roles to each member of group:
 - Speaker*, who without interruption, explains his/her feeling towards a chosen topic
 - Listener*, who (without taking notes) summarises what was said
 - Referree*, who takes down notes as the Speaker presents
- c. After the Listener has summarised the Speaker's presentation, the Referree and the Speaker corrects or amplifies any item stated by the Listener. Roles are reversed after this, and the process begins again. Each participant was able to play each of the roles.
- d. Debriefing questions:
 - In your role as a Speaker, did you sense any difficulties or experienced any awkward moments?
 - How about as a Listener, as a Referee?
 - Did you observe any barriers that obstructed effective listening?

LEARNINGS

The lessons generated from the exercise were as follows:

As a Speaker,

1. The limited time given made him to go through his topic quickly, present it in a non-systematic manner.
2. The attention makes one feel tense all due to lack of confidence

As a Listener,

3. Wanted to ask question for clarification but could not
4. This (no. 3) makes understanding difficult at the same time that it encourages one to listen well
5. The inability to take down notes make one forget discussion points
This fact may be traced to cultural background. Some individuals have been trained in listening (e.g. Africans in their oral tradition) while some were trained to take down notes (e.g. Western cultures)
6. Unclear speech and too fast presentation make listening difficult

As Referee,

7. Repetition of points by Speaker makes it hard to take down note.

The above experiences led to the following conclusions:

1. One has to prepare so that only the highlights of a topic are presented.
2. A note-taker should have the ability to take down only the most important points.
3. One has to learn to be a good listener.
4. Recap of a discussion is easier when notes are taken down.
5. It is important to have 2-way communication for better understanding
6. If there are listening handicap, the use of visuals have to be emphasized
7. One should listen to every point and never anticipate ideas of the speaker as one may miss important points said in-between.

The Trainer used the preceding exercises to start a discussion on the concept of communication and the communication process.

The concept of Communication was presented to consist of two components:

- Making oneself understood; and
- Being able to know what another person is saying

The Communication Process has 6 steps, namely:

1. Sender has an idea
2. The idea has to be coded as a message
3. The message gets transmitted
4. The receiver decodes the message
5. The receiver understands the message
6. The receiver acknowledges the message

The following points were also emphasised:

- a. In reality, a person is always a sender and a receiver at the same time
- b. The contents of a message influence our behaviour, and the form, intensity, and contents of the communication
- c. Disturbances can arise at any step in the communication process and thereby lead to misunderstanding
- d. Community Facilitators would do a lot of communicating for purposes of achieving the aims of participatory forest management. They should set good examples to others.

HANDOUT 1

IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTICS OF SENDER AND RECEIVER IN COMMUNICATION

In order for people to communicate well with each other, they must be able to

- ∞∞ **CONFRONT** their communication partner and the topic of discussion
- ∞∞ **DIRECT** their **FULL ATTENTION** to their communication partner
- ∞∞ Attach a specific **INTENTION** to the communication
- ∞∞ **DUPLICATE** the message received
- ∞∞ **UNDERSTAND** the transmitted message
- ∞∞ **ACKNOWLEDGE** the receipt and understanding of the message

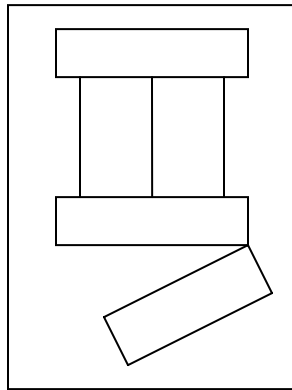
EXERCISE 3: DRAWING BRICKS

Objectives:

1. Participants learn how difficult it is to transmit information using only words
2. Participants able to compare the ease of one- as against two-way communication.

Procedure:

The following drawing was used for the exercise.



- a. Participants were divided into 3 groups of two each, except for one group which had 3 members. Members of each group were made to sit back to back.
- b. One member in each group was given the above drawing with the following instructions:
 - Not to show the picture to the other member(s)
 - Describe verbally what he/she sees in the picture
 - Not to gesture, turn around, nor answer questions

The rest of the group were asked to draw what were told. After giving enough time, the drawings were collected.

(cont'd)

EXERCISE 3: DRAWING BRICKS (cont'd)

c. In the next phase, the same picture was given to the same member who described the first picture. Members were sitting back to back. The following were the instructions:

- Not to show the picture to the other members
- Describe verbally what he/she sees in the picture
- Can answer questions from the others, but still cannot gesture or turn around

The rest of the group were asked to draw what were told. After giving enough time, the drawings were collected.

The various diagrams were compared and the lesson discussed. The following questions were asked the group:

- What has been the difficulty in the exercise?
- What could have assisted in your ability to follow instructions?

LEARNINGS

The lessons generated from the exercise were as follows:

1. Some verbal instructions were not clear.
2. The inability to ask questions made it very difficult for other members to clarify the instructions.
3. In the next phase, the ability to ask questions allowed some members to clarify instructions and follow instructions properly.
4. Two way communication allows better understanding of messages within the group and leads to achievement of the set task.

Communication as a Gift Parcel

The concept of communication was further deepened by introducing it as a gift parcel which once unwrapped reveals a bunch of aspects.

A facilitator should be conscious of each of these aspects. Each message...

- has a content or subject matter
- contains a certain self-revelation or information about the sender, whether intentional or not intentional
- indicates the relationship between the sender and the receiver
- has an element of an appeal or attempt to influence the other person (receiver)

Example: Sender calls the receiver a “villager”, a term considered derogatory nowadays.

- | | | |
|-----------------|---|------------------------------------|
| Content | - | villager |
| Self-revelation | - | sender is an urban person |
| Relationship | - | sender is superior to the receiver |
| Appeal | - | receiver should obey the sender |

Visualisation

The eyes receive 83% of the information coming our way. This emphasises the importance of sight as a channel to communicate messages.

Visuals as a tool for facilitation of discussions are important because without visuals:

1. Contributions are not systematically taken up.
2. While one topic is being treated, discussion can jump to the next.
3. A great deal of concentration is required in order to keep track of discussions.
4. Conflicting participants get into disagreements and lose sight of others and the topic being discussed.
5. It is not easy to come to joint decisions in a reasonable and comprehensive way (especially when a dominant person tends to make decisions disregarding others' opinion).

B. GUIDED DIALOGUE

HANDOUT 2

GUIDED DIALOGUE

When moderator or facilitator is a participant in a discussion

- ∞∞ Moderator should keep his/her contribution to the minimum
- ∞∞ Fully exhaust the participants' knowledge of and opinions on the subject
- ∞∞ Record and acknowledge every contribution
- ∞∞ Collection of statements must be continued until no further contributions are made
- ∞∞ Moderator acknowledges the participants' contributions, then s/he or herself points out relevant aspects and lets the group discuss them
- ∞∞ Moderator must evaluate contributions together with the participants. S/he must present her/his specialised knowledge in a convincing manner
- ∞∞ Always follow-up with practical applications

It was originally planned to have an exercise on guided dialogue to further illustrate the principles of successful moderation, but because of reduced number of training hours this was not done.

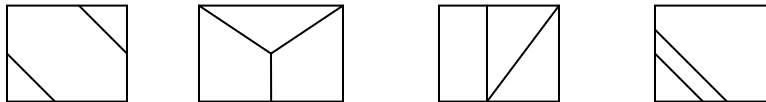
C. GROUP DYNAMICS AND COMMUNICATION

EXERCISE 4: COOPERATIVE SQUARES

Objective: Participants experience and analyse some of the elements of cooperation, for individuals to look at their own behaviour when working in a group.

Procedure:

a. Participants were divided into 2 groups, 4 members per group. Four paper squares were prepared for each group, cut into pieces as shown below. Each member shall be given an envelope with some pieces of the cut squares inside.



b. The following instructions were given:

“Each of you will have an envelope which has pieces of papers for forming squares. When I give the signal to begin, the task of each group is to form 4 squares of equal sizes. There are two important rules:

- 1) No one may speak or signal – the task must be done in silence
- 2) No one may take or ask for a piece from any other person, but they may give pieces to others”

The task was completed when each individual has before her or him a perfect square of the same sizes as those in front of the other members.

c. After the exercise, the participants were asked the following review questions:

- What happened? Was the task achieved quickly? What were the difficulties?
- Did anyone feel frustrated; broke the rules? How did the group handle it?
- What roles did the different members play in the group?

LEARNINGS

The lessons generated from the exercise were as follows:

1. The task was too long to accomplish.
2. It felt frustrating to see that part of one's square is with another member, but one could not take it.
3. The inability to communicate made the task difficult.
4. Individuals were initially concentrating on one's work and afterwards started helping each other.
5. There had been greater tendency to take rather than give.
6. At some point, members start looking at one person, and giving him/her pieces, to help him/her make perfect square,
7. Some just kept quiet when difficulty to form the square started

Based on the above experiences, participants identified what factors would be important for a group to achieve a task:

1. Observation of other member's need is important in order to be able to support him/her.
2. No one person has the complete answer/idea to perform a group task or solve a group problem. Contributions/ideas of each member can be critical to solving a problem
3. Sharing strengthens unity in a group as this assures each member of their individual abilities and encourages interaction
4. Sharing contributes to consensus building
5. Sharing saves time
6. Sharing encourages further exploration of alternatives or options for solutions and helps achieve group goal
7. Leadership qualities come out and assist group work.

EXERCISE 5: ROPE SQUARE

Objectives:

1. Participants how groups work facing a difficult task
2. Participants are made aware of how people adopt different roles in a group

Procedure:

- a. A piece of rope was tied so that it formed a circle, sufficiently long so that 6 people were able to hold onto the rope with both hands. One member acted as observer.
- b. The 6 participants were asked to form a circle and blindfolded. The rope was dropped in the middle of the circle. They were asked to turn around 3 times and then instructed to form a perfect square with the rope, with everybody holding on to the rope.
- c. Debriefing questions:
 - Who felt frustrated? What has been the experience for each one?
 - Who took the lead? Where there other who tried taking the lead?
 - Where the instructions given out by other group members clear?
 - What did the experience told as about group dynamics?

LEARNINGS

The exercise had been enjoyable as it was very useful for generating practical lessons on group dynamics. They were as follows:

1. The blindfold disoriented some members as regards physical directions (e.g. where right or left was, how far to move), thus, making it difficult to follow even the simplest instructions given by leaders.
2. Initially, many individuals were giving simultaneous directions, some conflicting, and this confused other members.

3. Some instructions did not coincide with members' understanding, thus, were not followed.
4. Eventually, one person came out to be the leader, providing a "vision", distributing people and making sure each one understood the instructions.
5. Confidence among members started when each one understood what they needed to do as a group and as individuals.
6. Consensus started to be built among members and individual effort to assist in the common task became apparent.

The exercise also brought out different characteristics of members or roles in a group:

1. Some individuals followed instructions "by leader" and encouraged other members to follow.
2. Some individuals made sure everybody was on board.
3. Some individuals just followed the instructions of the "accepted" leader.
4. Some individuals admitted they had an idea to solve the task, and cooperated with the instructions because they were consistent with their idea.
5. Some individuals had an idea, tried implementing them by giving instructions but these were not always followed.

The Trainer complemented the identification of group roles with a list of character types, encouraging members to understand these differences in order to guide them in handling group dynamics::

1. I like to lead a group from the start
2. I like to sit back and wait for someone to take the lead; only when I know others position will try to influence events.
3. I do not like to make direct contributions to group discussions, but prefer to do things
4. quietly, building alliances with others
5. I am easy going and let others run the show. Only when things go against my wishes will I intervene
6. I prefer not to take the lead, but rather to carry out practical tasks

Finally, the topic on Group Dynamics and Communication was ended with a distribution of a handout on the 4 stages of group development. The emphasis was on the critical need to understand that group goes through different stages in their organisational life, and would have to be assisted on their various group-building requirements at every stage.

HANDOUT 3

THE FOUR STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

FORMING

1. Group is not yet a group, but a set of individuals.
2. Individuals want to establish personal identity within the group and make an impression.
3. Participation is limited as individuals get familiar with the setting, the facilitator and each other.
4. Individuals begin to focus on task at hand and discuss its purpose.
5. The group is essentially evolving around ground rules on which future decisions and actions will be based.

STORMING

1. Characterised by intra-group conflicts and lack of unity.
2. Preliminary ground rules on purpose, leadership, and behaviour are damaged.
3. Individuals can become hostile toward each other, and express their individuality by pursuing or revealing personal agendas.
4. Friction increases, rules are broken, arguments can happen.
5. But, if successfully handled, this stage leads to new and more realistic setting of objectives, procedures, and norms.

NORMING

1. Characterised by overcoming tensions and by developing group cohesion in which norms and practices are established.
2. Members accept the group & accept each other's differences.
3. Group allegiance develops and group strives to maintain it.
4. Development of group spirit, harmony becomes important.

PERFORMING

1. Characterised by full maturity and maximum productivity
2. Reached by successfully completing previous 3 stages
3. Members take on roles to fulfil group activities since they now have learnt to relate to one another
4. Roles become flexible and functional
5. Group energy channelled into identified tasks
6. New insights and solutions begin to emerge

D. FACILITATION

Participants were enjoined to express their thoughts on who a facilitator was. Then from their contributions, the Trainer picked the elements that can lead to a clear definition of a facilitator.

HANDOUT 4

FACILITATOR

Individual responsible for guiding a group through a process in order to accomplish a specific task or achieve a specific goal or outcome.

The facilitator does not manage the content or task (what the group is meant to accomplish, but the **GROUP PROCESS**)

After clarifying that a facilitator manages group processes, participants were asked about their understanding of each of the elements of group process. The Trainer complemented with points that would complete the concepts for the participants. The result was as follows:

- 1. Group Dynamics:** The individuals who constitute the group, their personalities, behaviour, ideologies, role they play in the group
- 2. Interaction:** Manner by which people relate to each other
- 3. Group Norms:** Principles, guidelines, rules, and standards that the group agree to follow
- 4. Climate and Methods:** Location of the discussion/event, facilities, and logistics to be utilised
- 5. Tools and Structure:** Background investigation, organisation of meetings/discussion, networking, feedback, monitoring and evaluation

Next, participants were asked about their understanding of each of the basic responsibilities of a facilitator. The Trainer complemented with points that would complete the concepts for the participants. The result was as follows:

- 1. Clarifying Objectives:** Assist people to develop an agenda or make people understand the agenda/task.
- 2. Ensure Full Participation:** Allow all views to be raised not only from those willing to talk but from those who tend to be quiet or marginalised within the group.

3. Stay On Track: Keep discussions going without deviating from the task or objectives; do not allow external influence that are not relevant; keep people focused on the task or topic under discussion

4. Stay On Time: Keep to the agreed schedule, but, be flexible especially if the need is critical to the achievement of the task.

5. Clarifying Understanding: Ensure that everybody has the same information/message; do not assume that one idea once said has been understood.

6. Ensure Commitment To Action: Employ methods of decision-making that is participatory (e.g. voting) so that each member feels she contributed to the decision; agree on

- What the action will be
- Who will do the action
- How the action will be conducted
- With whom the action will be conducted
- Where the action will take place
- With what resources it will be conducted
- Identify and agree on follow-up mechanisms

7. Recap: Asses commitment to action; summarize agreements as well as the major points of discussion that led to the agreement.

EXERCISE 6: FACILITATION CHALLENGES

Objective: Participants get to practise facilitation and brainstorm on the challenges of facilitation.

Procedure:

Two groups were formed and a facilitator was appointed for each group. The following instructions were given:

- a. Discuss your experiences as facilitators or participants in a facilitated group sessions. Identify the most difficult facilitation challenges.
- b. List the top 4 facilitation challenges.

LEARNINGS

Several lessons on process were generated from the exercise.

1. Do not allow one position of a contributor to be repeated more than two times. This bores your other participants and delays the process. Find a way of politely cutting in.
 - a. Summarise his/her point. Example, "Excuse me, Mr. X, let me see if I get you right..."
 - b. Validate his/her point with other members. Example, "If I may, Mr. Y do you agree with the point that was just raised on...?"
2. As a facilitator, also avoid repeating positions more than once unless in situation where you sense the need to clarify the points.
3. In a visualised discussion, once an idea is already in front or stated on the board, no one owns that idea. It is for the group now to discuss on the merits and demerits of the idea. "Personalising" the idea or continuously attaching an idea to one member of the group (i.e. the contributor) can only lead to:
 - a. Defensiveness of the original contributor, eventually tension in the group;
 - b. Inhibits other members from examining the pros and cons of the idea; and,
 - c. Lack of commitment to the decision made especially if it centred around one member's contribution.
4. A facilitator should not challenge a contributor's idea, but, should rather generate comments from other members of the group.
5. A facilitator should avoid giving his/her ideas before others' contributions. Ideas from members of the group should be exhausted first before the facilitator pose his/her own idea as a suggestion for the group to consider in brainstorming.
6. Each contribution should be always be referred to the facilitator who would throw this to the group as a question.

E. HANDLING DIFFICULT INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS

Participants were divided into three groups and were asked to reflect on their experiences in group discussions/meetings. They were to identify those character types that posed difficulties for the group to reach its objective. The following were the results:

1. Quick- tempered
2. Habitual late comers
3. Habitual absentee who tends to delay and throw back decision-making because of the gap in his/her knowledge created by absences from discussions
4. Seems to know everything

5. Always agree to any decision
6. Does not reveal his/her real views
7. Always disagree perhaps due to his/her dislike for the speaker/facilitator, need to always challenge someone else's idea, or belief that he/she is always right
8. Opinion leader
9. Talkative
10. Sleepers
11. Lazy people who refuse tasks
12. Not true to his commitment
13. Dominating in discussions
14. Never participate in discussion
15. Drunkards
16. Disinterested individuals
17. Making unnecessary movements
18. Undecided contributor

HANDOUT 5

BEHAVIORS THAT HINDER A GROUP DISCUSSION

The Silent Type

May be simply quiet by nature and or may not want to be part of the process

The Monopolizer

Full of ideas, usually first and most frequent to speak. This person's confidence can intimidate or unduly influence others. May tend to repeat points.

The Intimidator

Forcefully spoken, judgmental, has strong opinions; to this person the answer is obvious; often critical of others; tend not to listen

The Nice Guy

Always want to please everyone; agreeable; hesitant to take a position.

The Unhappy Camper

Negative, looks for fault with the process and/or others' ideas.

After discussing the various types of behaviours, participants were asked to classify their first listing under each type, thus:

Silent Type: Does not reveal views, sleepers, never participate in discussions

Monopolizer: Seems to know everything, always disagree, dominating in discussions

Intimidator: Always disagree, dominating in discussions

Nice Guy: Does not reveal views

Unhappy Camper: Always disagree

EXERCISE 7: PREVENTING & RESPONDING TO DIFFICULT BEHAVIORS

Objective: Participants get to practise facilitation, especially dealing with difficult behaviours

Procedure: a. Participants were told that they are doing a role play. Their group is a part of a non-government organisation whose has for several years talked about initiating an employee-published newsletter. Last year a newsletter was closed to being mounted, but the idea was dropped apart during a time of downsizing. It was felt that management did not see it as a priority. Some employees who had supported it left and others lost interest.

They were invited to a meeting to give input that will be used to design a newsletter. They were asked to discuss what steps should be taken to start the newsletter and what the contents should be.

b. Each participant was secretly given their roles to play in a sheet of paper. They constituted: The "Silent Type", The "Monopoliser", The "Intimidator", The "Unhappy Camper". One participant was told to play himself and another one to play The Facilitator

LEARNINGS

Some observations on the exercise were:

1. The facilitator started the discussion by setting workshop guidelines with participants. However, he was unable to make individuals abide by the same rules (e.g. allowing somebody to finish presenting his/her ideas before starting to talk).
2. The facilitator was unable to control the difficult individuals who constantly raised their disinterest on the task and/or playful
3. Although the facilitator listened to individual complaint, he did not continue to address each identified problem.
4. The facilitator should have had shown more confidence in harnessing consensus among participants
5. He should have clarified and generated agreement on the objectives, expected outputs, and agenda for the workshop.
6. He should have done, as a first step, an exercise on expectations and fears from participants to air out any misgivings on the task.

After the exercise, the participants were enjoined to list down appropriate responses to the various difficult behaviours.

The Silent Type

- a. Call on them. Encourage them to talk. Ask them questions directly.
- b. Employ methods that would generate ideas even from them. Example, Idea Cards, writing on the sand in symbols
- c. Talk to them during breaks or outside the meeting to encourage them to talk
- d. Investigate on the reason for which they behave as such. Example, talk to opinion leaders, key informants)
- e. Give them a Speaker's role during exercises

The Monopoliser

- a. Confront them in a polite manner
- b. Do not show superiority of knowledge as a facilitator
- c. Invite other participants to give their views on this person's position/issue
- d. In the case of the Chiefs, pay a visit to him/her before the meeting. Convince the Chief about the need for a participatory process in achieving the aims of the meeting. During the meeting, politely remind him of your agreement, especially if he has started dominating the meeting.

The Intimidator

- a. Confront them in a polite manner
- b. Give them roles to play in order to make them feel important and to engage their time.
- c. Use proverbs or role plays to highlight the adverse impact of their behaviour.

The Nice Guy

- a. Encourage them to state their position, for instance the basis of their responses or ask the disadvantages of identified position/option
- b. Employ methods that would generate ideas even from them. Example, Idea Cards, writing on the sand in symbols

The Unhappy Camper

- a. Give them an important role in the meeting
- b. Clarify and reiterate the background and objectives of the meeting
- c. Talk to them outside the meeting and encourage their participation.

The Trainer also emphasised the importance of preparing group members on the environment of the meeting. The following steps should be conducted at the very start of the meeting:

1. Clarify Objectives

Ensure that everybody understands the objectives of the group for the meeting

2. Clarify the Role of the Facilitator

Explain that you are there to assist in developing issues and reaching a consensus; Project yourself as a neutral person

3. Provide an Overview of the Agenda/Programme Schedule

Present and validate the steps you would undertake throughout the meeting

4. Develop Team Agreements

Let each member answer the question, "What I would not like to happen in this meeting?" Examples:

- * Nobody should dominate the meeting with their ideas
- * People should tolerate other's views
- * Everybody should participate actively
- * Address your issues to the facilitator
- * Allow one person to finish talking before raising another issue or reaction
- * Be mindful of the aims of the group
- * Minimise the disturbance from the mobile phone.

Participants were divided again into 3 teams. Each team was given a case(s) of difficult group behaviour(s) and they were tasked to indicate responses to these behaviours as facilitators. Below were the teams' responses to the cases.

A. Passive Group

- Participants have difficulties in switching from lectures on theoretical issues, to practical and active group work;
- Participants feel that too much is demanded from them and do not know how to approach their task;
- Participants are exhausted and tired

Responses:

- a. Assign roles to the passive individuals
- b. Encouraged them to be involved
- c. Motivate them and direct their energies
- d. Give energisers when they are tired
- e. Introduce a break or adjournment for another meeting schedule (if necessary)

B. Deviations, Never-Ending Discussions

- The topic is not important to the participants and they manifest the lack of interest by kidding, making irrelevant contributions, critical remarks, etc.

Responses:

- a. Talk to people individually and in private to find out what is bothering them
 - b. Help address the issue if it's related to the meeting content and process
 - c. Conduct proper consultations before the meeting especially regarding the background of the meeting, aims, and how people relate to the aims
 - d. Give proper responsibilities to distractive people to focus their energies
- Participants are not used to working with a team especially if they come from situation in which authoritarian or hierarchical structure dominates.

Responses:

- a. Recognise their position as influential individuals
- b. Give them important roles, so that other members would also see the importance of the meeting

C. Aggressive Group

- Conflicts of interest between factions resulting to participants not listening to each other, at times, attacking one another.

Responses:

- c. Project yourself as a neutral person
- d. Provide an overview of the agenda
- e. Develop Team Agreement
- f. Conduct a separate group meeting with the aggressive personalities to discuss their issues
- g. Place individuals with differing interest into sub-groups

F. QUESTION AND ANSWER

The session on Question and Answer was discussed as an important method used by the facilitator to establish a productive dialogue in a group. Handouts provided highlighted the following:

- a. One of the essential requirements of a good facilitator is the ability to ask questions and react to answers in a way that enrich the dialogue and move it towards the defined aim;
- b. There are many purposes for which the facilitator asks questions; and,
- c. Forms of question that is either good or bad.

HANDOUT 6

PURPOSES A FACILITATOR ASKS QUESTIONS

- ∞∞ **Integrate existing knowledge of participants**
- ∞∞ **Stimulate exchange of experiences**
- ∞∞ **Have a problem-situation described**
- ∞∞ **Have solutions elaborated**
- ∞∞ **Ask about opinions**
- ∞∞ **Check understanding**
- ∞∞ **Evaluate situation**

HANDOUT 7

GOOD QUESTIONS

- ∞∞ **Are concise, including one idea**
- ∞∞ **Are understandable**
- ∞∞ **Do not pre-empt the answer**
- ∞∞ **Allow for differentiated answer**
- ∞∞ **Enforce reflection**
- ∞∞ **Are answered voluntarily and with advantage**

BAD QUESTIONS

- ∞∞ **Yes/No questions; a differentiated answer is not possible**
- ∞∞ **Rhetoric questions; they do not ask for an answer, as the answer is already contained in the questions**
- ∞∞ **Suggestive questions; they propose an answer**
- ∞∞ **Alternative questions; they only allow for the choice among alternatives offered**
- ∞∞ **Teacher's questions; they only allow "right" or "wrong" answers**
- ∞∞ **"Trick" questions; they are purposefully misleading as they suggest a "wrong" answer**

An exercise was conducted to deepen understanding on the qualities of good and bad questions. Participants were placed in buzz pairs and tasked to identify an example of a bad question and a good question. The answers were discussed in plenary and clarifications were made.

A handout on Dealing With Answers were also distributed providing hints on how a facilitator can respond to the following types of answers from participants in a workshop:

- a. Answers which are wrong
- b. Incomplete answers
- c. Unclear answers
- d. Answers which do not belong to the question discussed
- e. Answers which are premature
- f. No answer- silence

V.3 MODULE 3: PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IN COLLABORATIVE FOREST MANAGEMENT

The topics treated in the module included Participation: Concepts and Principles, Semi-Structured Interview, Seasonal Calendar, and Community Mapping, Analyzing Options, Decision-Making, and Monitoring and Evaluation. Several practise exercises were implemented to allow participants not only to understand the concepts but more importantly enable them to practise the tools introduced.

A. PARTICIPATION: CONCEPT AND PRINCIPLES

Participants went through a brainstorming of what they know as participation. They were also asked to raise the advantages and disadvantages of participation. The following was a consolidation of the ideas generated:

Participation is the active involvement of the target community/group and other stakeholders in the required processes that will help achieve a common agreed development goal. These processes include planning and consensus-building on the goal and the tasks needed to achieve the goal, implementation of the tasks, and the monitoring and evaluation of the tasks.

Some Principles of Participation:

- Contribution of ideas from each individual
- Understanding and acceptance of diverse ideas
- Sharing of ideas to build on knowledge

A handout on principles of participation was distributed and discussed.

HANDOUT 8

PRINCIPLES OF PARTICIPATION

Defined Methodology and Systematic Learning Process

The focus is on cumulative learning by all the participants, which include both professional trainees and local people.

Multiple Perspectives

Recognises that different individuals and groups make different evaluations of situations, which lead to different actions.

Group Learning Process

Recognition that the complexity of the world will only be revealed through group analysis and interaction

Context-Specific

Approaches are flexible enough to be adapted to suit each new set of conditions and actors.
(cont'd)

PRINCIPLES OF PARTICIPATION (cont'd)

Facilitating Experts and Stakeholders

The methodology is concerned with the transformation of existing activities to try to improve people's situation. The role of the external "expert" or facilitator is to help people carry out their own study and so achieve something

Leading To Change

Participatory process leads to debate about change, and debate changes the perceptions of the actors and their readiness to contemplate action (dialogue).

To enhance the awareness of participants on the varied ways with which participation has been interpreted and used by different people, a sorting exercise was introduced. The participants were divided into two groups, each group given a set of labels for the different typologies of participation. They were to sort these typologies from the least participatory to the one with highest degree of participation. The exercise made them to discuss the possible differences, at the end of which the Trainer provided a handout describing each of the following typologies.

1. Passive Participation
2. Participation in Information Giving
3. Participation by Consultation
4. Participation for Material Incentives
5. Functional Participation
6. Interactive Participation
7. Self-Mobilisation

The Trainer gave an overview of the various participatory methods that can be used with the communities. These are the following:

1. Semi-Structured Interview (SSI)
2. Diagramming
 - a. Resource Mapping
 - b. Social mapping
 - c. Transect Walks
 - d. Time Lines/Historical Profile
 - e. Seasonal Calendar
 - f. Daily Routine
 - g. Venn Diagram
3. Ranking / Scoring
 - a. Preference or Pair-Wise Ranking
 - b. Matrix Scoring
 - c. Wealth Ranking and Well-being Analysis

In consideration of the time limitations, participants were made aware that the Module could only explore the concepts and steps to SSI, Resource/Community Mapping, Seasonal Calendar, and Preference or Pair Wise Ranking. Nevertheless, a handout was distributed giving a definition of the above methods.

B. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW (SSI)

The following definition of SSI was suggested to participants after obtaining their own understanding of the concept:

“Guided conversation in which only the topics are pre-determined and new questions or insights arise as a result of the discussion and visualised analyses.”

Thereafter, a 9-point sensitive interviewing guide was presented and elaborated. The 9 points were as follows:

1. Prepare as a Team and agree on a Team Contract
2. Use a checklist or Interview Guide
3. Use visualisation methods to enhance participation and dialogue
4. Listen and learn
5. Ask open-ended questions using the six helpers (Who?, What?, Why?, Where?, When?, How?)
6. Probe responses carefully
7. Judge responses (facts, opinions, rumours)
8. Verify through Triangulation (cross-checking)
9. Record responses and observations fully

Several exercises were implemented to deepen understanding of the above interview points.

Development of a Checklist Guide

To introduce and practise participants in the development of an SSI checklist guide, 3 groups were formed and were asked to prepare a guide to *“find out how communities relate to the forest areas”*. Outputs were presented in plenary and listed as follows:

1. Resources in the forest and how people utilise them
2. Who utilises forest/resources and for what
3. Perception of forest ownership
4. Legal framework covering socio-economic activities
5. Culture/traditional/religious practices
6. Importance of forest to the community
7. Benefits from the forest
8. Livelihood activities of household members
9. Role they play in conserving forest
10. Community perception on the roles of other stakeholders

In raising guide questions on benefits derived from the forest, participants agree that the following could be explored:

- differences between benefits obtained in the past and present times
- note changes in benefits
- identify what caused the changes
- explore alternatives in utilising forest resources for higher/sustainable benefits

Sensitive Questioning

Two exercises were implemented to practise sensitive questioning.

EXERCISE 8: What's Wrong With The Questions?

Objective: Participants get to learn what are ambiguous and leading questions.

Procedure: The following questions were posted on a flipchart. Each participant was asked to read one question and assess what was wrong with the question.

- a. Is it true that it is difficult to get your cattle to the veterinary clinic?
- b. How do you get your medicine?
- c. Wouldn't you prefer to grow improved potato varieties?
- d. What do you as a local agent?
- e. Isn't the new health post wonderful?
- f. Do you sow seeds in a straight row?
- g. How do you find the school?
- h. Shouldn't you cover your waste storage pot?

LEARNINGS

Generally, participants were able to rightly assess the questions for their ambiguity and tendency to be leading. Nevertheless, it was emphasised that there could not be an absolutely incorrect or correct question. It would all depend on the stage of the interview, the topic, and the context. They just need to word their questions carefully.

The second exercise dealt with a practise on interviewing based on one of the main topics from the formulated interview checklist. Three groups were formed, each group having an interviewer, an informant who was supposed to be a farmer, and an observer. The aim of the interview is to assess the level of awareness on forest conservation and accompanying problems. The interviewer was asked to generate information on "livelihood activities of household members". They were asked to try out some guide questions such as,

- What are your activities as farmers?
- How was it like in the past?
- How do you see the future?

The observer was to write down the questions asked and answers generated. After giving sufficient time, the groups were called to a plenary and the experiences assessed. The following issues were raised:

1. Generally, the interviews generated information on level of awareness and problems encountered by farmers.
2. Many of the questions were closed-ended. Participants were cautioned that there would be instances that an informant would only give a straight-forward answer, without elaborating. In such cases, they should be prepared with a follow-up question.
3. There was a tendency to use words/concepts that may not be familiar with the informant (e.g. management). Such concepts should be broken down in its simplest terms to generate the appropriate situation on the ground.
4. Informants should be allowed to ask questions.
5. There were still some difficulties in using a semi-structured interview with no guide questions. Participants were told that it would only be through practise that the skill could be sharpened.

Judging and Cross-Checking

Participants were asked about their understanding of concepts such as fact, opinion, and rumour. Their responses were close to the following definitions:

Fact – a commonly agreed time and place-specific truth

Opinion – a person or a group's view on a topic

Rumour – unsubstantiated information from an unknown source

EXERCISE 9: Fact, Opinion, and Rumour

Objective: Participants are encouraged to differentiate between fact, opinion, and rumour.

Procedure: Three spots were marked, Fact, Opinion, and Rumour, respectively. Participants were asked to step on the spot which they believe characterised a statement as pointed out by Trainer from the following case.

"You'd like to know a bit about our village? Well, there are 420 households (F), two shops and the best mosques (O) in the Region. Most farmers do not have enough (O/F) land. They grow millet and groundnuts (F), and maize as a second crop. Fruit is very important (F). For some their main source of food in dry season. But now more people are selling bananas and water melon (F). The price is high, and because of what I see as the lack of rain (R) this year it will stay high (O). But we have to overcome our traditions of sharing fruit. They say (R) it happened with little trouble in Village A, but in Village B (R) there were problems between the old and the young men."

LEARNINGS

The exercise, implemented with a game format, was enjoyable for the participants at the same time that it generated debate over the character of some statements. At the end, they were told that certainty of information is always the best principle to follow. As such, cross-checking or validation of information has to be carried out.

C. SEASONAL CALENDAR

A handout given to participants defined a seasonal calendar as follows:

“Used to illustrate trends and changes in activities and/or events over the course of a single day, a week, or a year, whatever is appropriate.”

Data or information that can be generated in a seasonal calendar:

- a. Rainfall patterns: days of rain per month, comparing the present and 20 years ago for a particular area
- b. Price trends: amount of harvest and price changes, in a year or number of years
- c. Income and expenditure: income and expenditures for every item, in a year and for men and women
- d. Health and Climate: rate of illness and frequency of rains, in a year

To learn more on the tool and practise its implementation, participants were divided into 4 groups and each group assigned to do a seasonal calendar to:

1. Assess the relationship of income and expenditure, and what constitute biggest part of expenditure for a rural farmer;
2. Assess the relationship of income and expenditure, and what constitute biggest part of expenditure for an urban-based civil servant;
3. Assess the relationship of forest degradation in Yaya Forest Reserve, with growth of settlement growth, and depletion of water bodies over 20 years; and,
4. Assess level of awareness on causes of diseases and what can be done to improve health levels.

Annex 5 shows the outputs of the 4 groups.

LEARNINGS

Participants reported the following lessons from the exercise:

1. The tool was able to provide valuable information that may not be easily recognized with other research methods. The seasonal calendar can be used as take-off points for relevant discussions and probing.
2. The tool was able to provide a clear picture on the expenditure patterns of different individuals. It was clear how a commercial farmer could actually be earning more than an urban-based male salaried worker. The calendars also emphasized the seasonality of expenditures that for a farmer is greatest during the planting season.

3. A clear method of scaling is definitely required in order to generate information that would be understandable to both the interviewer and informant.
4. The tools could easily be used to raise awareness of people on the impact of human activity on forest resources including sources of water, as well as the relationship of rainfall to health and hygiene practices.

D. COMMUNITY MAPPING

A handout given to participants defined community mapping as follows:

A tool in which community members are empowered to analyse and better understand their own condition in a visual/diagrammatic manner. It can start by asking the community members to draw a map of their community on the ground, using local/available materials. While drawing the map, the facilitator can ask questions relevant to the aims of the group.”

Possible objectives of a mapping exercise are :

- a. Identification of problems, constraints, and needs in the community
- b. Identification of local resources and potentials in the community
- c. Identification of socio-economic factors with regard to the first two objectives
- d. The historical development trends of the settlement scheme.

Key questions that may be asked in relation to the above objectives are:

- a. How was the historical development of the community?
- b. What are the local resources?
- c. What are the constraints for the exploitation of resources?
- d. What are the problems as perceived by different groups?
- e. What are the causes of these problems?
- f. Which are the most pressing problems as perceived by different groups?
Ranking of problems.
- g. What are the aspirations of different groups?
- h. How can the identified problems be addressed using local resources and through community self-help?

To learn more on the tool and practise its implementation, participants were tasked to implement a community mapping exercise on the town of Odumasi, a sub-district of Sunyani Municipality with an approximate population of 3,000. Four of the members were to be the informants having greater familiarity with Adantia. The rest were to be interviewers using the above key questions as guide. One member was tasked as observer.

LEARNINGS

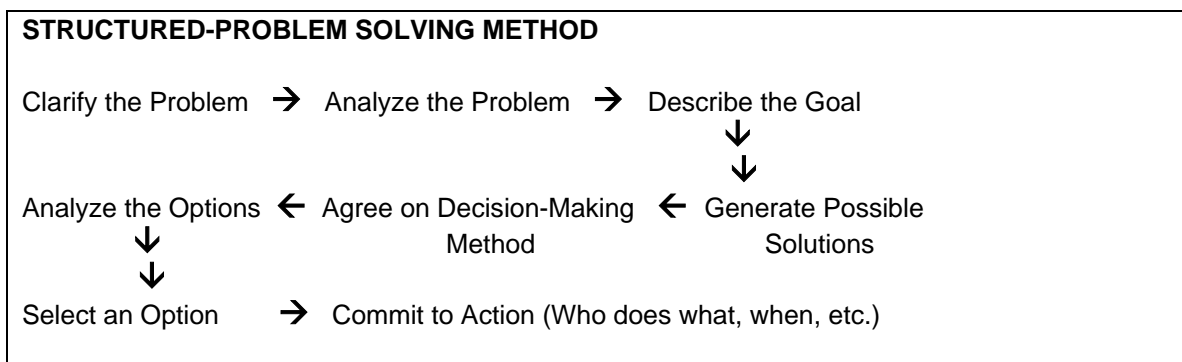
The exercise was performed at the yard of the PAFORM project office. Participants reported the following lessons from the exercise:

1. The tool was very practical.
2. As questions were asked, ideas for follow-up questions are easily identified, almost like in a dialogue
3. The exercise though did not lead to a completed community map. Questions were asked and responded to without referring to a community map. The interviewers expressed the difficulty in referring back to the map when answers to their questions have seemed appropriate and allowing them to think and ask the follow-up question. They also stated that not enough preparation to think through the interview guide was given.
4. The observer identified many leading questions that were only targeted to obtain what the interviewers wanted the informants to say. For instance, a question was asked, "What causes bushfire in your area?" or "Is it true that young men are responsible for starting fires in the forest?".

The Trainer explained the utility of a community map in clarifying the relationship of economic activities and available resources and the way community members utilize them, including destructive means such as burning the forest. The map can also provide a lead to some gender concerns within the dynamics of community decision-making.

D. ANALYSING OPTIONS

Participants were enjoined to adopt a structured-problem solving approach in their interaction with the communities. The following framework was introduced and discussed:



This method was explained to be similar to the process of planning with the community, thus, should be done in a participatory manner.

The tools so far introduced were expected to assist in identifying and analysing problems and generating options for solving those problems. Analyses of these options are necessary steps to ensure careful selection of solution. The following methods to analyze solutions were introduced:

1. Force Field Analysis: A tool to assess the potential success of a change and to identify what can be done to aid its success. The concept considers change to be accompanied by driving forces, pushing a change towards success and restraining forces that limit success.

If an option is finally chosen, the information from the Force Field Analysis should then be used in implementation of the idea. The driving forces should be promoted and the action plan has to be drawn up to lessen the restraining factors.

2. Pros And Cons Analysis: The tool is useful in assessing the positives/advantages and negatives/disadvantages of a certain change option or solution.

Participants were engaged to practise one of the above tools by working out solutions to a problem identified during the community mapping exercise. Three groups were formed, each group underwent 2 steps:

- a. Identify 3 alternative solutions to “reduction in crop yield” in Odumasi
- b. Choose one Options Analysis method and assess the options identified in (a).

OUTCOMES:

The 3 groups came out with almost the same set of options to solving “reduction in crop yield” in Odumasi. The 2 common options were:

1. Application of chemical fertilizer; and,
2. Use of improved seed varieties.

The solutions exclusive to each group were application of organic fertilizer, use of correct crop spacing, and crop rotation, respectively.

The pros and cons analysis were applied by the 3 groups and a discussion ensued on the results of analysis. It was basically agreed that application of chemical fertilizers provide the fastest results, but it is also has disadvantages. The rainfed nature of cropping makes fertilizer application difficult as wrong timing of application may result to the rain washing it off the soil. Wrong dosage of fertilizers can also damage the soil and crops all the more.

Use of improved seed variety also contributes to higher yield but the seeds are unaffordable to many farmers and many people apparently complain in the inferior taste of crops produced.

E. DECISION-MAKING TOOLS

Two tools for facilitating communities through decision-making were introduced. These were the Multi-Voting Technique and the Preference Ranking Or Pair-Wise Ranking. These tools are efficient means of choosing from a number of options and with a number of community members. Steps comprising the 2 tools have been provided in earlier handouts.

For purposes of practise on the tools, participants were asked to continue working on the various options they have laid down to increase crop yield in Odumasi. Since the participants would not allow for a Multi-Voting exercise, the 3 groups were tasked to implement the Preference Ranking method. Below are the Outcomes of the exercise.

OUTCOMES:

Group 1: Selected Use of Improved Seed Variety (IS)

	ORGANIC MANURE (OM)	CHEMICAL FERTILIZER (CF)	IMPROVED SEEDS (IS)
OM		OM	IS
CF			IS
IS			

Group 2: Selected Chemical Fertilizer Application (CF)

	CHEMICAL FERTILIZER (CF)	CORRECT CROP SPACING (CCS)	IMPROVED SEEDS (IS)
CF		CF	CF
CCS			CCS
IS			

Group 3: Selected Chemical Fertilizer Application (CF)

	CHEMICAL FERTILIZER (CF)	IMPROVED SEEDS (IS)	CROP ROTATION (CR)
CF		CF	CF
IS			IS
CR			

LEARNINGS:

1. From the presentation of each group, it was clear that different criteria dominated the respective arguments for selection. Group 1 argued on the basis of the lowest risk among all options. Group 2 argued on the basis of quick results, while Group 3, who chose the same option, argued on the basis of relative impact or greater success of the option.
2. The tool is useful not only for selecting the preferred options in a participatory manner, but, also to bring out the biases of the community in terms of criteria for selecting priority projects. This raises the need for proper documentation of the discussions that would transpire during the ranking.

E. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Time was not enough to treat the topic in an in-depth manner. A handout defining the various concepts were distributed and discussed. The Trainer cited tools that could be appropriate for conducting participatory monitoring and evaluation. These tools include those used for situation analysis.

V.4 MODULE 4: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

The module was jointly handled by the Trainer and 2 Resource Persons who facilitated learning on conflict management for one day. Exercises and role plays were extensively used for participants to gain the advantage of playing out conflict management strategies.

A. CONCEPTS, PRINCIPLES AND MANAGEMENT RESPONSES

Participants were led in a brainstorming to generate a greater understanding of conflict management, what constitutes the forest, and who are the stakeholders in the forest. Generally, each stakeholder /group has a particular interest in the forest resources, and if this interest is curtailed, conflict may arise.

The schools of thought on the existence of conflict include:

1. Functionalist – conflict is good for the dynamism and evolution of a society
2. Structuralist - conflict necessarily arise out of the structuring of a society
3. Humanist - conflict naturally exists in every individual, between individuals

Some of the factors that could bring about conflict in forest management are:

1. Inadequate compensation (to Chiefs or families) over forest land to be exploited
2. Lack of transparency over utilization of forest lands
3. Encroachment or excessive degradation of forest
4. Monopoly (i.e. restrictions by law) over utilization of forest resources
5. Misappropriation of the Social Responsibility Agreements (SRA)/benefits
6. Undefined roles in forest management

Factors to watch out for to assess signs of and preventing conflicts:

1. Communication process
2. Structures for management
3. Personal variables, such as culture

Approaches in conflict resolution can include:

1. Exercise of power
2. Observing rights and standards
3. Striking out an agreement

Outcomes of conflicts can include:

1. Retardation of development
2. Destruction of properties
3. Loss of lives
4. Displacement of people
5. High expenditures for government

An exercise to assess the understanding of participants on the types of conflicts was conducted. Three groups were formed and were given the following case study and set of questions to answer in a group:

“A youth group in Apoteri decided to produce a pamphlet showing young people how to put a condom, as part of a programme to promote safe sex practises to school children. It was funded by the Department of Health in Guyana. They wanted to use a very talented cartoonist who was in their group, and who had produced promotional materials for street kids on the same issue.

The group talked to the principals at the local high schools about the pamphlet, and gained their support to go ahead on one condition. The principals requested that the group use another cartoonist as they felt the language and pictures used in the previous materials were too controversial. After much discussion, the group agreed to the condition, and the cartoonist left the group after a huge argument.

Another artist was employed and the pamphlet was produced, and distributed throughout the schools. Feedback from the principals on the pamphlet was very positive. However, a year later, the number of school children with new STD cases recorded at the health services was the same as the previous year.”

Questions:

- a. Do you think this is an example of functional or dysfunctional group conflict? What determines functionality in this case?
- b. How do you think the original cartoonist perceived the situation?
- c. Do you think the group handled this situation well?
- d. Do you think there were alternative ways of handling the situation?
- e. How responsible is the youth group for the lack of change in behaviour of school children in relation to safe sex?

The following were the results of the exercise:

Group 1:

- a. Functional. Agreement after disagreement
- b. Dysfunctional
- c. Yes. There was consensus building
- d. Yes – Interacted with school
- e. No Impact on the child behaviour

Group 2:

- a. Functional: Argument between school/cartoonist
- b. Dysfunctional
- c. No. There was no impact because the cartoonist was embittered
- d. Yes – Advise to use decent language

Group 3:

- a. Dysfunctional
- b. Dysfunctional
- c. Dysfunctional. There was consensus but first the first cartoonist should go.
- d. Yes. First cartoonist should have been made to review his earlier work.
- e. Impact not achieved

Conflict Management Responses

An exercise of sorting was introduced in order for participants to understand the various means of responding to conflict. At the end, the outcome of the 3 groups formed was compared to expert categorization of the management styles. This was given out as in Handout 10.

HANDOUT 9

MANAGEMENT RESPONSES TO CONFLICT

FORCE

The attempt of one group to impose its interests over others
Creates hostility and resentment
Can involve threats, harassment, use of supernatural powers, peer pressure
Parties have no interest in maintaining a relationship
Outcome uncertain
Results in win lose situation

AVOIDANCE

Neglects interests of both parties by postponing decisions, retreating, using delaying tactics
Results in only a temporary solution
May seem easier than getting involved
Results in lose-lose situation is used in isolation

ACCOMODATION

Satisfies the other party's interests, while neglecting your own needs
May be used when participants are unwilling to take time
May be used when one party has more power or is willing to preserve relationships
Results in a lose-win situation

COMPROMISE

Useful for quick solutions
Both parties make a sacrifice in order to achieve a mutually workable solution
Parties must give something up in order to gain something else
Results in a sort of win-win-yet-lose-lose situation

COLLABORATION

Works to satisfy all interests and needs
Takes time so that all parties are actively and equally involved in the process
Focuses on goals and consensus agreements
Used when it is important that both parties be committed to the resolution
Results in win-win situation

B. CONFLICT ANALYSIS

To deepen their knowledge on conflict analysis, the Root Cause or Problem Tree Analysis tool was introduced to the participants. The following principles of the tool were discussed:

- a. A starter problem should be identified
- b. The cause of the starter problem should be identified as a first step, and the causes of each of the first level causes to be identified as the next step, and so on. After exhausting the causes, the effects of the starter problem should be identified.
- c. There should be no gap/jump in logic between a cause and the effect

Participants were led through an exercise in constructing a root cause analysis tree considering the problem statement, “People engaging in illegal logging“. As further exercise one group was tasked to construct a root cause analysis tree on the problem “Contractors not complying with Social Responsibility Agreement (SRA)“. The output (presented as Annex 6) was discussed in a plenary with the Trainer facilitating.

Another tool for analysing conflict is the Stakeholder or Interest Group Analysis. The guideline for conducting the analysis was explained together with an example. To wit,:

STAKEHOLDERS	ROLES	FEARS	INTERESTS	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES	STRATEGIES FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION
Who are the different interest groups in the conflict?	What do they do in the forest?	What is their particular concern at present (in relation to the activity they need to do in the forest)	What needs, interest, or motivation do they have at present (in relation to the activity they need to do in the forest)	What strengths do they possess in entering into conflict resolution or negotiation?	What weaknesses do they have as they enter into conflict resolution or negotiation?	How can their strength and weaknesses be used to arrive at conflict resolution?
1. Migrant Farmers	Use land for crop cultivation	- Limited fertile land - Low production - Hunger	- Have sufficient land to produce enough food for the family	- Plenty in number Hardworking	- Migrants with no voice in the community - Unorganized	- Educate them on rights to land - Organize them for negotiations - Motivate other parties using the potential of increasing food supply if the migrant farmers are given enough land
2. n.						

As an exercise, another group was tasked to elaborate a stakeholder analysis within the same situational framework of “Contractors not complying with Social Responsibility Agreement (SRA)”. The identification of the following critical stakeholders was done in plenary:

- a. TUC Holder/Concessionaire
- b. Fringe community
- c. Chief and elders
- d. District Assembly

Due to time constraint, the group could manage an analysis of one stakeholder and they chose Chief and elders. Their output, shown below, was discussed in plenary.

STAKEHOLDERS	ROLES	FEARS	INTERESTS	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES	STRATEGIES FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION
Chief and elders	<p>Custodians of the land</p> <p>Protect the forest from illegal activities, fires, etc.</p> <p>Make decisions</p>	<p>Forest is not managed properly by the FSD</p> <p>Mistrust of forestry officials</p>	<p>Want forests managed sustainably</p> <p>Access to forest resources to maximize social benefits for the community</p> <p>Royalties from concessions</p>	Traditional authority	<p>Potential internal power struggle</p> <p>Lack knowledge on SRA Guidelines</p> <p>Inadequate consultations with communities</p>	<p>Educate chiefs and elders on SRA guidelines</p> <p>FSD to provide assistance in SRA negotiations</p> <p>Documentation of SRA processes</p> <p>Consultation with community on projects</p>

V.5 MODULE 5: NEGOTIATIONS

Conditions for Negotiations

An exercise was introduced to initiate discussions on negotiations. A similar sorting out game was embarked on with two groups tasked to classify each of the statements handed to them as either Very Important, Important, or Not Important for successful negotiations. The debate that arose from the presentations enriched the participants' insights on the conditions necessary for negotiating conflict resolution. The consensus outcome is shown here as Handout 11.

HANDOUT 10

CONDITIONS FOR NEGOTIATIONS

VERY IMPORTANT (ESSENTIAL)

The issues are negotiable
The interest parties trust one another
The interest parties are well prepared for negotiations
All the groups directly involved in the conflict can participate in negotiations
Any agreement reached is realistic and achievable
All parties have some authority to actually make decisions
All parties are willing to resolve their conflict
No party is trying to use its power to gain unfair advantage over other parties in the negotiations
The parties are willing to compromise to some degree
The parties have some common issues and interests on which they are able to agree

IMPORTANT (USEFUL)

The interest parties are dependent on one another to some degree
An external conflict manager is available to facilitate
Agreements can be made in a short amount of time
The interest parties all feel that they have more to gain by negotiation than by other actions
It is possible to reach agreements that all parties see as fair
Interest parties have the capacity to participate in negotiations

NOT IMPORTANT

The parties are willing to stick to their positions throughout the negotiations
The interest party with the most resources is willing to help pay for transport and venue costs

The Role of Trust

Further to the discussion of conditions of negotiations, was the issue of trust. Participants were asked individually to answer two sets of questions, namely: i) Who is a person you trust and describe why you trust that person or what has he/she done that made you trust him/her?; ii) Who is a person you don't trust and describe why you don't trust that person or what has he/she done that made you lose your trust towards him/her?

The responses to the above questions, led to the whole group defining factors that can build trust and those that destroy trust. There was a consensus that these factors should be considered when working with the community in conflict management.

Factors That Build Trust.

1. Respect for one another
2. Concern for one another's welfare
3. Preparedness for self-sacrifice
4. Honesty
5. Commitment
6. Readiness to listen
7. Knowledge and wisdom
8. Consistency
9. Reliability
10. Approachability/Accommodation

Factors That Can Destroy Trust

1. Inconsistency/Non-reliability
2. Cheating
3. Dishonesty
4. Selfishness/Self-centeredness
5. Wickedness/Cruelty
6. Unfairness
7. Gossip
8. Hypocrisy/Pretense

Definition of Negotiation

The following definition of negotiations was discussed:

"A focused discussion regarding needs and interests, with the intention of finding a mutually acceptable agreement. It is a voluntary action, in which the negotiating parties structure the content of their meeting, determine the outcome of their agreements, and stipulate the methods for assuring the implementation of their final agreements."

Two sets of role plays were enacted to bring out some lessons on negotiations.

a) Role Play: Headmaster and Circuit Supervisor

Two participants were asked to prepare a role play where they would project a negotiation between two individuals. They were to play out a School Headmaster and a Circuit Supervisor discussing what project should be implemented for the school. The rest of the participants were asked to observe the role play and indicate their views on an Observer's Sheet that basically brings out the factors

that either block or enable negotiations to succeed. Below are the results of the observation.

Positions	Circuit Supervisor	Head Master
1) Underlying needs and interest	Girls' dormitory as a project	Classroom as a project
2) Behaviors that attempted to meet other person's needs, or move the negotiations towards agreement	<p>There seemed to be mutual respect</p> <p>Approach is more appealing</p> <p>Openness in physical posture</p> <p>Consistently acknowledging the points of the head master</p> <p>Firmness on applying the GETFUND guidelines for the use of the available fund</p> <p>Constant reminder of a common agreement among school authorities on the need for a dormitory</p> <p>Confidence on the consultative process that included the head master</p> <p>Gave assurance on providing for a classroom project in the next GETFUND allocation</p>	<p>There seemed to be mutual respect</p> <p>Approach is more appealing</p> <p>Willingness to trade</p>
3) Behaviors that blocked the other person, prevent him from getting what he needed, or move negotiations away from agreement	Insistence on model Secondary School for Nifa (school location)	<p>Reluctance to accept other ideas</p> <p>Closed-mindedness in pronouncements and physical posture</p>

b) Role Play: Beautiful Flower and Purple Shawl

A case study was presented to participants regarding the conflict between a traditional health worker (Mati) and a poor lady shawl maker (Salanda). They both need to use a beautiful flower for their individual purposes, the health worker to prepare a medicine for the sick, and the poor lady to produce shawls for sale. The participants were to act out in pairs, each one assuming either the health worker or the shawl maker.

The debriefing generated interesting conclusions on negotiations:

1. Range of agreements reached by the 6 pairs
 - Health worker to employ Salanda to pick the flowers
 - Health worker to employ Salanda in the clinic
 - Salanda to be trained to produce the drug for sale to the public
 - Map out allocation of flowers for purposes of shawl-making, drugs, and conservation
 - Health worker to provide food to Salanda for abandoning flowers
 - Explore sharing of benefits from the flower (i.e. obtaining the dye and then using the remaining flower parts for drugs)
2. Enabling factors:
 - Friendly approach
 - Understanding of the importance of the flower to both parties
 - Understanding of the value of human life
 - Ability to address each other's needs
 - Exploration of alternatives
 - Removing emphasis on individual interest and focusing on compromise
 - Openness to hear out each other's interest
3. Blocking factors:
 - Inadequate information on availability of flower
 - Sticking to individual positions at the initial stages

VI. EVALUATION

Five tools were used to assess progress and accomplishments from the Training. These are the Mood Meter, Daily Reflections, Module Evaluation, Final Evaluation, and Action Planning.

Mood Meter

The Mood Meter served to monitor the changes in moods during the course of the training. This tool was supposed to be an indicator of possible problems that may have to be probed with another evaluation tool. Three symbols were used to represent levels of satisfaction: Very Happy, Quite Happy, Not Happy. The participants were asked to individually place the symbol that marked their mood in the beginning of the workshop and at the end. Participants consistently marked themselves as Quite Happy throughout the workshop, with marginal deviations in some of the days.

Daily Reflection

The daily individual reflections were used to gather immediate reaction to concepts and tools introduced, participants' outlook on processes and behaviours that could affect them negatively or positively. Participants took turns summarising the daily reflections and presenting them at the start of the following day.

The feedback from these daily reflections showed a pattern of satisfaction over the treatment of modules, delivery of the trainer, and administrative arrangements. Participants reiterate, almost on a daily basis, how they value the mix of participatory tools utilised in every module.

Expressions of dissatisfaction were immediately discussed to find out ways of overcoming an unfavourable situation. These included:

1. *Some individuals observed that only a few contributed to the discussion.* The Trainer continued to encourage full participation by employing different techniques for generating ideas.
2. *Some individuals felt that a few individuals tend to dominate discussions, even in small groups.* Trainer fed back this sentiment to those noticeable individuals who happen to be those with higher positions.
3. *Some individuals complained of the lateness and absence of some of their colleagues in few sessions.* Absences in some sessions have been a constant problem in the training, and this has been attributed to "urgent duty calls". This was discussed with PAFORM management, but, there seemed to be little that could have been done about it.
4. *Some individuals complained about frequent interruptions by clients and superiors, by physical and telephone calls, to especially the managers among the participants.* Like the issue of absences, frequent interruptions

have been a constant problem in the training. Again, there seemed to be little that PAFORM management could do about it. The complaints even came from the same participants who had to be called out since this disrupted their learnings.

5. *Some individuals did not like the reduction of schedule to just 5 hours.* This has been an interesting revelation since each individual was asked to raise their views on the suggested change in schedule, and everybody expressed support for it. This would suggest that the decision to reduce the daily schedule was carried strongly by the opinions of the managers among the group.

Module Evaluation

The tool served to obtain feedback on the treatment of each Module immediately it ended.

The module on Project Cycle Management and Operational Planning has not been included although evaluation forms have been accomplished. The results indicated that the participants assessed the delivery on the concepts and skills training for Project Cycle Management and Logical Framework. However, it was clear that the objective of the module was to gain deeper understanding of the PAFORM Operational Plan only. The time would have not been enough to gain skills in the application of the methods.

Another difficulty was the inconsistency in the submission of evaluation by the participants. Thus, the responses were based on differing number of submissions per module. This is indicated in the table below highlighting the assessment for every module.

Module	Total No. Who Responded	Overall rating** (1 – 5, 5 Being Highest)	Tools Used	Technique of Trainer	Concepts Introduced	What can Be Used in Your Work?	What Should Have Been Covered?
Effective Communication and Good facilitation	5	4.2	<p>Visualization & handouts helped gain more knowledge</p> <p>Need to know what materials can be used in a non-literate environment</p>	<p>Group discussions , making each participant share ideas made the session interesting & topics better appreciated</p>	<p>Helped in understanding, relevant, can help in practical work,</p>	<p>Facilitation skills especially knowing participants well, clarifying understanding, generating ideas, handling difficult individuals.</p> <p>Role plays</p>	<p>More exercises on group dynamics and facilitation</p>

** Shown here as average for the whole group

Module	Total No. Who Respo nded	Overall rating** (1 – 5, 5 Being Highest)	Tools Used	Technique of Trainer	Concepts Introduced	What can Be Used in Your Work?	What Should Have Been Covered?
Participatory Approaches	7	4.1	Vusialization helped in logical thinking Practical	Use of exercises, small group discussions,brain storming, problem-solving helped in greater understanding & had friendly tone	SSI, Seasonal Calendar, Community Mapping are useful for work	SSI, Seasonal Calendar, Community Mapping, Options Analysis Tools are useful for work	More field work and exercises. M & E which was skipped due to change in schedule
Conflict Management	6	3.5	It was alright Lecture style training	Lecture and group exercises were good	Helped in understanding conflict analysis	Need to analyze conflict issues using problem tree, stakeholder analysis, mediation	More practical experience or more case studies
Negotiations	7	4.3	Case studies helped in understanding negotiation process	Group exercises, role plays, question and answer Were simple and straightforward Highly participatory	Conditions for negotiations will help in field work	Essential to work, especially mediating and negotiating in conflict resolution	More field exercises and difficult conflict cases

** Shown here as average for the whole group

Final Evaluation

The Final Evaluation was a form given to participants one day before the closing session. The following is a summary of the results for 8 participants, those who had consistently attended from the first to the last module. Again, the module on Project Cycle Management and Operational Planning was not included.

A. Overall Progress Rating

Rate the increase in your knowledge and skills under each module covered in the training.

MODULE	KNOWLEDGE & SKILLS RATING (1 2 3 4 5; 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest)**	
	BEGINNING OF TRAINING	AFTER THE TRAINING
Effective Communication and Good Facilitation	2.6	4.4
Participatory Approaches	2.9	4.0
Conflict Management	2.5	3.8
Negotiations	2.4	3.8

** Shown here as average for the whole group

B. Overall Assessment

Rating: 1 - 5
(Average for the Group)

Comments

TOOLS	4.5	Tools helped participants understand better and prompted more participation
CONCEPTS	4.1	Essential and useful to work, but needed more detailed understanding on some concepts
TRAINER	4.9	Approachable, very knowledgeable, used excellent training and thought-provoking methods

VENUE	2.8	Allowed for interruptions, so that venue should be changed to another place (e.g. Tamale) in order for participants to concentrate on learning
SCHEDULE	3.5	Consultations should have been done with participants before setting schedule. Changes had to be made and this affected the scope of training.
REFRESHMENTS	4.1	Refreshments were quite good

C. What Do You Think Should Be Done Better Next Time?

1. The venue should be away from Sunyani to ensure full concentration
2. Timetable should be drawn with participants
3. Training should be done during the dry season in order not to prevent achievement of planting target
4. All Range and Plantation Supervisors in the Region should be called for training
5. All topics should be covered next time.

D. As FSD Staff in CFM, What Do You Think You Need For Further Training?

1. Conflict Management, semi-structured interview, problem tree analysis
2. Institutional management skills
3. Detailed Project Design Matrix and Operational Planning
4. The same training should be repeated
5. Facilitation Skills

E. As FSD Staff in CFM, What Do You Think Should Be In Place To Help You In Your Work?

1. Motivation packages
2. Logistics and resources to facilitate community work
3. More regular meetings between PAFORM Management/staff and FSD staff to streamline implementation of project activities
4. Feedback and monitoring mechanism
5. Field training

Action Plans

Participants were asked to draw up individual action plan stating:

- a. What activities would you do for the next 6 months?
- b. What are the targets of each activity?
- c. What period would each activity to be implemented?
- d. What are the tools and methodologies to be used per activity?

The aim of the exercise was to assess their ability to consolidate their lessons from the training in a plan. This plan, when refined with PAFORM management, would also serve as a monitoring tool to assess progress of individuals on the knowledge and skills introduced in the training.

Participants requested more time to draw up their plans. It was agreed that the Sunyani District Manager would collect the accomplished plans from participants on the 23rd of June. This would be forwarded to the Deputy PAFORM Manager and onwards to the Trainer. As of the time of this report, no action plans have been received from the Project.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The course has been accepted well by the participants based on their high level of participation during the training and the results of their evaluation. However, three conditions would have prevented maximum training benefits:

- a. The adjustment of schedule from a 7-hour day to 5-hour day;
- b. The frequent distraction during the training brought about by movement in and out by some participants and receiving of mobile phone calls; and,
- c. Inconsistent attendance of some participants (at least 5 out of the total 11).

These problems have been justified by involved individuals as urgent duty calls or requirements. Even as the Trainer constantly emphasized the adverse effect of such behaviour on the learning capacities of all participants, there seemed to have been no effort on either the participants or PAFORM management to minimize them.

This difficult training environment does not contribute to good human resource investment. Subsequent training should learn from this experience and consider the peculiar work nature of FSD staff in organizing training events. The staff themselves recommended a venue away from Sunyani. This should be adopted and more preparation time devoted to choosing the right mix of management and staff to bring to training without disrupting crucial field operations.

Overall, the FSD participants identified the value of the acquired knowledge and skills to their regular work with the communities. A crucial observation made during the interactive training was that the FSD staff considers PAFORM as a distinct Project, instead of a programme to reform their forestry approach and re-orient it towards participatory/collaborative forest management.

To assist them in the integration of the participatory tools, the following suggested measures could be taken up by Project Management:

1. Mainstreaming or closer integration of regular Sunyani Forest District and PAFORM activities needs to be initiated. One crucial requirement for such an integration would be to include the District Manager in the PAFORM Management Team. This would ensure that all decisions made in the Project conform to the requirements and schedule of the District, and equally ensure that decisions are integrated in the mainstream District activities.
2. Clarity should also be made regarding the relationship between the District Office, and the Customer Service Officer and community facilitators.
3. Annual Project Work Planning should be done in coordination with Annual District Work Planning to ensure integration of activities and target for the year.

4. The FSD staff should be made to conduct the participatory approaches as a team. For instance, Plantation Supervisors who are responsible to liaise with communities should be able to participate in gathering socio-economic information needed in regular FSD work. This information-gathering can use the participatory tools of community/resource mapping, SSI, seasonal calendar etc. Managers could assist in the design and supervision of the tasks. The following system of monitoring can be adopted:
 - a. Prepare a common workplan on any field visit indicating, among others, the tool/methodology they would use for every visit. The Action Plans formulated on the last training day by individuals can form a basis for such a common workplan.
 - b. Assign roles for every tool/methodology to be conducted for the day. The concept of Team Contracts was introduced during the training. The Team can prepare such contracts outlining the expected behaviour from each member and from the whole group as they work in the field.
 - c. Assign an observer who will purposely take note of positive and negative performances/experiences of the Team. The observer should also note the group dynamics among local people.
 - d. Conduct Team Review Meetings after every field session, making use of the observer's notes and their individual reflections on what work and what did not work well. The review meetings should also identify areas for improvement.
 - e. Prepare report on every field session and the results of the review meetings. This type of reports would assist the management of the Sunyani Forest District as well as PAFORM Management to monitor the progress of staff in the field.
5. For a starter, Plantation Supervisors can participate in the socio-economic assessment planned for Tain I together with the PAFORM community facilitators.
6. Management should monitor progress of trained FSD staff and institute appropriate measures when necessary. The following are possible monitoring approaches:
 - a. Conduct joint review of the team workplans as suggested in (4) above, and its implementation. The latter can include joint discussion on the reports coming out of the team review meetings.

- b. Observe changes in behaviour, especially those behavioural patterns that can affect their effective performance as facilitators. The following have been observed among some of the participants:
 - (i) *Defensiveness of their views and positions.* Facilitators need to be accommodating, especially at the community level.
 - (ii) *Timidity to confront authority.* Confrontation, as they learned, means positively facing an issue or a person for purposes of good communication. As project staff, the facilitators should be encouraged to deal with their superiors in an open, transparent, possibly collegial manner. If this environment is provided to them, this will translate to their own pro-active behaviour with field stakeholders in authoritative positions.
7. Project Management should establish a resource base for reference materials and contacts that are relevant to upgrade their knowledge and skills in participatory approaches in forest management.
8. Project Management should plan for further training both formal and informal. Formal training can include the critical skills area of Report-Writing as well as a Refresher Course on Participatory Tools. Informal training can be in the form of periodic discussion fora on forestry issues where analytical and facilitation skills of the individuals can be sharpened.
9. Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) training can be organized as a single module and designed to produce practical M&E systems for PAFORM, the Sunyani Forest District, and with the communities.

2.4 Refresher Training of Community Facilitators & FSD Staff (January 14 to 18, 2008)

This training was ranked as a refresher training targeting C/Fs & FSD staff who had joined in the beginners training in 2006. This material can be useful for C/Fs who have experiences to interact with communities to some extent. The training consist of 4 modules, namely, 1) Facilitation of group processes, 2) Networking, 3) Participatory monitoring and evaluation and 4) Conflict management. The user of this material can follow and understand the summary of training by following each handout presented. In addition to these handouts, there are some illustrations to enhance the reader's understanding of the concept on conflict management. At the training, since the participants exchanged their experiences to interrelate with communities, they could enjoy their discussion which was very practical.

**Participatory Forest Resource Management Project
in the Transitional Zone (PAFORM)**

**REFRESHERT TRAINING OF COMMUNITY FACILITATORS & FSD STAFF
(14 – 18 JANUARY 2008, Sunyani)**

PROGRAMME SCHEDULE

Day 1, 9:00 – 5:00, Monday, 14 January

Opening	Welcome Remarks Objectives and Schedule of Training Participants' Expectations
Facilitation Skills	Review of Concepts, Principles, and Experiences

Day 2, 9:00 – 5:00, Tuesday, 15 January

Facilitation Skills	Group Development and Leadership, Identifying and Confronting Difficult Situation, Facilitation Practise
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Day 3, 9:00 – 5:00, Wednesday, 16 January

Monitoring & Evaluation	Participatory M&E
Networking	Community Organizing, Building Networks

Day 4, 9:00 – 5:00, Thursday, 17 January

Networking	Community Organizing, Building Networks
Conflict Management	Review of Concepts, Sharing Experiences, Exploring Strategies

Day 5, 9:00 – 5:00, Friday, 18 January

Conflict Management	Review of Concepts, Sharing Experiences, Exploring Strategies
Evaluation and Closing	

Participatory Forest Resource Management Project in the Transitional Zone (PAFORM)

**REFRESHER TRAINING FOR COMMUNITY FACILITATORS & FSD STAFF
(14 - 18 JANUARY 2008, Sunyani)**

PROGRAMME SCHEDULE

Time	Session	Objective	Methodology
Day 1, 14 Jan 2008			
Module 1: Facilitation of Group Processes			
9:00 – 10:00 am	Opening - Welcome Remarks - Objectives & Programme Schedule - Participants' Expectations - Guidelines for Evaluation	Participants gain familiarity with the objectives of the training	Presentation Listing of Expectations
10:00 – 11:30	Journey So Far	Participants reflect on their experiences as facilitators of community processes Participants practice skills in presentation and communication	Individual Exercise: Journey Collage Individual Presentation Group Feedback
10:30 – 11:45	BREAK		
11:45 – 12:30 pm	How Am I As A Facilitator	Participants conduct a self-assessment of their performance as facilitators Participants assist each others' reflections and coach each other for improvement	Individual Work Paired Exercise Presentation and Group Discussion
12:30 – 1:30	BREAK		
1:30 – 2:30	How Am I As A Facilitator (cont'd)	Participants learn to use three techniques for generating, collecting, and organizing ideas Participants practice facilitation of a meeting	Presentation and discussion
2:30 – 2:45	BREAK		
2:45 – 5:00	Facilitation Map	Participants get to review the steps for facilitating a process	

Time	Session	Objective	Methodology
Day 2, 15 Jan 2008			
Module 1: Facilitation of Group Processes			
9:00 – 9:15	Recap of Previous Day Session	The day is started with a review of activities and learning from the previous day	
9:15 – 10:45	Facilitation Map	Participants get to review the steps for facilitating a process Participants understand the underlying structure of a successful group process and learn how to use the facilitation map	Presentation and Discussion Group Exercise
10:45 – 11:00			
BREAK			
11:00 – 12:30 pm	Developing working agreements	Participants practice the development of working agreements Participants practice facilitation of a meeting	Group Exercise
12:30 – 1:30			
BREAK			
1:30 – 2:30	Techniques for generating ideas in a group	Participants learn to use three techniques for generating, collecting, and organizing ideas Participants practice facilitation of a meeting	Presentation and discussion
2:30 – 2:45			
BREAK			
2:45 – 5:00	Techniques for generating ideas in a group (cont'd)		
Day 3, 16 Jan 2008			
Module 1: Facilitation of Group Processes			
9:00 – 9:15	Recap of Previous Day Session	The day is started with a review of activities and learning from the previous day	
9:15 – 10:45	Handling Difficult Individuals in a Group: A Review	Participants get to review facilitator's options in handling difficult individuals in meetings & other community situation	Role Play Discussion

Time	Session	Objective	Methodology
10:45 – 11:00	BREAK		
11:00 – 12:30 pm	Group and Leadership Formation	Participants enhance their understanding of group dynamics and analyze their own experiences with the communities	Group Exercise Presentation and Discussion
12:30 – 1:30	BREAK		
Module 2: Networking			
1:30 – 2:30	Networking	Participants enhance understanding and skills in networking within and for the communities	Presentation and discussion Case Studies
2:30 – 2:45	BREAK		
2:45 – 5:00	Networking (cont')		
Day 4, 17 Jan 2008			
Module 2: Networking			
9:00 – 9:15	Recap of Previous Day Session	The day is started with a review of activities and learning from the previous day	Presentation
9:15 – 10:00	Networking (cont')		Role Play
Module 3: Participatory Monitoring & Evaluation			
10:00 – 10:45	Monitoring & Evaluation	Participants enhance their understanding of the concept and tools for monitoring & evaluation Participants practice participatory monitoring & evaluation	Presentation and discussion Group Exercise
10:45 – 11:00	BREAK		
11:00 – 12:30 pm	Monitoring & Evaluation (cont')		

Time	Session	Objective	Methodology
12:30 – 1:30	BREAK		
1:30 – 2:30	Monitoring & Evaluation (cont')		
2:30 – 2:45	BREAK		
2:45 – 4:00	Monitoring & Evaluation (cont')		
Module 4: Conflict Management			
4:00 – 5:00	Conflict Management	Participants review the concept and principles of conflict management	Presentation and discussion
Day 5, 18 Jan 2008			
Module 4: Conflict Management			
9:00 – 9:15	Recap of Previous Day Session	The day is started with a review of activities and learning from the previous day	Presentation
9:15 – 10:45	Conflict: Concept & Causes	Participants enhance their understanding of the concept and causes of conflict	Presentation and discussion
		Participants apply tools for analyzing causes of conflict	Group Exercise
10:45 – 11:00	BREAK		
11:00 – 12:30 pm	Conflict: Concept & Causes (cont')		
12:30 – 1:30	BREAK		
1:30 – 2:30 pm	Conflict Management	Participants enhance their understanding of the various means of managing and resolving conflict	Presentation and discussion Group Exercise
2:30 – 2:45	BREAK		
2:45 – 3:00	Conflict Management (cont')		
3:00 – 5:00	Evaluation and Closing		

Facilitation Map: Guidelines (Proceedings of Brainstorming, 15 January 2008)

Step 1: Opening

- Introduction of facilitator
- Why is the group together
- Greetings/welcome prayer
- Know group members
- Make people at ease build rapport, break the ice (e.g. joke, etc)
- Raising individual expectations

Step 2: Clarifying objectives

- Letting people know what are you going to do, Agenda
- Goal, benefit, individual positive situation

Step 3: Clarifying the role of facilitator

- Facilitator has to know area to operate (topic, extent, nature behavior)
- Person/facilitator must know his/her topic (with/without projecting that one is an expert)
- Emphasize that you are leading the process together with community, towards the change
- Only moderating : consensus building
- Facilitator should know what he/she needs to do
- Facilitator will be tolerant, independent, neutral
- Assertive of your role, firm, and confident
- During the process, facilitator may have to intervene (to keep process on track)

Step 4: Setting of agenda

- Steps in the process
- Agenda items

**FORESTRY SERVICES DEPARTMENT (FSD)/
JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY (JICA)**

**Participatory Forest Resource Management Project in the
Transitional Zone (PAFORM)**

**REFRESHER TRAINING OF FSD STAFF & COMMUNITY
FACILITATORS**

(14 – 18 JANUARY 2008, South Ridge Lodge ,Sunyani)

H A N D O U T S

Compiled by:

Mrs. Marian Tadeffa-Kubabom

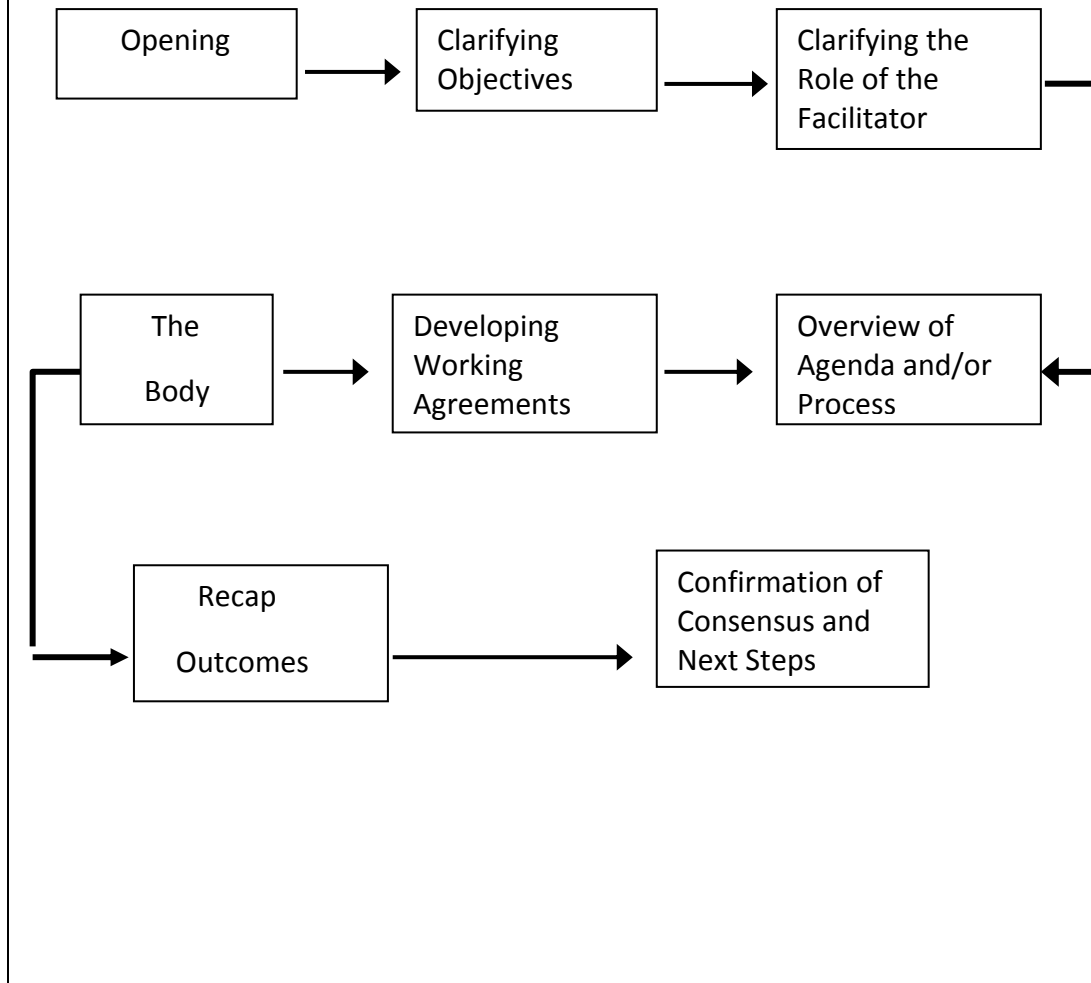
Development Initiatives Consult

Accra, January 2008

MODULE 1: FACILITATION OF GROUP PROCESSES

HANDOUT 1

THE FACILITATION MAP



Source: Adapted from Bendaly, Lesley. *The Facilitation Training Kit* USA, 2000

WORKING AGREEMENTS

THE FACILITATOR'S POWER TOOL

- ∞ Develop a sense of shared responsibility

- ∞ Increase members' awareness of their own behaviour

- ∞ Empower the facilitator to lead the group according to the agreements

- ∞ Enhance the quality of the group process

Source: Bendaly, Lesley. *The Facilitation Training Kit* USA, 2000

HANDOUT 3

MAKING AGREEMENTS WORK

Agreements work well when:

- ∞ They are well-developed
 - Important to the Team
 - Limited in number (e.g. 7)
 - Fully supported by each member

- ∞ They are used
 - Members are reminded of agreements during process checks
 - Facilitator checks, “How well did we live up to our agreements?” at the end of each step in the process

Source: Adapted from Bendaly, Lesley. The Facilitation Training Kit USA, 2000

HANDOUT 4

THE NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

Steps:

- 1) Clarify topic/issue
- 2) Members write ideas on slips of paper
- 3) Ideas are collected
- 4) Ideas are drawn at random and read by facilitator or team members
- 5) Discussion of each idea
- 6) Agreement on best ideas/solutions
- 7) Commitment to action
- 8) Recap

Source: Bendaly, Lesley. *The Facilitation Training Kit USA, 2000*

HANDOUT 5

THE GENERATING IDEAS AND ORGANIZING IDEAS TECHNIQUE

Steps:

- 1) Clarify topic/issue
- 2) Silent generation of ideas
- 3) Round-robin sharing of ideas
- 4) Discussion of each idea
- 5) Agreement on best ideas/solutions
- 6) Commitment to action
- 7) Recap

Source: Bendaly, Lesley. *The Facilitation Training Kit* USA, 2000

HANDOUT 6

THE BRAINSTORMING TECHNIQUE

Steps:

- 1) Clarify topic/issue
- 2) Agree on brainstorming ground rules
- 3) Silent generation of ideas
- 4) Throwing out of ideas and building on ideas (unstructured, preferably not round robin)
- 5) Agreement on best ideas/solutions
- 6) Commitment to action
- 7) Recap

Source: Bendaly, Lesley. The Facilitation Training Kit USA, 2000

HANDOUT 7

DEALING WITH DIFFICULT INDIVIDUALS

- As soon as you begin to see problems arise, take the opportunity to talk to the person individually. Try to understand what is bothering them. Sometimes disruptive people just want more individual attention. Try to diffuse the situation before the person becomes a ringleader for wider opposition
- If this has not helped and there is somebody in the group who has a personal relationship with the individual and can act as an intermediary, ask that person to discuss the disruptive behaviour sympathetically with the person in question.
- Give the person a particular responsibility in the meeting that will focus his/her energies, such as leading a sub-group or organising games.
- Do a role play in disruptive behaviour to illustrate to the person the effects of his/her behaviour without addressing him/her directly.
- You can encourage other members to comment on the issue being raised by the disruptive person.
- Only deal with difficult individuals publicly in exceptional cases.

HANDOUT 8

THE FOUR STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

FORMING

1. Group is not yet a group, but a set of individuals.
2. Individuals want to establish personal identity within the group and make an impression.
3. Participation is limited as individuals get familiar with the setting, the facilitator and each other.
4. Individuals begin to focus on task at hand and discuss its purpose.
5. The group is essentially evolving around ground rules on which future decisions and actions will be based.

STORMING

1. Characterised by intra-group conflicts and lack of unity.
2. Preliminary ground rules on purpose, leadership, and behaviour are damaged.
3. Individuals can become hostile toward each other, and express their individuality by pursuing or revealing personal agendas.
4. Friction increases, rules are broken, arguments can happen.
5. But, if successfully handled, this stage leads to new and more realistic setting of objectives, procedures, and norms.

NORMING

1. Characterised by overcoming tensions and by developing group cohesion in which norms and practices are established.
2. Members accept the group & accept each other's differences.
3. Group allegiance develops and group strives to maintain it.
4. Development of group spirit, harmony becomes important.

PERFORMING

1. Characterised by full maturity and maximum productivity
2. Reached by successfully completing previous 3 stages
3. Members take on roles to fulfil group activities since they now have learnt to relate to one another
4. Roles become flexible and functional
5. Group energy channelled into identified tasks
6. New insights and solutions begin to emerge

Pretty, Jules; Guijt, Irene;Thompson, John; Scoones, Ian. Participatory Learning Action:A Trainer's Guide. London, 1995

MODULE 2: NETWORKING

HANDOUT 9

ELEMENTS OF GOOD NETWORKING

Planning. Develop a SMART objective (specific, measurable, action-oriented, realistic, time-bound). Develop detailed strategies to meet your objective. This becomes your action plan.

Research. Find out/investigate relevant individuals and organizations who can assist you in your work. Research your contacts by asking them questions, so you will know with whom you are dealing. Research every possible opportunity. Keep your eyes and ears on the news, current events, and local developments.

Self Promotion. Promote yourself effectively. Understand your features and benefits (your strengths and how to use them) and learn how to express them. (SMILE and ASK)

Communication. Communicate effectively. Good communications are invaluable in any situation. Be articulate, concise, enthusiastic, honest, open. Use language with which you are comfortable but make sure it is powerful. Don't forget the other side of communicating: listening. This is as important as speaking. Don't make the mistake so many people do. Rather than listening, they spend their time thinking of the next thing they are going to say, thus taking virtually nothing in at all.

Think Creatively. Solve problems and maximize opportunities with innovative ideas. Rarely does an answer present itself in black and white. You have to assemble it, create it, and think it through.

Follow Through. Follow through on your commitments, both to yourself and others. A good referral or piece of advice only becomes activated into help when you follow it up.

Record keeping. Take full and accurate notes. Otherwise, you will never remember what you've committed to do. Keep lists, schedules, cross-referenced files. Write reminder notes about people you've met on the back of their business cards. Remember to keep your business cards in your right pocket and collected cards in your left pocket, this way you don't give out someone else's card.

Organization. Organize yourself: your thoughts, your notes, your files, your time. This takes time in the short run, but will save you tenfold in the long run. Use a good database, organize by category and use codes for easy identification.

**MODULE 3: PARTICIPATORY MONITORING
AND EVALUATION**

HANDOUT 10

BASIC DEFINITIONS: PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

PLANNING

A systematic approach to decision-making over alternative ways of achieving a desired goal and objective, using available human, natural, and financial resources within a specified time frame, in order to benefit a particular group of people.

MONITORING

Finding out problems and correcting work-in-process, at regular intervals after plans had been put into implementation, ensuring that:

- Activities are being implemented within the time frame agreed
- Inputs are ready on time
- People who need to know about progress are well informed
- Constraints (or bottlenecks) are identified and solutions discussed and implemented
- Resources are used efficiently.

EVALUATION

A process of assessing the successes and failures of a project

- Actual effects of activities on the identified target group
- Extent to which identified objectives were achieved
- Unintended, including the adverse, consequences of planned activities

MODULE 4: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

HANDOUT 11

DIFFERENT TYPES OF ISSUES THAT LEAD TO CONFLICT

Conflicting Interests

- ◆ Conflict over differing needs and desires, sharing of benefits and resource use
- ◆ Include perceived and actual competition of interests
- ◆ Conflicts can emerge from a perceived or actual lack of shared interests

Information Issues

- ◆ Conflicts caused by lack of information or differences in interpretation of information
- ◆ Can be linked to differing method of assessing, evaluating or interpreting information
- ◆ Poor communication (listening or expression) or miscommunication among disputing parties

Difficult Relationships

- ◆ Differences in personality and emotions, as well as misperceptions, stereotypes and prejudices
- ◆ Incompatible behaviours (routines, methods, styles), differing expectations, attitudes and approaches to problem solving
- ◆ History of conflict and bad feelings among the parties

Structural Issues

- ◆ Differing ideas regarding appropriate management processes, rules, roles and power; can apply to meeting committees or organizations
- ◆ Perceived or actual inequality or unfairness concerning power, control, ownership or structures that influence access to or distribution of resources
- ◆ Factors that hinder cooperation, such as decision-making structure and responsibilities, time constraints, geography or physical settings

Conflicting Values

- ◆ Differences among cultural, social, or personal beliefs or different world views and traditions
- ◆ Can include different goals, expectations or assumptions that reflect personal history and upbringing

Source: Means Kathryn; Josayma Cynthia. Community-Based Forest Resource Conflict Management: A Training Package. United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), Rome, 2002

HANDOUT 12

MANAGEMENT RESPONSES TO CONFLICT

FORCE

- ∞ The attempt of one group to impose its interests over others
- ∞ Creates hostility and resentment
- ∞ Can involve threats, harassment, use of supernatural powers, peer pressure
- ∞ Parties have no interest in maintaining a relationship
- ∞ Outcome uncertain
- ∞ Results in win lose situation

AVOIDANCE

- ∞ Neglects interests of both parties by postponing decisions, retreating, using delaying tactics
- ∞ Results in only a temporary solution
- ∞ May seem easier than getting involved
- ∞ Results in lose-lose situation is used in isolation

ACCOMODATION

- ∞ Satisfies the other party's interests, while neglecting your own needs
- ∞ May be used when participants are unwilling to take time
- ∞ May be used when one party has more power or is willing to preserve relationships
- ∞ Results in a lose-win situation

COMPROMISE

- ∞ Useful for quick solutions
- ∞ Both parties make a sacrifice in order to achieve a mutually workable solution
- ∞ Parties must give something up in order to gain something else
- ∞ Results in a sort of win-win-yet-lose-lose situation

COLLABORATION

- ∞ Works to satisfy all interests and needs
- ∞ Takes time so that all parties are actively and equally involved in the process
- ∞ Focuses on goals and consensus agreements
- ∞ Used when it is important that both parties be committed to the resolution
- ∞ Results in win-win situation

Source: Means Kathryn; Josayma Cynthia. Community-Based Forest Resource Conflict Management: A Training Package. United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), Rome, 2002

WORKING AGREEMENTS

The Facilitator's Power Tool

Working Agreements:

- Develop a sense of shared responsibility
- Increase members' awareness of their own behavior
- Empower the facilitator to lead the group according to the agreements
- Enhance the quality of the group process

MAKING AGREEMENTS WORK

Agreements work well when:

They are well developed

- Important to the team
- Limited in number (approximately 7)
- Fully supported by each member

They are used

- Members are reminded of agreements during process checks
- Facilitator checks “How well did we live up to our agreements?” at end of meeting (for ongoing teams)

THE NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

Steps:

1. Clarify topic/issue.
 2. Members write ideas on slips of paper.
 3. Ideas are collected.
 4. Ideas are drawn at random and read by facilitator or team members.
 5. Discussion of each idea.
 6. Agreement on best ideas/solutions.
 7. Commitment to action.
 8. Recap.
-

Notes:

THE BRAINSTORMING TECHNIQUE

Steps:

1. Clarify topic/issue.
 2. Agree on brainstorming groundrules.
 3. Silent generation of ideas.
 4. Throwing out of ideas and building on ideas (unstructured, preferably not round robin).
 5. Discussion of ideas.
 6. Agreement on best ideas/solutions.
 7. Commitment to action.
 8. Recap.
-

Notes:

DEALING WITH DIFFICULT INDIVIDUALS

- As soon as you begin to see problems arise, take the opportunity to talk to the person individually. Try to understand what is bothering them. Sometimes disruptive people just want more individual attention. Try to diffuse the situation before the person becomes a ringleader for wider opposition
- If this has not helped and there is somebody in the group who has a personal relationship with the individual and can act as an intermediary, ask that person to discuss the disruptive behaviour sympathetically with the person in question.
- Give the person a particular responsibility in the meeting that will focus his/her energies, such as leading a sub-group or organising games.
- Do a role play in disruptive behaviour to illustrate to the person the effects of his/her behaviour without addressing him/her directly.
- You can encourage other members to comment on the issue being raised by the disruptive person.
- Only deal with difficult individuals publicly in exceptional cases.

ELEMENTS OF GOOD NETWORKING

Planning

Develop a SMART objective (specific, measurable, action-oriented, realistic, time-bound). Develop detailed strategies to meet your objective. This becomes your action plan.

Research

Find out/investigate relevant individuals and organizations who can assist you in your work. Research your contacts by asking them questions, so you will know with whom you are dealing. Research every possible opportunity. Keep your eyes and ears on the news, current events, and local developments.

Self Promotion

Promote yourself effectively. Understand your features and benefits (your strengths and how to use them) and learn how to express them. (SMILE and ASK)

Communication

Communicate effectively. Good communications are invaluable in any situation. Be articulate, concise, enthusiastic, honest, open. Use language with which you are comfortable but make sure it is powerful. Don't forget the other side of communicating: listening. This is as important as speaking. Don't make the mistake so many people do. Rather than listening, they spend their time thinking of the next thing they are going to say, thus taking virtually nothing in at all.

Think Creatively

Solve problems and maximize opportunities with innovative ideas. Rarely does an answer present itself in black and white. You have to assemble it, create it, and think it through.

Follow Through




Follow through on your commitments, both to yourself and others. A good referral or piece of advice only becomes activated into help when you follow it up.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF ISSUES THAT LEAD TO CONFLICT



Type of issue	Elements	Points to remember in managing such conflicts
<i>Conflicting interests</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Conflicts over differing needs and desires, sharing of benefits and resource use ◆ Include perceived and actual competition of interests ◆ Conflicts can emerge from a perceived or actual lack of shared interests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Identify common or shared interests</i> ✓ <i>Underlying needs can often be satisfied in more ways than are at first obvious</i> ✓ <i>Clarify whether interests are real or perceived</i>
<i>Information issues</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Conflicts caused by lack of information or differences in interpretation of information ◆ Can be linked to differing methods of assessing, evaluating or interpreting information ◆ Poor communication (listening or expression) or miscommunication among disputing parties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Reach agreement on information needs</i> ✓ <i>Reach agreement on how information can be obtained and verified</i> ✓ <i>Reach agreement on criteria for evaluating or interpreting information</i> ✓ <i>A third party may improve communication</i> ✓ <i>Encourage transparent decision-making</i>
<i>Difficult relationships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Differences in personality and emotions, as well as misperceptions, stereotypes and prejudices ◆ Incompatible behaviours (routines, methods, styles), differing expectations, attitudes and approaches to problem solving ◆ History of conflict and bad feelings among the parties 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Identify the specific difficulties, encourage conflicting parties to avoid generalizations in stating their difficulties with one another</i> ✓ <i>Aim to build positive perceptions and solutions</i> ✓ <i>Emphasize fair ground rules to be followed by all parties</i> ✓ <i>Work to realign or build relationships, fostering care and willingness on the part of the participants</i>

Type of issue	Elements	Points to remember in managing such conflicts
<i>Structural issues</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Differing ideas regarding appropriate management processes, rules, roles and power; can apply to meeting committees or organizations ◆ Perceived or actual inequality or unfairness concerning power, control, ownership or structures that influence access to or distribution of resources ◆ Factors that hinder cooperation, such as decision-making structures and responsibilities, time constraints, geography or physical settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Help disenfranchised groups to understand their own and other parties' perceptions of the conflict</i> ✓ <i>Gain agreement on shared review of specific grievances – e.g. too much bureaucracy, poor representation</i> ✓ <i>Aim to transform conflict into a force for social change so solutions are sustainable in the long term</i>
<i>Conflicting values</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Differences among cultural, social or personal beliefs or different world views and traditions ◆ Can include different goals, expectations or assumptions that reflect personal history and upbringing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ <i>Frequently the most difficult to change</i> ✓ <i>Some differing human values may be non-negotiable</i> ✓ <i>Focus on interests or shared goals and avoid focusing on resolving differing values</i> ✓ <i>Require a long-term strategy that builds respect and supports the sharing and understanding of values among stakeholders</i>

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT RESPONSES ANSWER SHEET

Responses to conflict	Characteristics
<p>Force</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ The attempt of one group to impose its interests over others ◆ Can involve violence, threats, harassment, use of supernatural powers, peer pressure, economic and policy sanctions, and pressure through mass media and intimidation ◆ Creates hostility and resentment ◆ Outcome uncertain ◆ Parties have no interest in maintaining a relationship ◆ Results in win-lose situation
<p>Avoidance</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Neglects interests of both parties by postponing decisions, retreating, using delaying tactics ◆ May seem easier than getting involved ◆ Results in lose-lose situation if used in isolation. ◆ Results in only a temporary solution
<p>Accommodation</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Satisfies the other party's interests, while neglecting your own needs ◆ May be used when parties are unwilling to take time ◆ May be used when one party has more power or is willing to preserve the relationship ◆ Results in lose-win situation

Conflict management responses answer sheet (continued)

<p>Compromise</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none">◆ Useful for quick solutions◆ Both parties make a sacrifice in order to achieve a mutually workable solution◆ Parties must give something up in order to gain something else◆ Results in a sort of win-win-yet-lose-lose situation
<p>Collaboration</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none">◆ Works to satisfy all interests and needs◆ Focuses on goals and consensus agreements◆ Takes time so that all parties are actively and equally involved in the process◆ Results in win-win situation◆ Used when it is important that both parties be committed to the resolution

2.5 Training of Trainers for Community Facilitators & FSD Staff (January 19 to 23, 2009)

Since this training is the last facilitation training in the PAFORM project, the objectives were to let participants acquire advanced skills on facilitation to work as trainers to beginners, and to promote re-orientation of FSD personnel to work as liaison between FSD and fringe communities. Main training course contents were 1) designing training sessions, 2) time management, 3) conflict management and 4) monitoring & evaluation.

**FORESTRY SERVICES DEPARTMENT (FSD)/
JAPAN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AGENCY
(JICA)**

**Participatory Forest Resource
Management Project in the Transitional
Zone (PAFORM)**

**TRAINING OF TRAINERS
FOR FSD STAFF & COMMUNITY
FACILITATORS**

(19 – 23 JANUARY 2009, South Ridge Lodge ,Sunyani)

H A N D O U T S

Compil ed by:

Mrs. Marian Tadeffa-Kubabom

Devel opment Initiatives Consul t

Accra, February 2009

MODULE 1: TRAINING ON FACILITATION SKILLS

HANDOUT 1

STEPS IN DESIGNING FACILITATION SKILLS TRAINING

1. Review your lessons on How Adults Learn and the Responsibilities of a Trainer
2. Know your Participants
3. Develop the General and Learning Objectives of the Training
4. Identify the Methods you will use for the Training (including Training Evaluation)
5. Plan and ensure obtaining your Administrative Requirements
6. Prepare yourself as Trainer / Performer
7. Plan and Manage your Training Team well

HANDOUT 2

HOW ADULTS LEARN

1. **Adults are voluntary learners.** They perform best when they have decided to attend the training for a particular reason. They have a right to know why a topic or session is important.
2. **Adults have usually come with an intention to learn.** If this motivation is not supported, they will switch off or stop coming
3. **Adults have experience and can help each other to learn.** Encourage the sharing of that experience and your sessions will become more effective.
4. **Adults learn best in an atmosphere of active involvement and participation.**
5. **Adults learn best when it is clear that the context of training is close to their own tasks or jobs.** Adults are best taught with a real world approach.

Additional Thoughts from Participants

6. Adults learn best through visuals, observations and practise.
7. Adults learn best if they know the time boundaries of activities.

HANDOUT 3

RESPONSIBILITIES OF A TRAINER

1. Demystify your role as a trainer. Unless the participants understand your role, they will probably view you as an authority and will not see that they have to take responsibility for their own learning process. Keep reflecting back to the group their need to take responsibility for learning.
2. Remember that you cannot expect to meet your emotional needs while working as a facilitator. Do not expect, for instance, for extra special attention, respect, or making (intimate) friends.
3. Being a facilitator does not mean that you are qualified to be a psychotherapist. Take great care when participants reach out to you, either directly or indirectly, with their emotional needs.
4. It is essential that the group understands what you are doing with them; what your goals are, how you expect to meet their needs, what you can and cannot give, and how you are going to do them.

Additional Thoughts from Participants

5. The trainer should be democratic and not autocratic.
6. Trainer should have firm knowledge about the subject as well as confident.
7. The trainer should sufficiently know the participants.

HANDOUT 4

SETTING TRAINING OBJECTIVES

Training objectives can be expressed at two levels, general and specific objectives.

General Objectives usually reflect overall programme or organizational aim towards which a training event is supposed to contribute. For example,

- a. “To build the capacity of Forestry Services Department personnel to implement participatory forest management” or
- b. “To create a pool of skilled community facilitators that can support the promotion of participatory forest management”

Specific Objectives address concrete skills that are to be developed through the training.

Specific Objectives are best stated as **Learning Objectives**, expressing what the trainees are able to do at the end of the training. Words such as “to write”, “to plan”, “to produce”, “to design”, “to implement”, “to conduct”, etc. can be used. The resulting concrete statements will allow for easy assessment and evaluation of learning impact.

For example,

- a.1 “Participants will be able to plan and implement participatory approaches in mobilizing community involvement in the preparation of Forest Reserve Management Plan”
- b.1 “Participants will be able to design and implement Facilitation Skills Training for forestry personnel and community leaders”

HANDOUT 5

METHODS OR TECHNIQUES FOR TRAINING

Methods	Features	Pros	Cons
Lecture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One way communication of a prepared talk - Sometimes accompanied by question and answer period 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Efficient in terms of time - Can be used for groups of any size - Trainer is in complete control of content and timing - Useful in introducing new subjects, presenting summaries and overviews 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learning not guaranteed - Usually delivered as a monologue, not taking into account participants' needs and interests - Lecturer is physically removed from participants - Creative and reflective learning is limited - Can be tedious and boring - Accompanying question and answer session may involve only a few participants willing to talk
Buzz Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - During a long session, the Plenary breaks into sub-groups of 2 or 3 to discuss one or two specific questions/issues - Each group feeds the outcome of their discussion to Plenary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Allows almost everyone to express an opinion - Participants able to exchange ideas - Generate ideas from a wide range of experiences - Give opportunity for participants to reflect on the content of the training - Trainer is allowed to rest - Allow trainer to assess the mood by listening to the discussions - Give trainer reflection time on the pace of the session 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can be unfamiliar to participants - Require more time for group discussion and feedback - Feedback tend to be repetitious as same ideas may come from each group - May require facilitators for every group - May need re-arrangement of tables and chairs
Brainstorming and Collecting Ideas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Nominal group technique requires each member to list ideas randomly and each idea is discussed in plenary - Generating and organizing ideas technique involves each going around for possible idea for each member for discussion - Brainstorming technique involves throwing out idea(s) and building on the idea 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generate a wide range of ideas - Each participant has time to reflect on the question and given a chance to raise an opinion - Ideas are grouped and analysed so that they belong to the group and not the individual - Can work well in large groups - Agreed best option results from group effort, thus, group ownership and commitment is assured 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Requires more time allowance - Brainstorming session may be limited to less shy participants - Require effective facilitation to organize ideas and engage participants in coming up with best option

Methods	Features	Pros	Cons
Role Plays and Simulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants are briefed on the objective of the role play and their roles - Participants use their own experiences to play real life situation - De-briefing follows to obtain feedback from the role players and the rest of the participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhance self-confidence of participants - Give opportunity for participants to understand and feel empathy for other people's viewpoints and roles - Generate practical end solutions or answers - Useful for exploring and improving interviewing techniques, examining the complexities and potential conflicts in group meetings - Help participants consolidate different lessons in one setting - Good energizer and ice-breaker 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Time-consuming - Success depends on the willingness of participants to take active part - Some individuals feel role play is too exposing, threatening, or embarrassing
Case Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Presentation and analysis of an incident or scenario - De-briefing follows to obtain feedback on issues and solutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants learn from real life situation - Participants learn to analyse situation towards problem-solving - Wide range of options are generated if done with various sub-groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Require considerable preparation including pre-testing - Time-consuming
Notes and Visual Aides	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training plan arranged according to key points and sequence of presentation - Visual Aids used for presentation (e.g. flipcharts, posters, charts, slides, films, overhead transparencies, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Visual aids help to ensure effective communication and are crucial part of any well-designed training session - Help in re-enforcing critical points and introducing complex information - Visuals reduce the use for notes - Help break the monotony of lectures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lengthy notes can be boring when read - Require considerable preparation
Homework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants are given task(s) to accomplish after the end of the day's training session - Individual or group output is presented the following day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Efficient use of time - Participants are given sufficient time for reflection on the training content - Enhance group dynamics when task is given to a group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Success depends on the willingness of participants to work beyond training hours - Feedback session can be time-consuming
Games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training content is introduced through structured game(s) - De-briefing follows to emphasize the point of the game and obtain feedback on issues and lessons learnt 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participants learn under relaxed and enjoyable environment - Good energizer and ice-breaker 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Require considerable preparation - Time-consuming - Some individuals feel games are too exposing, threatening, embarrassing - May require additional material resources

Methods	Features	Pros	Cons
Issues Parking Lot	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A wall sheet or flip chart is provided to list down un-resolved issues and questions from the participants during the training - These issues and questions are addressed as ideas or consensus are reached; at the end of the training; or agreements to investigate further are arrived at 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Efficient use of time - Allows more time for reflection an consensus on the issue - Demonstrates that all ideas and concerns are important 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - May be abandoned if time is not enough

Other Techniques: Talking Ball, Human Continuum, Forced Choice Position-Taking

HANDOUT 6

PREPARING FOR TRAINING & ADMINISTRATIVE REQUIREMENTS

CHOICE OF VENUE

- The best venue is the one which will promote the participants' ability to learn.
- Room should suit the type of session you have planned, considering the mix or sequence of learning methods. For instance, if you plan to conduct sub-group work, role play, or interactive exercises, you will need space(s) to accommodate the activities.
- Assess potential sources of distraction in the room or outside, both to you and your participants. Distractions can include noise from within the room, people or cars passing nearby, telephone or any equipment in adjacent rooms. Distractions can also be in the form of visitors who may wish to discuss urgent business with any of the participants. If possible, venues should be at a location where participants are isolated from their day to day concerns.
- Ensure the availability of facilities and equipment to match your planned audio visuals and other aids. You should know beforehand where you can situate your electrical equipment (e.g. overhead projector, recorder, etc.), where to stick your flipcharts.
- Ensure the availability of all other materials such as coloured markers, flipcharts, scissors, pins, tape that you will need.

SEATING ARRANGEMENT

Seating arrangements have a big influence on the session. The actual arrangement will depend on the space available and the number of participants. The best arrangement is one that:

- Allows eye contact between the Trainer and the participants and between participants
- Trainer can walk easily amongst the participants
- Projects an informal and easy atmosphere
- Can easily be re-organized for buzz or sub-group work

TIMING OF SESSIONS

- The length of your sessions will have a crucial effect on the concentration of participants.
- People do not concentrate well for long periods if there is little variation in the style of presentation.
- You can break an important lecture with visual materials, exercises, stories, jokes or breaks.

- As much as possible stick to the time you promised to end a session. If needed make the participants understand the reason for the extension. At times, when the session is lively, the participants themselves will request for an extension. This should be considered together with the rest of the day's programme.
- Participants have higher concentration in the morning so that lectures and other information-giving approaches will be most appropriate. The concentration and energies reduce in the afternoon after lunch, thus, more active and participatory learning approaches should be adopted.

PACE AND CONTENT OF SESSIONS

- Structure each session carefully considering:
 - How much do the participants know already?
 - What do they need to learn?
 - How much time do you have to cover the materials?
- Ask the following questions in the selection of materials: What participants
 - Must know
 - Should know
 - Could know
- Remember, too much detail covered too quickly will not be effective. The day after a ten-minute talk, the average member of the participants is unlikely to remember more than one or two major points.
- The session should be centered around the key points or the "Must Know" by the end of the session. Always repeat these key points to reinforce the learning.
- Follow these stages for any session to ensure the key points are remembered:
 - Tell them what you are going to tell them
 - Tell them
 - Tell them what you have just told them
- Allow plenty of time for your preparation of note and materials.

HANDOUT 7

YOU AS A PERFORMER

- Look at the group
- Smile
- Avoid placing barriers between you and the participants
- Avoid distracting movements
- Do not be afraid of Pauses
- Use a wide range of vocal tones
- Act a little
- Speak clearly
- Speak up by breathing deeply
- Prepare thoroughly to gain self-confidence
- There is no need to be defensive in your presentation
- Visualize what your ideal performance will be like
- Find a place where you can be alone beforehand
- Relax by making some neck exercises beforehand and flexing/releasing your muscles
- Start talking to participants as they start to arrive
- Highlight the benefits that the participants will derive from the session
- Speak to the participants as equals rather than students
- Try one or more new exercises in the duration of the training programme
- Try to relate training materials and exercises to past experiences of the participants
- Plan easy and concrete exercises

HANDOUT 8

WORKING AS A TEAM

- Sharing responsibilities over sessions gives you more opportunity to catch your breath and be more effective in your next session
- You have twice as much creativity and experience to deal with any problems
- By complementing each other's input, you are less likely to overlook a key learning point especially in de-briefing sessions
- Have one female and male facilitator, or one more energetic and another who is calmer. Changes in style will keep the participants more concentrated
- Having at least one facilitator from the same area and ethnic group as the participants can help them to feel that the learning experience is directly relevant

TEAM CONTRACT (SAMPLE)

- We will strive to communicate with each other honestly
- We are committed to attend all trainers' team meetings
- We will strive to be together during the training course as much as possible
- We will have daily assessments of each other's performance
- We will not interrupt each other's sessions
- We will try to contribute constructively during each other's sessions by mentioning at the end of the session any additional learning points that the session coordinator might have missed

HANDOUT 9

TRAINING PLAN FORMAT (With Sample Content)

Session	Duration	Objective	Method	Responsibility	Logistics
Opening <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Welcome Remarks - Objectives & Programme Schedule - Participants' Expectations 	9:00 – 10:00 am	Participants gain familiarity with the objectives of the training	Presentation Listing of Expectations	Senior Official Trainer	
Journey So Far	10:00 – 11:30	Participants reflect on their experiences as facilitators of community processes Participants practice skills in presentation and communication	Individual Exercise: Journey Collage Individual Presentation Group Feedback		20 Brown Papers 15 Markers 1 Tape 3 Pinboards/ (Wall)
How Am I As A Facilitator	11:45 – 12:30 pm	Participants conduct a self-assessment of their performance as facilitators Participants assist each others' reflections and coach each other for improvement	Individual Work Paired Exercise Presentation and Group Discussion		
How Am I As A Facilitator (cont'd)	1:30 – 2:30	Participants learn to use three techniques for generating, collecting, and organizing ideas Participants practice facilitation of a meeting	Presentation and discussion		20 Brown Papers Markers Tape Pinboards (Wall)
Facilitation Map	2:45 – 5:00	Participants get to review the steps for facilitating a process			2 Flip Chart Markers

MODULE 2: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

HANDOUT 10

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT OPTIONS

1. **EARLY WARNING SYSTEM**
 - Analyze potential conflict situation

2. **ACCOMODATION**
 - One party decides to satisfy the other parties' interest

3. **COLLABORATION**
 - Negotiation: Parties decide to talk and work out a solution
 - Mediation: A third party intervenes to facilitate negotiation

4. **COMPROMISE**
 - Conciliation: A third party encourages disputing parties to adopt an approach

5. **LEGAL SYSTEM**
 - Arbitration: Disputing parties appoint a third party to settle the dispute
 - Adjudication: Legal attorneys represent parties in court

6. **AVOIDANCE**
 - Parties choose to postpone and delay addressing the issue

7. **FORCE**
 - Use of violence, harassment, intimidation, supernatural powers, etc.

MODULE 3: TIME MANAGEMENT

HANDOUT 11

IMPROVE YOUR OWN TIME MANAGEMENT

- ❖ Be prepared to make drastic changes

- ❖ Plan how to use your time and commit to/protect that time

- ❖ Manage the expectations of others

- ❖ Prioritise; Think long and short Term

- ❖ Delegate; Be SMARTER
 - Specific
 - Measurable
 - Agreed
 - Realistic
 - Timebound
 - Ethical
 - Recorded

- ❖ Control your environment

- ❖ Understand yourself and identify what you will change about your habits, routines and attitude

HANDOUT 12

TIME MANAGEMENT

Keep a Weekly Log

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
MORNING	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity
AFTERNOON	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity	Time Duration: Activity

HANDOUT 13

TIME MANAGEMENT MATRIX

Stephen Covey, Seven Habits Of Highly Effective People

<p>QUADRANT 1</p> <p>Urgent and Important</p>	<p>QUADRANT 2</p> <p>Not Urgent and Important</p>
<p>QUADRANT 3</p> <p>Urgent and Not Important</p>	<p>QUADRANT 4</p> <p>Not Urgent and Not Important</p>

TIME MANAGEMENT MATRIX

Stephen Covey, Seven Habits Of Highly Effective People

	Urgent	Not Urgent
Important	<p>1 - DO NOW</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • emergencies, complaints and crisis issues • demands from superiors or customers • planned tasks or project work now due • meetings and appointments • reports and other submissions • staff issues or needs • problem resolution, fire-fighting, fixes <p>Subject to confirming the importance and the urgency of these tasks, do these tasks now. Prioritise according to their relative urgency.</p>	<p>2 - PLAN TO DO</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • planning, preparation, scheduling • research, investigation, designing, testing • networking relationship building • thinking, creating, modelling, designing • systems and process development • anticipation and prevention • developing change, direction, strategy <p>Critical to success: planning, strategic thinking, deciding direction and aims, etc. Plan time-slots and personal space for these tasks.</p>
Not Important	<p>3 - REJECT AND EXPLAIN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • trivial requests from others • apparent emergencies • ad-hoc interruptions and distractions • misunderstandings appearing as complaints • pointless routines or activities • accumulated unresolved trivia • boss's whims or tantrums <p>Scrutinise and probe demands. Help originators to re-assess. Wherever possible reject and avoid these tasks sensitively and immediately.</p>	<p>4 - RESIST AND CEASE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'comfort' activities, computer games, net surfing, excessive cigarette breaks • chat, gossip, social communications • daydreaming, doodling, over-long breaks • reading nonsense or irrelevant material • unnecessary adjusting equipment etc. • embellishment and over-production <p>Habitual 'comforters' not true tasks. Non-productive, de-motivational. Minimise or cease altogether. Plan to avoid them.</p>

HANDOUT 14

TIME MANAGEMENT FOR A FACILITATOR

	Urgent	Not Urgent
Important	<p>1 - DO NOW</p> <p>Problem or crisis quadrant. Includes issues in a workshop that are critical to the completion of the workshop or could potentially delay the project.</p> <p>issues may need to be resolved right away or elevated to the appropriate level</p>	<p>2 - PLAN TO DO</p> <p>Items in this category that are done well and consistently (as they are not urgent) will not become Quadrant 1 problems. An example of this type of activity might be project documentation or status reporting.</p> <p>Issues can be posted on a flipchart. At the end of the workshop, these issues can be prioritized.</p>
Not Important	<p>3 - REJECT AND EXPLAIN</p> <p>Urgent to others and not to your project team</p> <p>Issues can be posted on a flipchart. At the end of the workshop, these issues can be prioritized.</p>	<p>4 - RESIST AND CEASE</p> <p>Contains items that are not urgent or important to anyone.</p> <p>Issues can be posted on a flipchart. At the end of the workshop, these issues can be prioritized.</p>

MODULE 4: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

HANDOUT 15

Monitoring and Evaluation in Training Events

A. Scoring Individuals and Groups

Objective: To provide feedback on individuals' perceptions of the value of their contributions to group performance

Procedure:

1. This can take place during any other activity, games or workshop session. The task is for each one to evaluate their own contribution to the group (i.e. plenary discussion, group task). Ask each individual to select a rating from 0 to 5 for the question:

“ To what extent does the group listen to the contribution that I make in the discussion?”

2. Each person writes their rating on a piece of paper and show to the whole group at the same time.
3. You make each person explain their rating

Comments: The exercise allows each one to reflect on their contribution and share those factors that allowed them or hinder them to make contributions. Some of the hindering factors can lead you, the Trainer, to make changes to the handling of the training and/or the participants to change their behavior towards their colleagues (e.g. no monopolizing of discussions, no unnecessary distractions, etc)

B. What I Liked and What I Did Not Like

Objective:

1. To get feedback on a training session or day
2. To encourage open reflection by the participants

Procedure: There are two parts in this exercise.

1. Arrange participants in a circle so that there is eye contact with each other. One by one, participants are to complete the following sentence: “ I did not like it when...”

This may refer to anything that happened during the session or day. Each person may choose to say nothing or complete the sentence as many times as necessary. No one should pass judgment or comment on what others have said.

2. After everyone has answered this question, the procedure is repeated this time completing the following sentence: “ I liked it when...”

Comments: The exercise finishes with the “likes” so that participants end in a positive note. You should begin the round and encourage everyone to be as honest as they could be. You can also end by asking participants to mention one good thing that they think they have personally contributed to the group.

A variation of this exercise is to make individuals write on coloured papers and these will be anonymously pinned on a paper or wall. Discussions can then be opened for suggestions on what can be changed in the workshop, if any.

Another variation is to make each one write down their likes and dislikes. This will allow for more reflection but reduce feedback to you and the group.

C. Mood Meter

Objective: To monitor participants' changes in mood during the course of the workshop

Procedure:

1. Prepare the Mood Meter sheet (this may be a flipchart sheet placed lengthwise, with a horizontal line drawn across the centre). Positive moods are indicated above the line and the negative moods below.
2. Choose a fixed time when participants will fill up in the mood meter. For instance, ask participants as they enter the room in the beginning of the day to indicate (with a marker) how their mood fits into the range (from happy, average, to unhappy) for that day. They will repeat this assessment at the end of the day.

Comments: The Mood Meter is just an instrument to detect possible success or dissatisfaction which should, if necessary, be probed using evaluation methods. A specific use of the mood meter is at times of a group crisis when the mood drops. The graph can be used to reflect on previous sessions when things are looking up. This can get the group to concentrate on positive aspects of group experience so far.

D. Evaluation of Session

Objectives:

1. To provide feedback on specific participatory methods or sessions
2. To learn how to evaluate and so in future learn better from experience
3. To learn how to express feelings and make creative suggestions
4. To improve the workshop

Procedure:

1. Ask either the whole group or smaller groups or individuals to evaluate the event and report back. Suggest that they evaluate the content (what was covered) separately from the process (how it was covered).
2. Specific questions can be given to the groups for discussion. The results can be written down on pieces of paper and put on a wall chart, or summarized by you as they are give. Possible questions to ask:

- ✓ Things I liked
- ✓ Things I did not like
- ✓ Suggestions for improvement
- ✓ The most important lesson learnt
- ✓ What I found most difficult
- ✓ What main obstacle I anticipate in applying what I have just learnt

Comments: This evaluation can be used for one particular part of the workshop. Evaluation of a session or a specific participatory tool should be quick and verbal in a buzz session, with the leader of a group taking notes, but not leading the evaluation. Evaluation of a whole workshop needs a more reflective atmosphere and can be done at the end individually.

E. Hope and Fears Scoring

Objectives:

1. To evaluate the workshop or session in an unusual way

2. To build on the hopes and fears given by participants at the beginning

Procedure:

1. Take the main hopes and fears, or expectations given by participants at the beginning of the workshop.
2. Draw a 4 x 4 matrix.
3. Turn the negative statements into positive and list these down on the first column of the matrix. On the top first row, put the labels Very Unhappy, Happy, Very Happy.
4. Ask each participant to indicate his/her preference for each of the statements.

Comments: This exercise allows the trainer and participants to see whether hopes and fears have been addressed or not.

F. Problem Hat

Objectives:

1. To give individuals the opportunity to discuss immediate problems they face anonymously and constructively
2. To emphasize equality in power and authority within the group
3. To encourage participants to share problems and actively seek experiences and suggestions from each other
4. To highlight that everyone has relevant and valuable experiences.

Procedure:

1. Ask everyone to sit in a circle. Each one, including yourself, will be asked to write on a slip of paper a particular problem they are facing and would like to resolve: "I have difficulty with..."

If it concerns the behavior of another participant, then ask them not write the name but simply describe the problem in general terms.

2. Ask that each slip of paper be folded and placed inside the hat. When everyone has put in their paper, pass around the hat and ask each person to take one slip of paper. If they pick their own, ask to put back the paper and pick another one.
3. Give the group a few minutes to reflect on the problem. Then start with anyone, perhaps yourself to set an example, and ask them to read out the problem and to feed back briefly how they would suggest that the anonymous writer deal with the problem.
4. Continue around the circle, making sure that everyone just listens and does not comment on the suggestions.

Comments: This exercise provides a simple way to express and address immediate problems. It can be used when tensions are running high to air issues publicly. This creates the opportunity for those who might be responsible for some problems to reflect on their behavior and change it.

Other Monitoring and Evaluation Methods: Graffiti Feedback Boards, Monitoring Representatives, Role Play for Creative Evaluation

2.6 Participatory Approach in PAFORM (June to July in 2007)

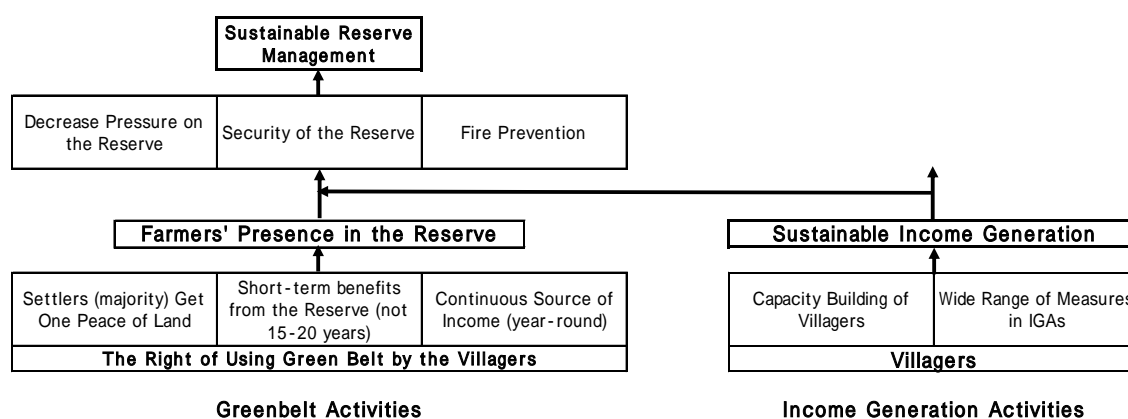
This sub-chapter is not a given training material by any trainer but an agreed-input resulting from a series of discussion among PAFORM team members which was initiated a Japanese expert who is responsible for participatory approach. This material shows the basic concept of PAFORM approach, such as two pillars (GB activity and IGA) for participatory forest management and describes the principle of “participatory approach in PAFORM”. These ideas were probably triggers for FSD staff and C/F to change their perspective regarding the participatory forest resource management. This material can be useful for anybody to learn the basic concept of participatory approach in forest resource management.

2.6 Participatory Approach in PAFORM

Two pillars for Participatory Forest Management Activity of PAFORM

Community facilitators of PAFORM discussed to make a draft of diagram showing what the mission of PAFORM is through the workshop. It was then discussed and refined at the weekly meeting. The chart below shows that the participatory forest reserve management has two pillars: 1) green belt activities and 2) income generation activities. Greenbelt activities contribute to forest reserve management directly, meanwhile, income generation activities contribute indirectly.

Two pillars of PAFORM



By “Greenbelt Activities”, residents of fringe communities are invited to the greenbelt, inside of the boundary of forest reserves, to plant fruit trees such as mango and citrus. They will be able to get constant income in several years and at the same time they are expected to contribute to decrease pressure on the reserve, to increase security of the reserve and to prevent wildfires by going to the greenbelt frequently. Meanwhile, “Income Generation Activities” target the whole fringe communities, especially the ones with low income. They are expected to contribute indirectly to manage the forest reserves by improving their livelihood.

(1) Greenbelt Activities

PAFORM makes a greenbelt from the boundary to 40m inside of the forest reserve and invites the residents of fringe communities to plant fruit trees and others. Improved Taungya system needs long years for the members to get income: after ten years and 18 years for thinning out, and after twenty-five years for cutting down. They also cannot continue farming after three to five years because trees get thick. Meanwhile, members of “Greenbelt Activities” can harvest fruits from intercropping of fruit trees and pineapples etc. in a relatively short-term and also in a constant manner.

If you look at the level of civic participation, it depends on give-and-take between FSD and the residents just like improved Taungya system. FSD releases some portions of the forest reserve to the residents of the fringe communities in exchange for direct contribution to protect the forest reserve. It is in a sense a contract by negotiation.

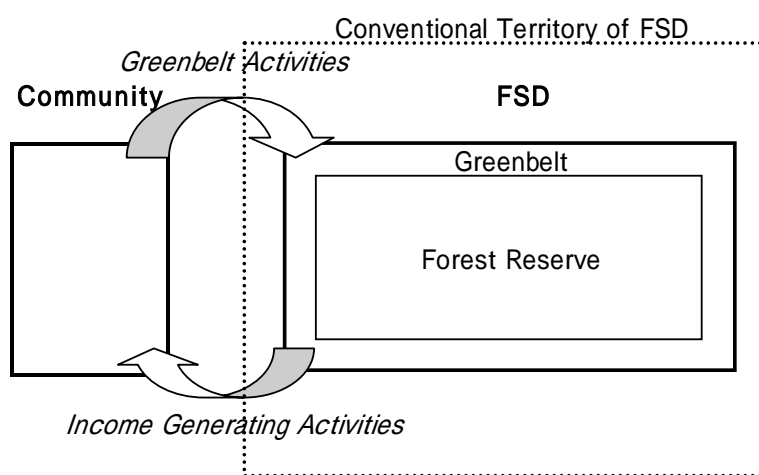
(2) Income Generation Activities (IGAs)

The idea of “Income Generation Activities” also comes from alternative livelihood activities in the forest reserve. Direct contribution for protecting forest reserve through stopping illegal logging and lighting was assumed originally in the proposal. Also presence of good citizens in the forest reserve is expected to increase the security. Grass-cutter rearing, snail rearing, mushroom growing and beekeeping were among those.

If the activities are limited in the forest reserve, however, the people who can be involved are also limited just like improved Taungya groups and greenbelt groups. And if the same members of improved Taungya groups or greenbelt groups benefit from alternative livelihood activities double, the gap between the rich and the poor becomes even wider. As a consequence, negative pressure to the forest reserve could increase.

And furthermore, the team has learned that many village people are thinking of improving their income through agricultural activities rather than alternative sources. That is why the definition of "IGAs" grows out of alternative livelihood to forest activities and includes other income sources including agricultural activities. PAFORM is planning to tackle poverty reduction of the fringe communities comprehensively through "IGAs".

By this "IGAs", FSD goes out of its traditional territory of forest reserve to the fringe communities and participates in their development. It is going to be a challenge to a paradigm shift from public involvement by FSD to FSD's participation to the communities. At the information sharing workshops in the fringe communities (six communities around Tain One Forest Reserve from November to December 2006 and six communities around Nsemere Forest Reserve from June to July 2007), problem analyses were done from the view point of what is necessary to improve the life in the communities not from what is necessary to protect the forest reserve. As the result, participants discussed agriculture, income generation, health, education etc. very widely. FSD is showing the attitude even to deal with the issues which are out of the original field of FSD as much as possible by linking related ministries and NGOs. At the same time, FSD can look at the projects more objectively by locating them in the life and development of the communities not only thinking about the benefits to FSD itself. It is not a direct solution of giving an incentive to involve people and to stop illegal activities in the forest reserve, but thinking out and implementing measures where FSD can be useful for improving livelihood and developing the communities. It will lead to the real participatory forest reserve management where the forest reserve and the fringe communities are integrated.

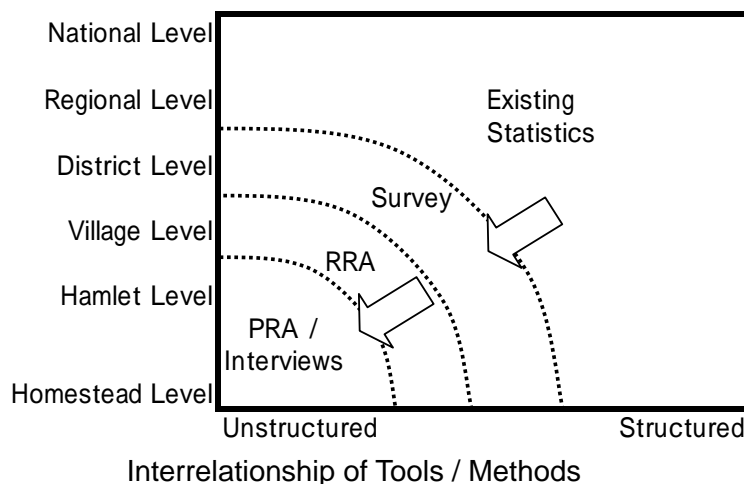


Two directions of participation at PAFORM

Participatory Approach in PAFORM

Participatory Approach of PAFORM is constructed by considering three different dimensions; (1) data collection and analysis, (2) planning and decision making, and (3) participation.

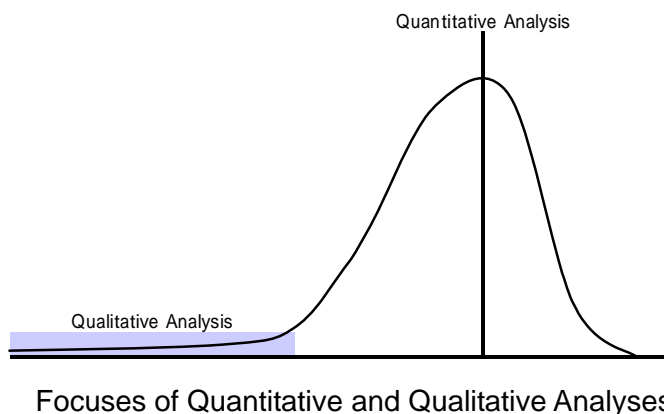
(1) Data collection and analysis



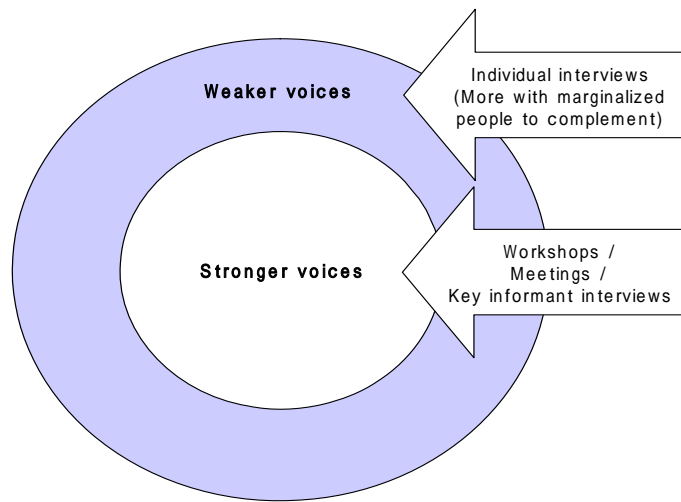
- 1) First step of study for PAFORM is to collect data from existing statistics and analyze to understand the general situation of the whole area..
- 2) Then surveys such as socio-economic survey follow to get general data of the area and the villages.
- 3) On-the-spot surveys include Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and key informant interviews to grasp the situation in rapid and efficient way.
- 4) To do survey from villagers' view points and to think about future images and development direction of the villages, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and problem analysis can be used.
- 5) To do a deeper analysis from micro point of view, interviews are effective. It is important to do interviews with marginalized people, otherwise we cannot hear their voices.

All of these analyses, methods and tools are mutually complementary and they have different strengths and different focuses. Statistics and general surveys are good at grasping the situation in more structured and quantitative way from macro point of view. Meanwhile PRA and interviews are good at seeing things more unstructured and qualitative way from micro point of view.

For deciding to use whether quantitative approach or qualitative approach, and whether structured questions or unstructured questions, we need to think the strength and weakness of them. Quantitative analysis with structured questionnaires tends to represent average i.e. majority's view, and makes it difficult to see minority's view. To complement that, qualitative analysis needs to focus on extreme or unusual cases.



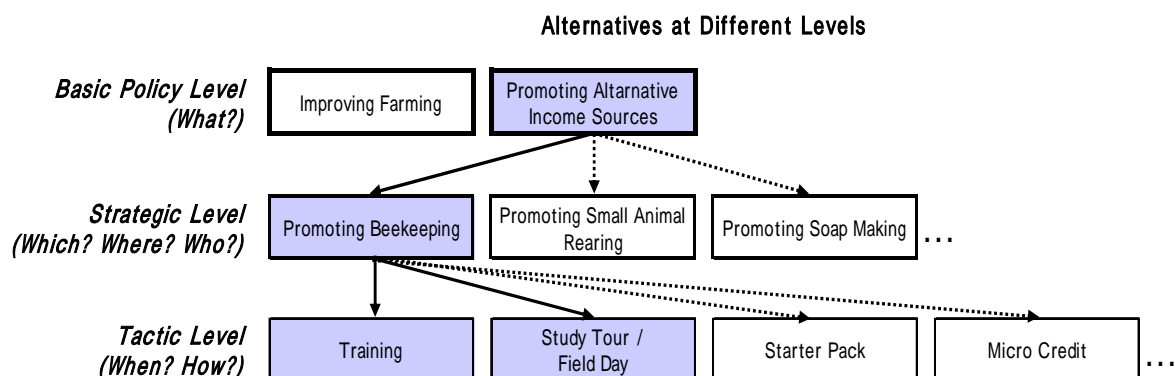
Also through workshops or through key informant interviews, the opinions of the stronger voices tend to be reflected more. We need to listen to the opinions of the weaker voices i.e. marginalized people directly to complement that.



Targets of Interviews

(2) Planning and Decision Making

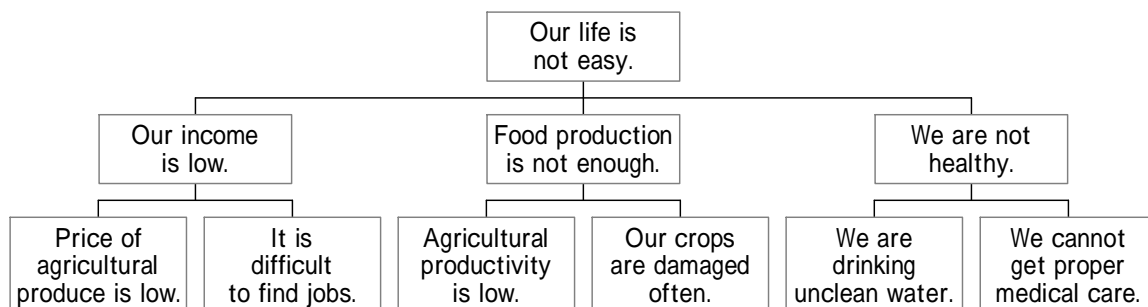
To do planning and decision making rationally and structurally, we need to plan and decide basic policy first, then strategies and then tactics from macro point of view in top-down manner. If villagers want to increase their income, they need to decide the basic policy whether to improve farming or to start alternative income generation activity. Then if they have decided to start an alternative, there are options of beekeeping, handy craft and etc. Finally if they start beekeeping, we need to think about how to do it: how to do the training, do we take group approach or not. To design a program or project, we need to choose and make decisions from alternatives at basic policy level, alternatives at strategic level and then alternatives at tactical level. This strategic process of planning and decision making is necessary prior to fully design the program or project.



Strategic Decision Making Process

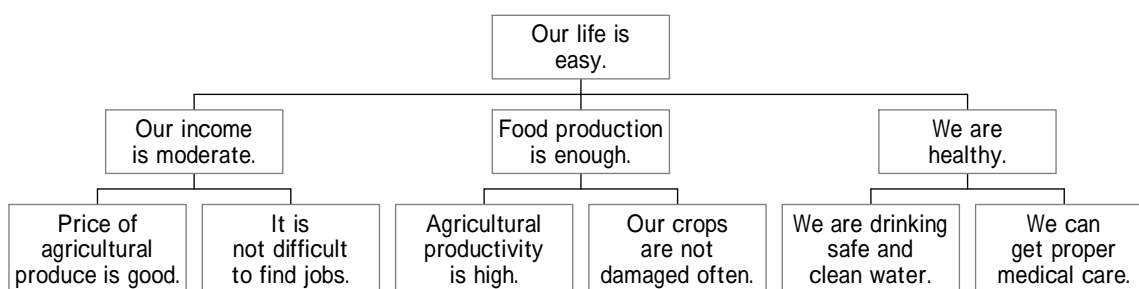
If we think about the development of the whole area and the development of the community, and if we think about planning from wider point of view rather than choosing and designing just a single program or project, we need to prioritize all the programs or projects necessary to develop the area or the community for the future. During the information sharing workshops at 12 fringe communities of Tain One and Nsemere Forest Reserves, “Life is

difficult” was chosen as the core problem to start with because some of the major objectives of the workshops were to learn how the participants prioritize the direction of the development of the communities, and how they locate IGAs in future development of their communities. Through problem analysis, we asked them if they prioritize income, food production, or health at strategic level, and then what do they want to do to increase their income at tactic level. We tried to give them a platform so that they can compare and prioritize easily at each level of decision making process.



An Example of Problem Analysis

If you convert a problem analysis into an objectives analysis, it becomes a development plan for the community to show the direction of development. By arranging possible alternatives by levels such as basic policy, strategy and tactics, we can make it easier to plan and make decisions especially in participatory manner.



An Example of Objectives Analysis

Example of Objectively Verifiable Indicators

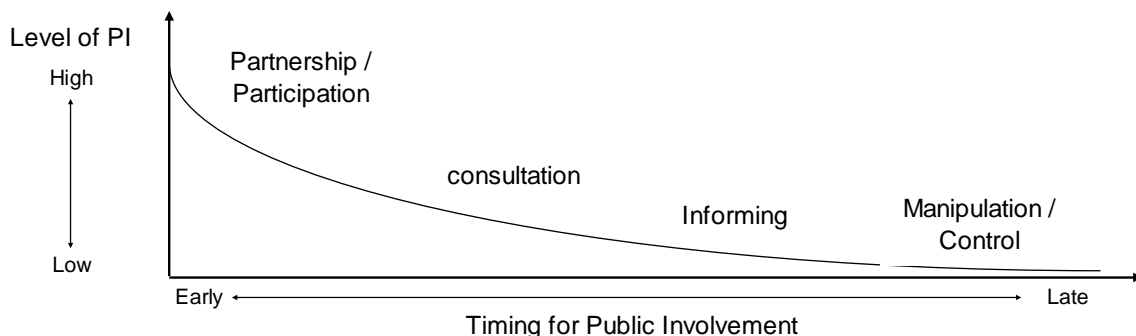
Approach (Broad Aim to Be Achieved in Medium Term)		Strategy (Objective of the Program)		Outputs (Immediate Results to Be Achieved by Specific Programs / Projects)		
Goal of Approach	Goal Indicator	Outcome of Strategy	Outcome Indicator	Program	Outputs of Program	Output Indicator
We have enough food	<i>Food Production per population</i>	We are using proper crop and animal husbandry practice	<i>Productivities of major crops and number of animals</i>	Crop Management and Development Programme	Ecological farming	<i>Number of farms applying technology</i>
					Farm planning	<i>Number of farmers applying rotational cropping</i>
					Compost manure utilization	<i>Number of farms applying compost manure</i>
				Livestock Improvement Programme	Fodder utilization	<i>Number of farmers using fodders</i>
					Disease control	<i>Number of farmers applying medicines for animals</i>
					Cow shed improvement	<i>Number of farmers having cow shed</i>

Also once we have a set of basic policy, strategies and tactics in a structured way, it makes us possible to have a set of objectively verifiable indicators for monitoring and evaluation. The logic used for objectives analysis can be applied for the indicators as well. For example, if the indicator(s) for price of agricultural produce goes up, the indicator(s) for income is expected to go up.

(1) Participation

In data collection and analysis, or in survey and science at large, people are the object of study so that we try to collect data which are useful to us. In participation, however, we need to think how people can participate in decision making. It is not us outsiders who collect data, analyze and make decisions, it is the beneficiaries who collect data, analyze and make decisions. The issue is what outsiders can do for the beneficiaries to make decisions.

If we are thinking of a conventional public projects and programs, it is the administration who implements the project or program. It is a good project or program, as long as it reflects the real needs of the community. Then the level of public involvement (PI) is determined by the timing of involvement of the beneficiaries. If beneficiaries can be involved to make decisions at basic policy or strategic level, the level of PI can be partnership or participation. If they can be involved at the selection of the projects or programs, it can be consultation. However if they are informed after the designing of the project or program, it is only informing. People cannot participate after the project or program was selected and designed.

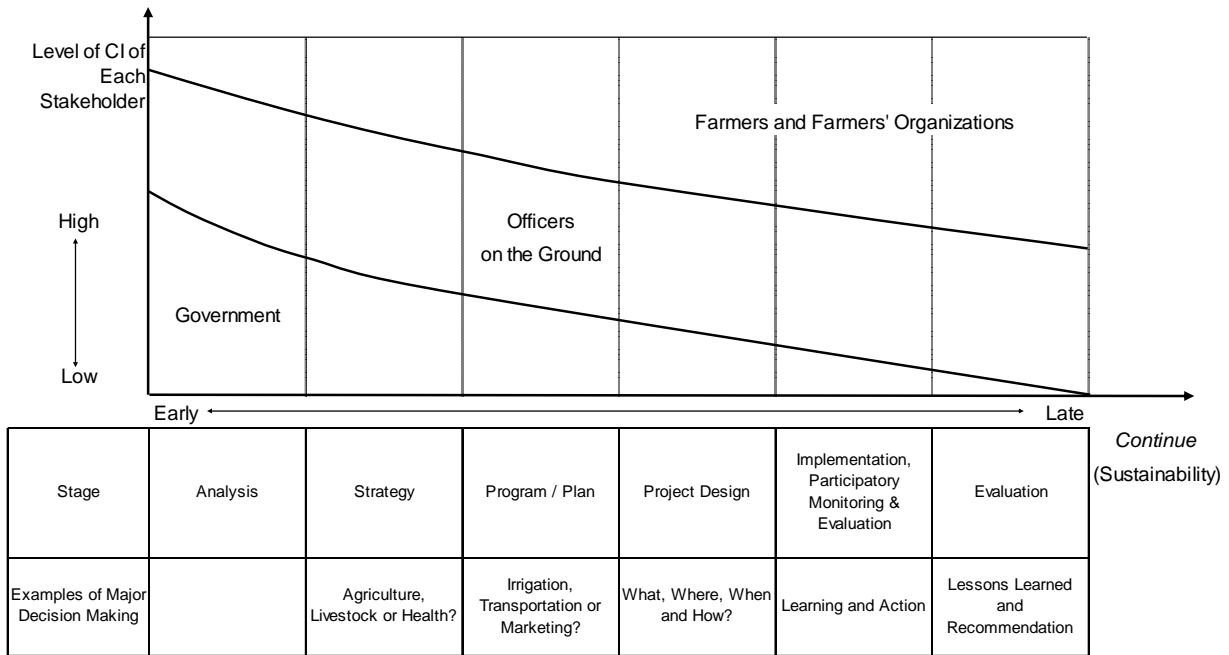


Planning Stage <i>How far do we decide?</i>	Policy / Strategy <i>What?</i>	Project Selection <i>Where?</i>	Project Design <i>How?</i>	Implementaion <i>Modification</i>
Scheme of Technical Cooperation	M/P-type Development Study	F/s-type Development Study	Scoping for Project-type Cooperation	Project-type Technical Cooperation
Important Tools of ZOPP* / PCM**	Stakeholder / Problem / Objectives Analysis	Project Prioritization / Selection	Logical Framework (PDM)	Plan of Operation, Monitoring & Evaluation
Einvironmental Impact Assessment	Policy, Strategy Assessment	Plan, Program Assessment	Project Assessment	Monitoring

Level of Public Involvement in Public Programs and projects

Ownership during implementation and then post-implementation rather than planning is the key for social development programs and projects. In these programs and projects, it is essential to increase the level of committed involvement (CI) through planning and implementation. Though it might be the project managing unit who plays the main role in analysis and planning, it must be community facilitators on the ground and then leaders in the villages who become the main actors of the project. Or the project is not sustainable at all and we cannot expect endogenous development.

In these participatory programs and projects, or people’s programs and projects, the role of the administration is also totally different. If the administration chooses a project by their own values, or takes input and resource oriented approach which leads to dependency, it is impossible for the people to take ownership on their own initiative. Therefore, it is necessary for the administration to participate to the people, not to involve people to the project; to plan and design the project in their shoes; and to try to follow the decision made by the people.



Level of Participation / Ownership in Social Development Programs and Projects

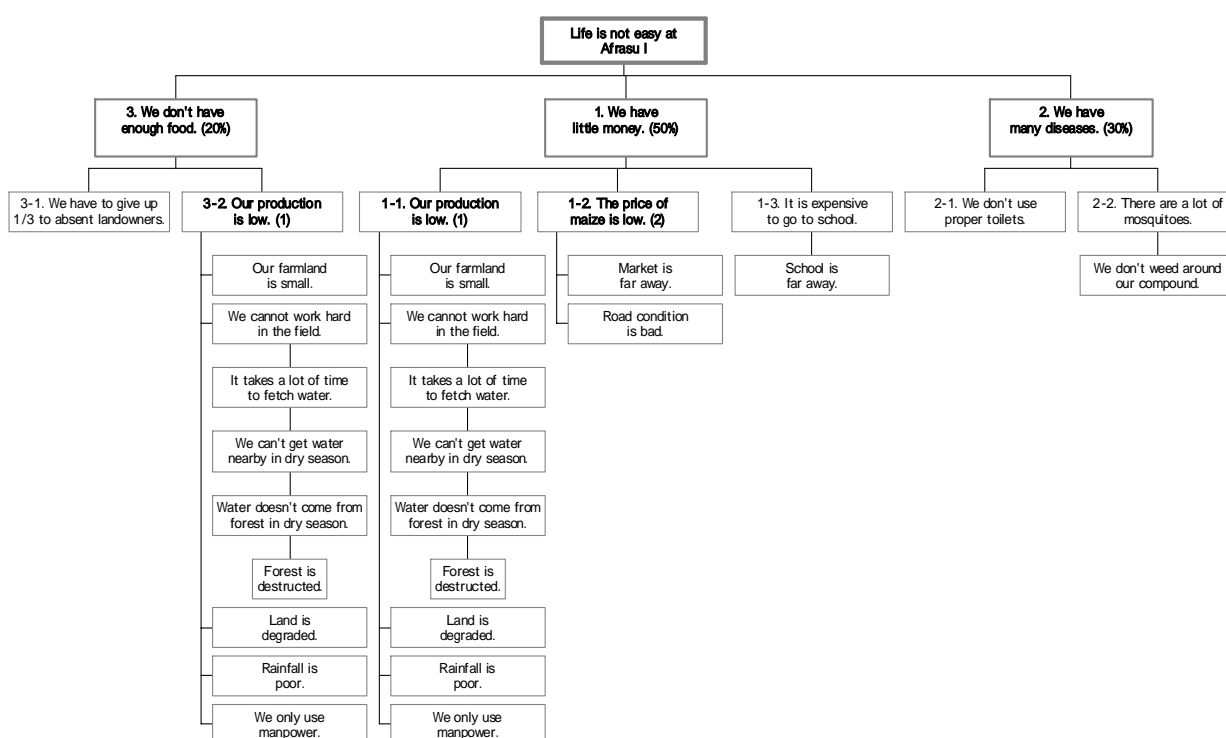
Greenbelt Activities of PAFORM are being done in the forest reserves just like Improved Taungya, therefore it is considered as a conventional approach where FSD calls and involves good public to the reserves. In IGAs of PAFORM, however, FSD needs to go out from the reserves and to participate in the development of the fringe communities. A paradigm shift of participatory forest management in the forest reserves to an integrated one with both reserves and the communities might be the essential meaning of IGAs in PAFORM.

CHAPTER 3 EXPERIENCES OF COMMUNITY FACILITATORS OF PAFORM

“Experience is the best teacher” according to an old proverb, based on this word, some experiences and lessons learned by C/F through PAFORM activities are introduced in this chapter. At the Facilitation Training (2), there were some scenes observed that C/Fs and FSD field staff exchanged their experiences. It is very desirable to disseminate these experiences for extension of PAFORM activity to other areas.

1) Information Sharing W/S

One of the important components of PAFORM Model, which makes PAFORM project unique, is information sharing W/S at the communities. PAFORM is regarded as a project for FR conservation; however, the W/S focused not only on matters in forestry field but also whole topics the community faces. The following problem tree is one of the W/S results in Afrasu I community in 2006.



When this W/S was implemented, both FSD personnel and C/F did not understand the reason why the core problem was set as “Life is difficult”, despite PAFORM is targeting further participatory forest resource management. However, it is clear that the people’s most important issues are not always the ones related to forest degradation, but it is more likely poverty (“We have little money” in the figure above) caused by low production, insufficient water for drinking and farming and so on judging from the problem tree above. JICA Advisory Team repeatedly explained that those who protect the FR are the people, therefore, PAFORM has to consider what the problems are for the people. It took times for them to understand the concept, however, they regard the idea as right direction at present.

2) Deployment of Community Facilitator Assistants

When C/Fs were deployed in their responsible communities in PAFORM, they needed to request the people to assist them, for example, assisting community W/S arrangement. Based on the request, three (3) community members were selected in each community. C/F called them as Community Facilitator Assistants. However, the all selected assistants were male.

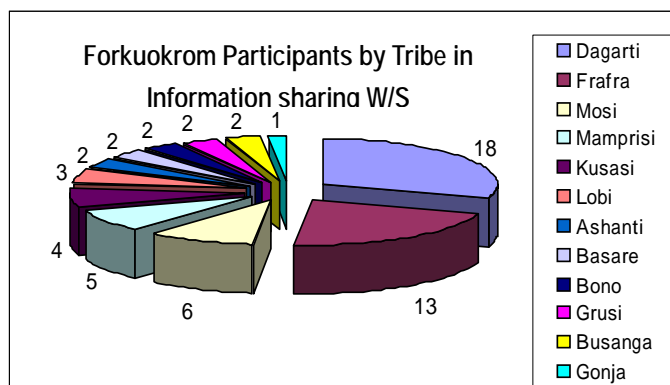
It is common for female not to see with men besides their husbands even at meetings of communities according to C/F. Their tradition and custom cannot be ignored, however, this situation was not favorable in terms of gender equality. Based on internal discussions on this issue among PAFORM management, C/Fs requested their communities with careful consideration to select three (3) female assistants in addition to existing three male assistants.

Fortunately, this idea was accepted and welcomed by all the target communities. There are no differences between male and female assistants in terms of their functions. Female assistants can motivate other women's participation in the activities of PAFORM. Generally, the assistants are very helpful for C/Fs, especially for message transmission from C/F to whole community members. They are even not paid. If C/F were withdrawn from the communities after the project, the assistants would be expected to play an important role such as contact persons with FSD.

3) Green Belt (GB) Member Selection

When the idea of GB was introduced in each community in 2006, many people welcomed it and they had a wish to join in GB activities. However, the area to be allocated for fruit tree plantation is limited to only 1.2ha per community. Therefore, a careful consideration for the member selection was required to avoid jealousy and so on.

The criteria for the member selection depend on the conditions of communities. For example, in Forkuokrom there are 12 tribes such as Dagarti, Frafra, Mosi and so on according to the information sharing W/S in 2006 (see the figure at right hand). The people tend to think that the same tribe are brothers and to make groups among the same tribes. The C/F had to consider tribal balance carefully to avoid any conflict as much as possible, while it was very tough work for him. Under the C/F's supervision, the people selected GB members taking into consideration the tribe balance.



On the other hand, the first priority to be selected as a member is his/her motivation in Afrasu I. In addition, since the original candidates for the GB members mainly consisted of male, the responsible C/F facilitated the people to select taking into consideration gender balance.

By the grace of C/Fs, the selection was complete without serious conflicts in all the target communities. Apparently, C/Fs of Tain I had to struggle for right GB member selection since they were the first runner for this activity.

4) Challenges Concerning Snack/Lunch Provision

The principle regarding lunch/snack provision to the communities in PAFORM is as follows; PAFORM provides foods to participants only when the project organizes W/S or surveys in the communities that need more than three hours for the purpose of data collection. In case of GB activities and IGA, these activities are regarded as the participation of the community members for their own benefit. Therefore, PAFORM provides only water sachets to the communities in view of sustainability after the PAFORM project. Since it is common for Ghanaian to provide something to

eat and drink for participants in trainings, meetings etc., it seemed to be difficult for C/Fs to accept the principle.

At early stage, it was very tough for C/F to explain the concept and to make the people understand the reason why PAFORM project does not provide foods for IGA and GB activities. When IGA trainings were commenced in the communities for the first time, there was a case that a person visited the project office to complain about the condition. He tended to agitate other people not to join in IGA trainings. PAFORM team discussed this issue and the responsible C/F and his supervisor, CSO, visited the person's place to persuade. The attempt was successful in virtue of their earnest altitude and polite explanation. Except for the incident, generally the people are motivated to participate in IGA training in spite of no food provision. Community regards the trainings as a good opportunity to acquire the new technical knowledge and information.

5) Conflict Management in GB Inner Rule Operation

GB members are supposed to establish an inner rule to manage GB properly and effectively. In the process of the operation, some conflicts emerged. C/Fs dedicated themselves to settle down these matters.

In Kobedi community, there was a severe conflict over the GB inner rule application. There are some penalty clauses such as fine payment, however, some of them were very rigid to be applied in the field. There was a series of hot arguments whether the offenders have to pay following the rule completely or not. After the repeated meetings, the issue was settled down among the members under the C/F's supervision. Based on the experience, the people modified the rigid clause for flexible and practical operation.

In Kofitwumkrom, several goats encroached into the GB area and ate some buds of citrus seedlings, which was not serious, though. Based on the GB inner rule, the members slaughtered the goats and shared the meat among the members. However, the goat owner is not a member of GB group and he did not have an intention to follow the GB inner rule. He denounced to the police the members of killing his goat.

The community chief visited PAFORM office to consult this issue and PAFORM team sent FSD staff to Nana at palace requesting intercession with the person. Nana dedicated himself to settle down the issue and the person withdrew his report to the police based on Nana's suggestion. This incident called for the amendment of the inner rule at this community, too. Since this issue was beyond the C/F, PAFORM management had to move for the solution. However, the C/F was concerned into the rule modification.

6) Collaboration with Other Agencies except for MOFA

The most important line agency in PAFORM is probably MOFA, however, PAFORM management is mainly in charge of negotiation with MOFA staff. C/F did not have opportunities to interrelate with MOFA so often and closely. However, there are some successful trials aiming at community development by C/F in collaboration with other agencies except for MOFA. Even though PAFORM management did not request or instruct them in advance to interrelate with them, based on the needs of communities, some C/F moved by themselves.

Seemingly, the attempt to be taken note is borehole construction in Afrasu I community. The C/F succeeded in acquisition of fund from the Sunyani Municipal Assembly for the borehole construction, since community could not shoulder the 5% of total construction fee, which is supposed to be paid by

a recipient community. When PAFORM was just commenced, people in Afrasu I had to spend around two hours per time for fetching water and they had to go to the water source several times per day during the dry season, which led to time shortage for them, especially women, to work for cash income generation. This problem was solved to some extent by the C/F's excellent works.

Health field is also paid attention by C/Fs. A female C/F is interested in the solution of health issues in her communities. She invited some nurses, personnel of the Ministry of Health and organized trainings regarding diet, family planning, sanitation. In addition to her, another C/F also organized a family planning training in Afrasu I inviting maternity nurse of the Ministry of Health as a lecturer.

C/Fs have worked in diversified field not only focusing on forestry matters as described above so far. It is natural that the problems that C/Fs try to solve are listed ones in the problem trees developed by the communities. C/Fs consider the needs and demands of people and what PAFORM can do for the people at first. As probably their altitude was accepted and trusted by communities, it led the change of community's impression toward FSD.



The constructed borehole in Afrasu I