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participatory learning and action

Practical tools for community conservation in southern Africa



December 2006

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participatory learning and action

Participatory Learning and Action, (formerly *PLA Notes* and *RRA Notes*), is published three times a year in April, August, and December. Established in 1987, *Participatory Learning and Action* enables practitioners of participatory methodologies from around the world to share their field experiences, conceptual reflections, and methodological innovations. The series is informal and seeks to publish frank accounts, address issues of practical and immediate value, encourage innovation, and act as a 'voice from the field'.

We are grateful to the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) and the UK Department for International Development (DFID) for their continued financial support of *Participatory Learning and Action*. This special issue has been supported by the WWF Southern Africa Regional Programme (WWF-SARPO), WWF-UK, and the IUCN Southern Africa Sustainable Use Specialist Group (SASUSG). The views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the funding organisations or the employers of the authors.

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Cover illustration: Regina Faul-Doyle

Design and layout: Smith+Bell

Printed by: Russell Press, Nottingham, UK

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Participatory development

Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) is an umbrella term for a wide range of similar approaches and methodologies, including Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), Participatory Learning Methods (PALM), Participatory Action Research (PAR), Farming Systems Research (FSR), Méthod Active de Recherche et de Planification Participative (MARPP), and many others. The common theme to all these approaches is the full **participation** of people in the processes of **learning** about their needs and opportunities, and in the **action** required to address them.

The methods used range from visualisation, to interviewing and group work. The common theme is the promotion of interactive learning, shared knowledge, and flexible, yet structured analysis. These methods have proven valuable for understanding local perceptions of the functional value of resources, processes of agricultural intervention, and social and institutional relations.

In recent years, there has been a number of shifts in the scope and focus of participation:

- emphasis on sub-national, national and international decision-making, not just local decision-making;
- move from projects to policy processes and institutionalisation;
- greater recognition of issues of difference and power; and,
- emphasis on assessing the quality and understanding the impact of participation, rather than simply promoting participation.

Recent issues of *Participatory Learning and Action* have reflected, and will continue to reflect, these developments and shifts. We particularly recognise the importance of analysing and overcoming power differentials which work to exclude the already poor and marginalised.

participatory learning and action

Number 55
December 2006

CONTENTS

Photo: Nicole Kenton



Sam Murinye discusses his paper at the PLA 55 Writeshop, Pretoria, South Africa, 12 May 2006

THEME SECTION

1. Practical tools for community conservation in southern Africa <i>Brian Child and Brian Jones</i>	6
2. Community conservation and participatory policy processes in southern Africa <i>Brian Jones, David Mulolani and Brian Child</i>	13
3. Revenue distribution for empowerment and democratisation <i>Brian Child</i>	20
4. Building capacity for local-level management through participatory technology development <i>Lilian Goredema, Ivan Bond and Russell Taylor</i>	30
5. Marketing hunting and tourism joint ventures in community areas <i>Brian Child and Chris Weaver</i>	37
6. Community-managed tourism small enterprises in Namibia <i>Andee Davidson with Reuben Mufati and Usiel Ndjavera</i>	45
7. Making financial training fun: the CAMPFIRE game <i>Sam Murinye, Lilian Goredema, and Ivan Bond</i>	56
8. Participatory wildlife quota setting <i>Norman Rigava, Russell Taylor, and Lilian Goredema</i>	62
9. The event book system: community-based monitoring in Namibia <i>Greg Stuart-Hill with Richard Diggle, Bevan Munali, Jo Tagg and David Ward</i>	70
10. PGIS and mapping for conservation in Namibia <i>Jo Tagg and Julie Taylor</i>	79
11. Using theatre in participatory environmental policy making <i>Tamara Guhrs, Liz Rihoy and Miranda Guhrs</i>	87

GENERAL SECTION

12. Inspire: a UK participatory public art evaluation <i>Christopher Hartworth and Joanne Hartworth</i>	95
13. Piloting a methodology to investigate poverty dynamics <i>Tariq Omar Ali, Mehnaz Rabbani and Munshi Sulaiman</i>	101
14. Using participatory video to develop youth leadership skills in Colombia <i>Harriet Menter, Maria Cecilia Roa, Omar Felipe Beccera, Clara Roa and Wilson Celemin</i>	107
15. Survey results: PLA 54 Mapping for Change – practice, technologies and communications <i>Holly Ashley</i>	115

REGULARS

Editorial	2
Tips for trainers	124
In Touch	130
RCPLA Network	138

editorial

Welcome to the 55th issue of *Participatory Learning and Action*. It only seems yesterday that we produced our 50th anniversary issue!

This special theme issue is on

Practical tools for community conservation in southern Africa.

It includes articles on tools for facilitating community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) and lessons learnt from these experiences from countries in the southern Africa region.

This issue began with a concept note back in January 2005 following a meeting between Nicole Kenton (co-editor of PLA) and Ivan Bond of ILED, and Russell Taylor, conservation director of WWF-SARPO.¹

Russell Taylor played a major role in getting this issue off the ground. He has a strong association with CBNRM through his involvement with Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE² programme before and since its inception and previous employment with the Department of National Parks & Wildlife Management. He was project leader for WWF's Support to CAMPFIRE (SupCamp) project (1994–2000). Recently Russell has been more widely involved regionally with the further development and implementation of CBNRM programmes through WWF's regional CBNRM training and capacity building project.

Why southern Africa?

In southern Africa, a significant proportion of wilderness and wildlife habitat is found outside state managed protected areas. In the mid-1970s, legislative changes in

Zimbabwe, South Africa and Namibia allowed private landowners to manage and directly benefit from wildlife resources. Following the success of these reforms, and commencing in the 1980s, various programmes were initiated in southern Africa to grant proprietorship over wildlife and wildlife habitat to communal land farmers. You can find examples of these programmes in the overview to this special issue (article 1).

It was felt that many multi-disciplinary analyses of these CBNRM programmes had been published in formal journals and books over the last 15 years, but that these largely academic analyses tended to focus on the social, ecological and economic impacts of the programmes.³

Generally there has been very little attention given to the **tools** that have been developed by the facilitators and implementers of the CBNRM programmes. This special edition of *PLA* has allowed practitioners from across southern Africa to document and share their experiences with tools that are being and have been developed. These tools are necessary because protected area approaches to wildlife management are, in most cases, inappropriate for replication in the communal areas.

The common theme in almost all of the tools has been the highly **participatory and iterative processes** between communities and technical facilitators, with strong personal relationships developing over a number of years. The tools have inevitably arisen as part of an adaptive

management process in response to emerging needs of communities as they have absorbed more authority and benefits. This has always been far more than a technical process of developing tools: the purpose of many, if not all, of the tools has been to encourage the devolution of managerial rights, and the tool development process has inevitably and purposefully addressed both technical rigour and absolute changes in power relationships.

In addition, **transfer to other regions** was deemed to be both timely and important as community-based natural resource management approaches are being applied outside of southern Africa. A collation of lessons and innovative tools will be an important resource for facilitators in other regions.

In all the countries mentioned these are national programmes that are ongoing processes, which will evolve and change over time. Given the nature of the process it is essential that there is some form of **institutional memory**. A collation of recent and current tools will contribute to this memory. This collection of tools and experiences will also form an important resource for both Mozambique and Angola. For this reason, we are hoping to raise funds to translate this special edition into Portuguese.

Writershop process

In May 2006, with funding gratefully received from IUCN Southern African Sustainable Use Specialist Group (SASUSG),⁴ WWF-UK and WWF-SARPO,⁵ we held a day's writershop

¹ World Wide Fund for Nature Southern Africa Regional Programme Office.

² Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources.

³ Three recent books published are *Parks in Transition* (Child et al. 2004), *African Wildlife and Livelihoods* (Hulme and Murphree 2001) and *Rights, Resources and Rural Development: Community Based Natural Resource Management in Southern Africa* (Fabricius et al. 2004).

⁴ SASUSG is a specialist group of IUCN's Species Survival Commission.

⁵ Funding from WWF SARPO originated from NORAD (the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation) through WWF Norway and the WWF Regional CBNRM Training and Capacity Building Project.

Participants at the PLA 55 Writeshop, Pretoria, South Africa, 12 May 2006. Front row (seated) Sam Murinye. Second row from left to right: Russell Taylor, David Mulolani, Lilian Goredema, Shingirai Mandizadza, Brian Jones, Nicole Kenton. Back row from left to right: Tamara Guhrs, Brian Child, Greg Stuart-Hill, Michael Murphree, Andee Davidson



during the week of the SASUSG meeting in Pretoria, South Africa. This was ably facilitated by Russell Taylor and enabled the participants to learn more about the *PLA* editorial process, and provided an opportunity for the guest editors, Brian Child and Brian Jones, to discuss the draft articles with the principal authors. It also allowed all to brainstorm the overview article by identifying common threads running through the articles. See article 1 for this overview, as well as a short introduction to each of the papers.

Participants at the writeshop were: Brian Child, Andee Davidson, Lilian Goredema, Tamara Guhrs, Brian Jones, Nicole Kenton, Misael Kokwe, Shingirai Mandizadza, David Mulolani, Sam Murinye, Michael Murphree, Greg Stuart-Hill and Russell Taylor.

Guest editors

Our two guest editors have spent long hours coordinating, collating, editing and refining the articles. We thank them for their tireless efforts and energy.

Brian Child is an associate professor in the Department of Geography and Center for African Studies at the University of Florida. He is a former government official in Zimbabwe's Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management, where he supported both private conservation and coordinated the CAMPFIRE programme. He was technical advisor to the NORAD-funded Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Programme in Zambia supporting a community programme and a park for six years. He has also worked as a private consultant in park and community management in southern and East

Africa. Brian was a Rhodes Scholar at Oxford where he got a D.Phil in the ecology and economics of wildlife enterprises in African savannas.

Brian Jones is an independent environment and development consultant focusing mostly on policy development and implementation of CBNRM. He is Namibian and currently works as CBNRM and Collaborative Management advisor to the Namibian Ministry of Environment and Tourism. He is a former government official in the Namibian Directorate of Environmental Affairs where he coordinated the national CBNRM programme. Brian has an M.Phil in Applied Social Sciences.

Acknowledgements

In addition to the two guest editors and all the authors, we would like to thank Russell Taylor and Ivan Bond for their invaluable support and advice on this issue. Our thanks also go to Josephine Charinga from IUCN

in Pretoria who was responsible for all the travel and logistics associated with the writeshop. We again express our thanks to WWF-SARPO and its regional CBNRM project, in particular Harrison Ochieng Kojwang, WWF-UK, in particular Mark Wright, and the IUCN SASUSG for supporting this special issue.

We also express our deep regret and sadness on receiving the news of the unfortunate and untimely death of Mr Morse Nanchengwa in a road accident in Zimbabwe in September 2005. Morse was the coordinator of the Regional CBNRM Project in WWF-SARPO and would have facilitated this issue of *PLA*. He had been actively working on the funding and getting commitments from authors.

General section

We have three general articles in this section. Firstly, **Christopher and Joanne Hartworth** describe their experiences of doing a participatory evaluation of

the Inspire public art programme in South East Northumberland, UK. The evaluation sought to find out whether several of Inspire's key objectives were achieved. The authors raise a number of interesting issues about using participatory approaches in public art programmes.

In the second general article, **Tariq Omar Ali, Mehnaz Rabbani and Munshi Sulaiman** share their experiences of refining a participatory method to investigate poverty dynamics of the extreme poor in Bangladesh following programme interventions. Although some changes were apparent, the families did not move up or down in the wealth ranks defined by the community. So the authors refined the method, resulting in valuable insights about the perceptions of change and mobility of the extreme poor.

Finally, our third general article is by **Harriet Menter, Maria Cecilia Roa, Omar Felipe Beccera, Clara Roa and Wilson Celemin**. Here, the authors focus on using participatory video (PV) with young people from a rural conflict zone in Colombia. PV was used to help them focus on their leadership skills, and proved to be a powerful tool for working with young people.

Regular features

Tips for trainers

In this section, we share some of the tools developed within the CAMPFIRE programme for community use, from the Wildlife Management Series produced by WWF-SARPO through collaboration with rural communities.

We present three tips from the *District Quota Setting Toolbox*.

In touch

These pages include book reviews, events and training courses, as well as on-line resources.

RCPLA update

Latest news from the coordinators of the Resource Centres for Participatory Learning and Action (RCPLA) network.

Follow-up to *PLA 54 Mapping for Change – practice, technologies and communications*

Survey results

On pages 115-123 we present the results of the online readership survey of our last issue. The feedback from you has been very encouraging and we thank all who took part.

Multilingual CD Rom

Responses to our readership survey from community groups in the South were low, partly reflecting the difficulty of on-line access, but also the fact that English is not always an accessible language. We hope to address the language issue by producing a multilingual CD Rom of the theme articles from *PLA 54*. The articles have been translated into Arabic, Chinese (traditional and modern), French, Portuguese, Spanish and Swahili. Bangla, Farsi, Hindi and Tamil are in the pipeline. The CD Rom is being produced in collaboration with CTA (Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation), who co-published *PLA 54*, and will

also include multimedia and additional resources on the practice of participatory geographic information systems (PGIS). Additional financial contributions are still being sought so please get in touch if you are able to help. For more information, please contact Nicole Kenton at IIED (Nicole.Kenton@iied.org).

Multimedia multilingual training kit on Participatory Spatial Information Management and Communication

IIED is collaborating on another exciting initiative led by CTA. Feedback from our survey and from the *Mapping for Change* conference in September last year indicated a need to develop and share a multilingual modular training package covering participatory mapping practices to be used by technology intermediaries including practitioners, activists and researchers. See our next issue for more information.

Next issue

Our next issue, no 56, will be a general issue. We are also planning some exciting theme issues for 2007 and beyond, including the unspoken dilemmas of participation (see page 140 for more information), community radio, participatory video and face-to-face learning. As always, please send us articles on your experiences for future issues. Guidelines for contributors can be found on the inside back cover, or on our website www.planotes.org.

Last but not least we welcome Holly Ashley as a fully fledged co-editor of *PLA*!

theme section

1

Practical tools for community conservation in southern Africa

by BRIAN CHILD and BRIAN JONES

Introduction

Community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) is an approach to conservation and rural development that has been applied in southern Africa for more than 15 years. It is based on the premise that if local people have a large degree of control over their natural resources and are able to benefit from management then they are likely to use these resources sustainably. CBNRM developed in the wildlife sector when a number of governments in the region began devolving rights over the use of wildlife to local communities in the late 1980s and early 1990s. The approach built on the successful devolution of rights over wildlife on private freehold land in the 1960s in South Africa, Namibia and Zimbabwe in particular. Farmers were given the right to use and benefit from wildlife and they began to see it as a sustainable source of income instead of competition for grazing with their livestock. The result in these countries was the considerable increase of wildlife on freehold land, improving markets, products and prices for wildlife, and the development of major wildlife industries, making significant contributions to national economies.

Enlightened government officials in several countries in the region began extending this approach to the communal areas resulting in a number of different CBNRM

Box 1: Some CBNRM programmes in southern Africa

Namibia: Communal Conservancies
 Zimbabwe: Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE)
 Botswana: Natural Resource Management Programme
 Zambia: Administrative and Design Programme (ADMADE) and
 Luangwa Integrated Rural Development Project (LIRD)
 Mozambique: Tchuma-Chatu

programmes developed according to each particular country context (Box 1). All of these programmes grant some level of proprietorship (decision-making authority and the right to benefit) over wildlife and wildlife habitat to communal land farmers.

A number of multi-disciplinary analyses of these programmes have been published over the last 15 years. The formal literature emphasises the social, ecological, political and economic impacts of the programmes but has not been good at capturing the sophistication and multi-disciplinarity of the oral and grey knowledge network, which is particularly strong in the region. It also pays little attention to the practical tools and methods that have been so important in translating the theory of CBNRM into on-the-ground progress.

Community theatre in action: actors depicting crop raiding baboons, performed by the SEKA drama group.



Photo: Miranda Guhrs

It appears that two spheres of knowledge are emerging. There is an academic network publishing in journals that practitioners seldom read. And there is an oral knowledge network borne over decades of personal relationships to which academics have very limited access. The purpose of this special issue of *Participatory Learning and Action*, therefore, is to enable practitioners from across southern Africa to document and share their experiences of developing practical management tools to support CBNRM. We hope this will provide an important resource for facilitators and practitioners within southern Africa, especially Mozambique and Angola which are emerging from extended periods of conflict and are looking at implementing CBNRM approaches. We also hope that facilitators and practitioners in other parts of the world will find the ideas and approaches described here interesting and useful.

Elements of CBNRM

Tools, by their nature, need to be simple to be useful. But simple does not imply simplistic, indeed the very opposite. Amongst the practitioners who have developed CBNRM in southern Africa is a strong belief in the effectiveness of empowering local people, both for conservation and the alleviation of various forms of poverty. Conservation legislation has long marginalised rural people from their resources. There is a moral imperative for people who live with wild resources to re-assume control of these resources. There is also an economic imperative: unless wild resources are managed by and benefit local people, they will be replaced by land use alternatives that are less sustainable, particularly in the drylands of southern Africa. Finally, unless local people

acquire an increasing degree of proprietorship it is highly unlikely that resources will be valued or conserved (using the word 'conserve' in the sense of wise and efficient use).

Based on this philosophy, implementing the CBNRM approach in southern Africa is characterised by the transfer of rights by government to a community-based organisation (CBO) that has a committee that represents the local community, usually has a constitution, and has a defined area of authority, and a defined membership or group of resource users. Once the CBO receives the rights over wildlife from government it is able to enter into contracts with hunting and photographic tourism companies to develop enterprises based on different forms of wildlife use. Some CBOs also run their own enterprises such as campsites and fishing camps. The CBOs also engage in natural resource management activities such as wildlife monitoring, mitigation of human-wildlife conflict and local land-use planning. The CBO committees need to account to local residents for the income received and expenditure, and all residents need to agree on how the profit from the CBO contracts and enterprises will be used for community benefit.

CBNRM therefore comprises three major components:

- resource management;
- enterprise development; and
- organisational and institutional development including promoting good governance and democratic decision-making.

Indeed, in shifting discretionary and economic power over resources to communities, CBNRM provides an important, and rare, experiment in applied democratic governance. Local communities involved in CBNRM need to address all three components in their CBNRM activities. Those government officials, NGO personnel and private sector individuals involved in supporting these CBOs have over a number of years developed various tools to assist communities in this task.

Tools have also been developed to address the need for further policy reform. Although governments in southern Africa have devolved rights over wildlife to local communities, these rights are usually limited and highly conditional. Government often keeps control of key areas of decision-making. In some programmes communities are able to enter into direct relationships with the private sector and keep all the income. In other programmes government agencies enter into these contracts and then share the revenue with the local community. Much of the analysis of CBNRM in southern Africa suggests that in order to build on existing successes, governments need to devolve more rights to

Participatory rural appraisal training for the SupCamp team



Photo: Barbara Wyckoff-Baird

communities and remove more of the bureaucratic barriers that slow down the development of wildlife as a sustainable form of land use. For these reasons, practitioners have also developed various tools for increasing community participation in policy development and for enabling the voice of communities to be heard by policy makers at national and international level.

From tools to empowerment

Although many of the tools described in this special issue of *Participatory Learning and Action* appear to be technical in nature, they often have more profound implications. For example an activity such as quota setting appears on the surface to be a technical process, but has important implications for devolution of management rights to communities.

The various processes and data that support quota setting, including the counting of animals and monitoring of hunting off-take, soon provide communities with considerable knowledge and information. In the short term, wildlife departments have been reluctant to let go of their power to set quotas, even when their own technical resources are woeful. Within a decade or so, there comes a time when communities have considerably better data than wildlife agencies, and have accumulated a track record of sustainable hunting management. This makes it increasingly difficult for the authorities to exclude them from the quota setting and management process, and leads to the accumulation of stronger rights.

Marketing of wildlife is another example where a technical process has important implications for economic and

**Summarising results of
community transects
for estimating trends
in wildlife**



Photo: Brian Sherry

managerial empowerment. In the late 1980s, there was a shift from the state setting the price for hunting and tourism concessions to open and competitive marketing by CBOs. This shift led to a considerable increase in prices and the empowerment of communities, who learnt how to choose their own private sector partners and negotiate their own contracts.

An interesting feature of the various tools and methodologies developed for CBNRM is the way state agencies have begun to adopt some of them themselves. The Management-orientated Monitoring System (MOMS) was developed by a number of NGO personnel working with local communities to assist the CBOs in their wildlife monitoring. Initially, state agencies were resistant to such innovations provided by NGOs. Nearly a decade later, the MOMS system is now rapidly spreading to communities throughout the region, but there is also a demand for this technology from several state conservation agencies.

Many of the tools described in this issue represent

considerable innovation, which has been driven by the need to find new methodologies to deal with new issues and circumstances. Much of the professional technical capacity in the region shifted its focus to CBNRM, and innovations occurred rapidly through strong and personal partnerships between key NGOs, professionals and communities. The opening up of wildlife management by the state to other entities has diversified the number and types of organisation involved. The interaction between state, private and community agencies has been an important factor driving innovation: where one sector is reluctant to change, innovations often occur in another, or cross-fertilisation takes place from one sector to another.

The tools

The tools that we describe in this issue have invariably been developed through a long and iterative relationship between practitioners and communities. It is interesting to note that these tools have evolved away from the more 'scientific'

approaches associated with protected areas, and have incorporated a great degree of collaborative adaptive management. Communities begin to manage a process, and progressively improve both the system and the data used for decision-making. Examples of these tools range from the event book system developed as part of MOMS in Namibia, to the quota-setting methodologies developed in Zimbabwe. Most of these tools have a technical focus, and many of them encourage wide participation from within the community. They often depend on sound institutional arrangements for effectiveness, yet it is interesting to note that institutional tools to improve transparency, participation, equity and accountability (and which prevent institutional dysfunction such as élite capture) remain in their infancy. This should probably emerge as a focus for further work.

All of the tools described have been developed using participatory methods. As the staff who developed them move elsewhere, it is valuable to capture some of this **institutional memory**.

What we have included

Within the region, a much larger range of tools has been developed than is described here. Some are still emerging. It is also our experience that manuals, of themselves, are often less important than the process that led to them: without participation there is little commitment or learning. Therefore, we have selected from a range of tools available, and have focused on those that are better developed. Moreover, we have usually not described the tools themselves, except briefly, though we refer the reader to where they can find these manuals or more detailed how-to-do-it descriptions (see, for example, Box 2 for a list of the tools developed under the CAMPFIRE programme and available to download online). Rather, we have described the processes whereby successful tools have evolved. The authors of each article acknowledge that they are writing on behalf of many other individuals who were involved in the development of these tools over time. This includes communities themselves, who provided ideas, often experimented with the methods and then provided their feedback and new ideas. In the following paragraphs, we will briefly describe each article and its implications.

The key to effective CBNRM has been major changes in policy and legislation that, to a greater or lesser extent, devolve power, authority, managerial rights and benefits to local communities. **Brian Jones, David Mulolani and Brian Child** discuss the process of changing policy and practice at

Box 2: Tools from the CAMPFIRE Wildlife Management Series

These tools were developed through the Support to CAMPFIRE Project (SupCamp 1994 to 2002), in which the World Wild Fund for Nature Southern Africa Region Programme Office (WWF SARPO) worked with farmers to develop participatory methods for community-based management. All are available to download at www.policy-powertools.org/related/campfire.html

Quota setting	Safari hunting
Electric fencing	District toolbox
Maintaining electric fencing	Fire management
Project planning	Problem animal reporting
Counting wildlife	CAMPFIRE game, board and rules
Financial management	Financial management toolbox
Marketing wildlife	Critical review of the SupCamp experience

the national level, but leave the actual analysis of policy to more academic journals. They focus on ways of involving local communities in the policy process. It is the regional wildlife authorities that have driven the process of devolution, and while diversification into other natural resources is a constant theme, this and other chapters reflect the reality that it is the wildlife policies that have been most innovative.

Benefit sharing is a constant theme in the literature on community development. **Brian Child** describes how revenue distribution has been used to encourage grassroots organisation, and also emphasises the differences between representational and participatory levels of governance. Interestingly, a specific management tool such as a manual has never been developed for participatory revenue allocation.

One of the major successes of the CBNRM programmes in southern Africa has been the participatory development of a wide range of management tools. **Lillian Goredema, Ivan Bond and Russell Taylor** describe the process of participatory technology development. More specific examples are provided for marketing (article 5), financial training (article 7) and quota setting (article 8). In all these cases, the tools are available in the form of manuals and toolboxes and can be made available to interested readers.

It is generally easier to succeed in CBNRM where communities can acquire and manage tangible benefits. **Brian Child and Chris Weaver** describe the development of relationships between communities and the private sector in the management of high-value safari hunting and high-end tourism operations. These processes have generated substantial revenues. They have also empowered rural

Learning financial management through the CAMPFIRE game



Photo: WWF Sup Camp project

black people in their relationships with a big-game sector that in the past tended to stamp over their 'rights' and regarded local people as a nuisance. **Andee Davison** with **Reuben Mutati** and **Usiel Ndjavera** describe the development of small-scale community tourism enterprises, with warnings that rigorous financial analysis and management systems are more important than good intentions. Noting that the democratic process and participatory institutions are critical for managing CBNRM effectively, they nevertheless suggest that business enterprises need a different, and more individualistic, institutional model.

We then turn to two important examples of management tools. **Sam Murinye**, **Lilian Goredema** and **Ivan Bond** describe how the CAMPFIRE game was developed to make financial training fun and help communities learn and practise using cash books, receipts and various forms of financial analysis. However, we note that keeping accurate sets of accounts is only one component of financial accountability: social accountability through full participation in agreeing annual priorities and budgets, and through regular (quarterly) feedback of financial and technical reporting is even more important.

Most of southern Africa's CBNRM programmes depend on the sustainable management of wildlife and trophy hunting. **Norman Rigava**, **Russell Taylor** and **Lilian Goredema** describe the development of participatory quota setting and its considerable power implications. The right of communities to set and allocate their own quotas, and their understanding of the biological and financial implications of wildlife management, is one of the cornerstones of effective CBNRM. Quota setting brings together a number of other natural resource management tools including animal counting, safari hunting management and resource monitoring.

At the moment in southern Africa, management infor-

"Much of the analysis of CBNRM in southern Africa suggests that in order to build on existing successes, governments need to devolve more rights to communities and remove more of the bureaucratic barriers that slow down the development of wildlife as a sustainable form of land use"

mation systems for tracking and adaptively managing various aspects of community development and resource management are emerging as a very powerful tool. These information systems have widespread implications for empowering local communities, and for improving the effectiveness and sustainability of management. Moreover, where these tools provide regular and transparent information they also provide the conditions for the emergence of local innovation and evolution, ranging from wildlife management to governance. These tools were first developed for monitoring natural resource management. **Greg Stuart-Hill** with **Richard Diggle**, **Bevan Munali**, **Jo Tagg** and **David Ward** describes how participatory monitoring was developed.

The failure of so much land-use planning points to the considerable scope we have to capture local knowledge and to increase the level of local influence in resource-use assessment and land-use planning. GIS is a powerful tool in support of local management. Jo Tagg, Greg Stuart-Hill and Tony Robertson describe the participatory use of GIS.

In the final article in this special issue, **Tamara Guhrs**, **Liz Rihoy** and **Miranda Guhrs** describe how theatre has been developed as an important communication tool ranging from local villages to international conventions. In the early 1990s, southern Africans were intensely frustrated when solid technical arguments for sustainable use proved so ineffective at international fora. They experimented with the use of local theatre to communicate the importance of sustainable use and the political economic implications of conservation internationally. This proved so successful that community theatre was rapidly modified as a tool to address technical and controversial issues at the local level, and was used to communicate with national policy makers.

Conclusion

Barrow and Murphree (2001) point out that there is a vast grey literature in southern Africa that describes community conservation in considerable depth, but that this knowledge is largely ignored by international scholars. This issue of *Participatory Learning and Action* does not specifically address

this gap. However, it provides a glimpse into the way that dedicated practitioners and their partner communities have, over the past two decades, applied an interdisciplinary understanding of community conservation to the challenge of developing highly practical management tools.

CONTACT DETAILS

Brian Child
Associate Professor
Center for African Studies & Department of
Geography
University of Florida
PO Box 117315
Gainesville
FL 32611-7315
USA.
Tel: +1 352 392 0494 (Geography)
+1 352 392 7015 (African Studies)
Fax: +1 352 392 8855
Email: bchild@africa.ufl.edu

Brian Jones
Environment and Development Consultant
PO Box 9455
Eros, Windhoek
Namibia.
Tel: +264 61 237101
Email: bjones@mweb.com.na

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2

Community conservation and participatory policy processes in southern Africa

by BRIAN JONES, DAVID MULOLANI and BRIAN CHILD

Policy context

Throughout southern Africa, governments have made policy changes that created the enabling conditions for CBNRM implementation.¹ These changes have focused on devolving rights over the use of wildlife to local communities and enabling the communities to retain the benefits from using the wildlife. Across the region these policy changes have taken different forms and have been driven by the political and historical contexts of each country. There are also considerable differences across the region in the extent to which the policies provide local communities with the authority over wildlife to take their own management decisions. In most cases the State retains considerable decision-making authority. Also in several countries, the State shares its income from wildlife with local communities rather than giving them the right to earn and retain the income themselves.

While experience suggests that CBNRM can be very effective when rights and responsibilities are clearly devolved, especially when combined with high quality but 'light touch' support, there have nevertheless been disappointments associated with insufficient commitment to the principles of devolution. In Zimbabwe the intended devolution of authority to

"Policies are not sufficient on their own to provide secure rights to communities and can be changed by the administrative stroke of a pen or touch of a keyboard"

community level did not fully take place and became stuck at intermediate levels of government such as district administrations. In most countries in the region officials have held on to power and not allowed the devolution of authority intended by policy to take place. In Botswana the government tried to remove the ability of communities to directly receive the income earned from hunting and tourism by issuing a new policy directive. The government could do this because CBNRM policy had not been backed up by accompanying legislation providing protection to communities from arbitrary decisions by officials and politicians. This shows how policies are not sufficient on their own to provide secure rights to communities and how they can be changed by the administrative stroke of a pen or touch of a keyboard. Similarly, hard-won progress in fiscal devolution in CBNRM under

¹ Community-based natural source management

a NORAD-funded programme in Luangwa Valley was based on project agreements between Norway and Zambia, but simply melted away when personalities in the Norwegian embassy and project were changed.²

Another problem regarding the CBNRM policy process in southern Africa is that policies are often made through top-down, bureaucratic decisions and in response to crisis or without the full benefit of information or advice from people who best represent the different stakeholders of CBNRM. A major constraint to community participation and communities getting full benefit from natural resource management is the lack of organisational structures at local community level. Also, capacity to lobby government effectively to promote CBNRM or to promote increased devolution of decision-making to local level institutions is lacking.

In general, then, the policy reforms do not provide sufficient authority to local communities, which CBNRM theory suggests is essential to promoting sustainable natural resource management. Also, in most cases, policies were changed without government enabling the intended beneficiaries – the local communities – to be involved in policy formulation.

This article presents two cases studies of approaches to policy development in Zambia and Namibia. The Zambian case study describes mechanisms developed to increase civil society participation in policy development, and in influencing government to improve its policy and legislation, particularly through greater devolution of authority over natural resources to local communities. The Namibian case study deals with methodologies used to involve local communities in the development of new policy and legislation.

Case study 1: Policy tools for natural resources and CBNRM implementation in Zambia

The government of Zambia recognises the importance of natural resources management for the enhancement of economic development, and was one of the first countries in the region to promote CBNRM. However, despite much significant investment in 'policy development' by donors over the years, CBNRM in Zambia is not strongly rooted in formal policy. It has been driven by a constituency of poorly coordinated individuals, NGOs and donors with interests in promoting CBNRM, with bases in various departments (wildlife, forestry, fisheries), donor agencies (Norway, USA, Dutch, Danes, Finns, etc.) and geographic locations (Banguelo, Luangwa, Kafue, Western Province, etc.). So CBNRM in

Zambia is comprised of a number of isolated pockets of experimentation (e.g. programmes making up an alphabetical soup such as ADMADE, LIRDP, COMACO, Mufunta CBNRM, CONASA, UNDP etc.) that are not underpinned by a coherent set of policies, are sometimes competitive in a negative way, and are vulnerable to self-interested interpretations of 'policy' and to changes in personnel in key positions in government and donor agencies. This gives rise to a paradox. On the one hand, CBNRM is well accepted by agencies responsible for fisheries, forestry and wildlife. On the other, agencies often put their self-interest ahead of giving communities unambiguous rights and benefits and seem, deliberately, to keep operational procedures unclear. For example, the new Zambian Wildlife Act 1998 establishes the structures and roles of the Zambia Wildlife Authority and Community Resources Boards in co-management arrangements for wildlife resource management. But it requires subsidiary administrative legislation on key issues such as revenue distribution, managerial rights and responsibilities, and participatory process and accountability mechanisms to translate it into an effective framework for CBNRM. However,

Box 1: Example of the de-link between policy and practice

With weak central leadership, CBNRM has 'bubbled up' in different ways in different locations. The Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Project, (LIRDP), for example, was based on written agreements between the governments of Zambia and Norway rather than national policy, and was initially hived off from the wildlife department into the economics and planning ministry because the then President Kaunda, did not trust the wildlife department. The National Parks and Wildlife Service responded by establishing the ADMADE programme, which largely supported village scouts and used revenue sharing proportions that officially gave community leaders 15% of hunting fees for projects. The 1998 Zambia Wildlife Authority Act provided a legal basis for the formation of Community Resource Boards (CRBs). But it left a lot of operational details – including the principles of revenue sharing – ambiguous and open to interpretation by the Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA). To survive financially, ZAWA, holds on to some 70% of the value of wildlife in communal areas (retaining 50% of trophy fees and 80% of concession fees). While the '50%' arrangement was 'agreed' at a 'participatory' workshop held by ZAWA, many stakeholders believed this was inequitable and unworkable. It was also clear that:

- the CRBs had no mechanisms for downward accountability to communities;
- mechanisms of upward accountability similarly were extremely weak;
- most of the revenues were being mis-managed; and
- CRBs simply spent money with no rules, principles, objectives or guidelines with, at most, 20% of revenues used effectively (largely for anti-poaching) and no participation or benefit anywhere below the CRB itself.

² Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation

these administrative conditions have not been forthcoming. The Zambia Wildlife Authority keeps a significant amount of the revenues from communal lands for itself, thus undermining the intent of the Act (Box 1).

Recognising that these problems were general to Zambia, but also frustrated that the responsible agency seemed not to be listening, individuals, NGOs, and projects embarked on a strategy for improving the policy and framework for CBNRM.

The challenge was to develop and implement CBNRM policy and operational procedures where:

- the responsible agencies lacked capacity (e.g. Ministry of Environment) or had a vested interest (e.g. ZAWA) in capturing finances centrally;
- civil society was weak and divided; and
- local communities were neither confident, knowledgeable, nor politically organised to claim stronger rights and responsibilities for wild resources.

Processes adopted

Recognising the problems outlined above, several NGOs and donor-funded projects initiated a consultative process. At one level, they sought to increase the political capacity of communities by building a representative political association, the Zambia CBNRM Forum. At another level, they sought to develop the Natural Resource Consultative Forum as a means of bringing professionals and policy makers together.

The Zambia CBNRM Forum

During a consultative process, the USAID-supported Community Based Natural Resources Management and Sustainable Agriculture Project (CONASA), IUCN (The World Conservation Union) Zambia, WWF (World Wildlife Fund for Nature) Zambia and others recognised that there was no political mechanism for local people to express their priorities at a national level. CBNRM support agencies worked together to set up several representational regional CBNRM forums, with the intention of building a national CBNRM forum from the bottom up. The Zambia National CBNRM Forum aims to lobby for rights and revenues, and to inform national level policy dialogue through the NRCF (discussed below). However it is still in its infancy and has yet to become fully entrenched as an institutional mechanism at the grassroots level.

The Zambia Natural Resources Consultative Forum

The Zambia Natural Resource Consultative Forum is modelled on the Agricultural Consultative Forum, which proved highly effective at bringing together key stakeholders (NGOs,

“Government would allow some game animals to be shot for special occasions like traditional feasts, but generally black farmers had little legal access to wildlife. At this time Namibia’s Ministry of Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism had begun to realise that successful conservation needed to recognise the human and social dimensions of natural resource management”

government agencies and private consultancies) to discuss and feed into national policies. Donor funds were earmarked for the NRCF in 2000, but it was only established in 2004 because of conflicts – and perceived conflicts – amongst the various players.

NRCF membership comprises professionals from a wide range of agencies involved in the sector, including the relevant government ministries and quasi-government bodies in the natural resources (NR) and tourism sectors, professional and interest group associations such as the CBNRM Forum and private-sector Tourism Council, NGOs, traditional rulers (who are particularly powerful and influential in Zambia) and representatives of key donors in the sector.

The NRCF is managed by an independent secretariat, answerable to the elected chair of the forum and to the permanent secretary of the Ministry of Tourism, Environment and Natural Resources (MTENR). A private firm, Development Services Initiative (DSI) did a large amount of the preparatory work for the NRCF, and was contracted to support it until it could be weaned off as an independent organisation.

NRCF is endorsed by the MTENR as a neutral platform for promoting stakeholder participation in natural resource management. Its mandate is to enable professional stakeholders to deliberate and inform Zambia’s NR policy, and in so doing increase both stakeholder input into, and the technical quality of, these policies and actions. The NRCF acts as forum for sharing information about on-going interventions in the sector, intending to enrich the policy formulation and development process and reduce levels of conflict, duplication and overlaps through increased coordination and sharing of ideas.

The NRCF does not replace existing membership bodies,

interest groups or forums, but facilitates close cooperation between them. Neither does it take over the strategic role of ministries responsible for natural resources, seeking only to coordinate and tap into additional knowledge and advisory resources to support the ministries' policy role. Moreover, the NRCF has a technical mandate and is not a political or a lobby group. To achieve this, the NRCF holds monthly stakeholder meetings, workshops or seminars, commissions key studies, and provides advisory notes to the relevant ministries.

The NRCF has four planned outputs:

- improved stakeholder participation and responsibility in the sector;
- formal advisory notes to the relevant ministries;
- the development of a stronger technical understanding of pertinent issues through discussion and contracted research; and
- sustainability by demonstrating its value to donors willing to fund it.

In its first year, the NRCF established itself as a technical body administered through democratic principles, elected a chair, hired a secretariat, and met every four to six weeks. It commissioned studies (e.g. of nature-based tourism in Zambia and a survey of poverty in the Game Management Areas) and submitted a policy advisory note on joint forest management which resulted in a statutory instrument putting participatory joint forestry into effect.

Case study 2: Promoting community involvement in CBNRM policy development in Namibia

At Namibia's independence from South Africa in 1990, the new government inherited conservation laws (promulgated in 1975) that gave white freehold farmers rights over wildlife so that they could gain economic benefit from use of wildlife through hunting, live sale of wildlife, meat production and photographic tourism. The devolution of these rights to white farmers had reversed a trend of declining wildlife populations on freehold land brought about because white farmers derived little economic benefit from wild animals that competed with their livestock for water and grazing. A multi-million dollar wildlife industry developed and wildlife numbers increased.

However, the same rights had not been provided to black communal farmers by the pre-independence South African authorities. Government would allow some game animals to be shot for special occasions like traditional feasts, but generally black farmers had little legal access to wildlife. At this time Namibia's Ministry of Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism had begun to realise that successful conservation needed to recog-

Box 2: Socio-ecological survey methodology

A basic model for the surveys has evolved over time:

Survey planning

The surveys are planned to take place over a 10-14 day period and to be carried out as a team effort between government, community leaders and, where appropriate, NGO personnel.

Information sharing

An initial briefing is held at the start of the survey consisting of short presentations by participants on various relevant topics to begin the process of sharing information. Community members and leaders provide their perspectives and technical experts from government and other institutions provide theirs. This initial briefing establishes a participatory and interactive relationship between all survey participants

Ecological survey

Environmental scientists carry out an ecological survey if little is known about the state of the environment in that particular area. They carry out inventory work and assess the state of resources, the extent of human impact and utilisation and the potential for sustainable utilisation.

Socio-economic survey

The socio-economic survey is carried out by a joint team of government, community and NGO personnel through holding meetings at household, focus group, village or community level where appropriate. Care is taken to ensure the participation of women and other groups such as young adults, or marginalised groups such as the San. The aim is to listen and understand community aspirations, values and attitudes.

Report-back meetings

Several report back meetings are held by all participants during the survey. These meetings serve to review the methodology and suggest changes where necessary. They also provide an opportunity for identification/confirmation of the key issues or problems that need addressing.

End-of-survey workshop

At the end of the survey participants debate and agree on the key issues which need to be addressed for natural resource management. Proposals for dealing with these issues are then debated and agreed. If necessary, time is spent identifying areas of common ground and areas of remaining disagreement. An action plan and responsibilities for implementing the action plan are agreed upon.

Survey report and feedback

A report on the survey is compiled using the results of the survey as well as published and unpublished reports on social, economic and ecological aspects of the survey area. The report is then distributed to all stakeholders and feedback meetings held to discuss the report. Once all stakeholders are happy that it reflects the results of the survey the action plan can be implemented.

nise the human and social dimensions of natural resource management. However, if the Ministry was to engage with rural communities it needed some methodologies that could be used to break down years of mistrust and sometimes hostility between local people and nature conservators. The Ministry in conjunction with the Namibian NGO, Integrated

Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC), jointly developed the socio-ecological survey technique as a tool for involving rural people in conservation (Box 2).

Unlike the Zambian example, key officials in the Ministry were highly committed to CBNRM and actively drove a participatory process that eventually set in place the legislative conditions for conservancy formation, although they also needed to bring on board a number of their colleagues. Socio-ecological surveys were used both to understand local aspirations and as an entry point to initiate projects in rural areas that established a partnership between local people and government in the management of resources such as wildlife, forestry, and fisheries. The surveys used methodologies similar to participatory rural appraisal and rapid rural appraisal. They aimed to facilitate an understanding by government officials of community attitudes and aspirations, and an exchange of knowledge between communities and technical experts. They proved invaluable for building trust and for initiating a joint understanding of problems and the joint development of solutions.

The early surveys (1990–1992) led to a realisation that if real community involvement and benefit was to be achieved, then Namibia's conservation policy and legislation had to be changed. Important results from the surveys were:

- although local communities did not like the way conservation was being imposed on them, and they experienced problems from predators and elephants, they did not want to see wildlife disappear;
- rural communities were aware of and wanted the same rights over wildlife as the white freehold farmers;
- rural communities were keen to gain economic benefit from wildlife and integrate it into existing livelihood activities and land uses.

These were important insights at the time because the prevailing conservation ideology viewed local people as poachers who wanted to eat the wildlife. There was little understanding that local people also valued wildlife for aesthetic and cultural reasons. Further, because of the separation caused by apartheid few white officials were aware of community aspirations and values. The surveys were less important for informing the advocates of policy change than for sharing knowledge and creating shared goals between local people and government officials, and for changing the national conservation narrative to involve previously disadvantaged communities as conservation partners. Shared goals included conserving wildlife, and incorporating wildlife use and tourism as part of local rural development, and provided a platform for cooperation and policy development.

“Hands-on learning by policy makers participating in pilot communities provided an important grounding for policy and administration decisions, and for rehabilitating relationships with local people who were alienated by the pre-Independence hostile conservation approach”

Hands-on learning by policy makers participating in pilot communities provided an important grounding for policy and administration decisions, and for rehabilitating relationships with local people who were alienated by the pre-Independence hostile conservation approach. Moreover, common participation builds common commitment, while officials designed a shared methodology that could be used in different situations to build consensus about mutual objectives and joint action plan.

Based on the survey results, the MWCT and various partners then worked at the community level to develop local community-based projects and at the national level on policy and legislative reform. A number of projects were developed with donor support that focused on generating income for communities from wildlife-based tourism, involving communities in wildlife monitoring, preventing poaching, and establishing liaison and cooperation mechanisms with MWCT staff (Box 3).

As the socio-ecological surveys had been carried out in only six wildlife-rich areas in the north-east and north-west of the country, MWCT held a national workshop in which it aimed to get broader input from traditional authorities and other community leaders from around the country. This workshop confirmed the results of the socio-ecological surveys and provided a strong mandate for the MWCT to move ahead with policy and legislative reform. MWCT developed a policy document which laid out the rationale for devolving rights to local communities and the mechanisms for achieving this. The Ministry submitted the policy to Cabinet for adoption as a national policy and with a request that Cabinet give the go-ahead for the development of new legislation to put the policy into effect. Cabinet gave its approval and the Ministry began the process of amending legislation so that black communal farmers could receive the same rights over wildlife as white freehold farmers.

Box 3: Examples of projects and activities resulting from socio-ecological surveys

- With support from WWF-US, in the West Caprivi Game Park the San community established community game guards who were responsible for wildlife monitoring and preventing poaching. A community-run campsite was established to bring some income from wildlife and tourism to the inhabitants. A community committee was established to manage the game guards and the income from the campsite and to liaise with park officials. A zoning plan was agreed which created multiple use areas where people lived, and core conservation areas where there would be no settlement. A project field officer was appointed to assist in liaison between the government, local people and NGOs and build the capacity of the community committee.
- In the Nyae Nyae area in eastern Namibia, the survey led to a reduction of hostility and suspicion by local people towards the government conservation agency. With funding from the Biodiversity Support Programme, community game guards were appointed, a joint liaison committee between local people and conservation officials was established, a researcher was appointed to work with local people on addressing problem animal issues, and a liaison officer appointed to foster continued improved relationships and communication.
- In response to community requests, officials worked on developing policy and legislation that would give the communities the same rights over wildlife as white freehold farmers. Lessons from the community projects that resulted from the surveys were used in policy development. These included the need for communities to define themselves rather than using artificial administrative boundaries, and the need for flexibility in policy and legislation to take into account the different needs of different communities and socio-ecological circumstances in different parts of the country. Government held a number of additional consultations at national level, and new policy and legislation was passed. The result of the policy and legal changes is that in 2006 there were 44 community wildlife and tourism management bodies called conservancies in Namibia. In most of these conservancies wildlife is increasing. In 2005 the conservancies jointly earned close to US\$3 million from sustainable use of wildlife and other natural resources and from tourism.

At the same time a number of lessons were being learnt from the projects that had been initiated with local communities in the field. Ministry personnel working on policy and legislation were also involved in the management of these projects and were able to use these lessons and experiences to feed into the policy process.

The key principles to emerge from this process are as follows:

- the survey process provided a platform for local communities to express their views and aspirations regarding wildlife conservation;
- the surveys led to the realisation that communities and

government had a shared agenda regarding wildlife conservation;

- the surveys provided a clear indication of community wishes that could drive the policy development process;
- ongoing field activities with local communities provided important lessons for policy development;
- those developing policy had sufficient links to these field activities for policy to be grounded in local-level experiences as well as in the theory of CBNRM and common property resource management.

Conclusion and lessons learnt

Both case studies demonstrate attempts to find practical and logistically feasible ways of enabling participation of stakeholders in the policy process. However, the type of process followed depends very much on local circumstances. In Zambia, where buy-in from key state agencies was not convincing, the approach taken was to build structures to enable local communities and professionals to participate more actively in the policy process. In Namibia, where government commitment was stronger, a policy process was followed that provided government with a clear direction and mandate from local communities and, enabled government to move on with the detail of policy and legislation, but with emerging lessons from the field guiding government's ongoing work.

Academic prescriptions for policy development advocate elaborate mechanisms to ensure the participation of stakeholders throughout the process, and structured approaches to ensure consensus at all stages of the process. This is fine in theory, but almost impossible in practice: in countries with large illiterate populations, and geographic remoteness and distances exacerbated by poor infrastructure, how does even a willing government involve local people in the policy process and avoid domination by special or elite interests? Indeed, over-elaborate and time-consuming processes are expensive and may ultimately lead to a state of 'participatory paralysis', which anyone familiar with a plethora of workshops that lead to negligible policy or implementational change will recognise. Too often participation becomes an end in itself, and is ticked off as accomplishment in project reports. Often little is achieved because consensus over the minutiae of the last clause of the policy is particularly elusive where there are no practical examples from which to learn.

Indeed, the southern African experiences suggests that the initial innovation or quantum change in policy seldom results from overly participatory processes, although participation becomes important later for consolidating gains or

making further policy adjustments. Much of the policy reform in southern Africa was initiated by individuals or small cohorts of people, almost always involving key government officials. They created legislative or administrative space to experiment with devolution, then participated actively and adaptively with pilot communities. They used the success of these pilot programmes to change the national narrative and sometimes to further advance the legal and administrative foundation for community conservation.

Although the end points are similar (i.e. the legal empowerment of local communities to manage and benefit from their wild resources), the process by which devolutionary policy has been developed has varied greatly even within a fairly cohesive and well-networked region like southern Africa. In Zimbabwe and Namibia, insightful government officials changed the primary legislation to catalyse CBNRM. In Botswana, a donor-funded project created administrative conditions for the same, with some contemporary signs that this progress will be reversed. In the absence of committed central leadership, locality-specific programmes have 'bubbled up' in Zambia and Mozambique under the championship of various individuals, donors and officials.

The common themes are set out below.

- Key individuals make an enormous difference in the iterative

process of pilot experimentation and policy change.

- The policy end-point principles are similar in all the countries mentioned.
- Strategies to getting to these end-points, however, differ enormously, a contrast illustrated by the cases of Namibia and Zambia.
- Getting pilot programmes started and making sure they work is probably a necessary step before highly participatory policy processes can be effective or grounded in reality.
- There is inevitably strong opposition to empowering communities so that proponents of policy change need to be highly opportunistic and innovative, and often have to make strategic compromises.
- Change is very difficult unless strategically important individuals within government either drive it or are willing to allow others to do so. This suggests that the strategy employed by donors and/or NGOs of by-passing 'difficult' agencies is unlikely to succeed.

Perhaps the most important lesson we have learnt is that policy statements can be misleading. They suggest that things are happening when they are not. The sustainability of effective CBNRM depends on changes in primary legislation that entrench the rights of communities to manage, benefit from and dispose of wild resources in law.

CONTACT DETAILS

Brian Jones
Environment and Development Consultant
PO Box 9455
Eros, Windhoek
Namibia.
Tel: +264 61 237101
Email: bjones@mweb.com.na

David Mulolani
Natural Resources Consultative Forum
Post Net 59
Kabulonga, Lusaka
Zambia.
Email: dmulolani@yahoo.co.uk

Brian Child
Associate Professor
Center for African Studies & Department of
Geography
University of Florida
PO Box 117315
Gainesville
FL 32611-7315
USA.
Tel: +1 352 392 0494 (Geography)
+1 352 392 7015 (African Studies)
Fax: +1 352 392 8855
Email: bchild@africa.ufl.edu

3

Revenue distribution for empowerment and democratisation

by BRIAN CHILD

Introduction

This paper describes the revenue distribution process introduced to Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE¹ programme in 1990, and transferred to the Luangwa Valley in Zambia between 1996 and 2001. In Zimbabwe in the late 1980s, wildlife was on its last legs. The capacity of the state conservation agency was weakening daily and, as a centrally managed resource, wildlife was increasingly prone to corruption. It needed to compete on a level economic playing field with the 'cow and the plough', and provide tangible benefits to those who determined land use. Fundamental changes to the political economy of wildlife were needed, and the rights of benefit, management and allocation or disposal needed to be devolved to landholders.

For me, revenue distribution started at a workshop on Sentinel game ranch when I was the CAMPFIRE coordinator in the Zimbabwean wildlife department. Rancher Colin Bristow explained to the district council that he now farmed wildlife because it was a better business in hot, dry, drought-prone areas. At this meeting, I agreed to travel around the district with key officials to assess wildlife potentials. This was the beginning of a highly effective partnership and we made

"Revenue distribution has been invaluable for organising communities to use scarce financial resources effectively, and for restructuring the political economy of a community with an organisation that is transparent, highly participatory, equitable, and functional"

several camping trips to talk to local communities. After six months, Beitbridge District Council formally accepted revolutionary new principles to manage wildlife revenues. All revenues would be returned to the community where they were generated (as with livestock). Individuals in these communities could have complete discretion over how they used this money, provided the decision was made collectively (again, replicating crops or cattle).

The Ministry of Local Government tried to stop us distributing revenues, claiming that it was responsible for development. My boss, George Pangeti, confirmed the legality of revenue distribution and the council officials, who were devoted, even fanatical, about these new principles, put pressure on the district administrator. When they insisted that the district administrator be the person to tell the people of Chik-

¹ Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources

warakwara that they would not be getting their payouts, he changed his mind, and insisted on officiating at the first revenue distribution ceremony and promoting the concept!

The methodology developed in Chikwarakwara community was rapidly adopted by other communities in CAMPFIRE. It was later refined in the Luangwa Valley in Zambia, with stronger constitutions, village-level double-entry booking keeping, and quarterly participatory audits.

Revenue distribution organises communities to use scarce financial resources effectively. It restructures the political economy of a community with an organisation that is transparent, highly participatory, equitable, and functional. The process puts people at the centre of decision-making and accountability as they:

- control decisions about budget planning and resource allocation;
- elect and **instruct** leaders to implement their workplan; and
- regularly control performance through quarterly meetings with the right to sanction or remove officials (i.e. political accountability).

Many outsiders focus on the highly visible cash in this process, but miss the profound social, political and managerial processes that the cash symbolises.

Background

CBNRM (community-based natural resource management) aims to revolutionise the political economy of resource governance by devolving authority and benefits for high-value wild resources from the state to rural communities. This requires a realignment of institutions that govern the way people interact with their environment. At the heart of effective CBNRM is the principle of discretion: that local people have the right to make and control their own choices. This has profound implications:

- **economically**, it combines individual choice with property rights, which lays the foundation for liberal free-market economies;
- **theoretically**, this generates economic growth by allocating wild resources to higher valued uses, and reduces poverty if this economic growth is captured locally; and
- **politically**, discretion results in democratisation and political freedom.

Using revenue distribution to develop accountable, democratic local institutions

This section describes the process of organising communities to use financial resources effectively. The process involved five steps and took about three days: day one (or more) for

“Enormous improvements in conservation incentives, organisational performance and democratic empowerment are associated with revenue distribution. Yet perhaps the most important benefit of all is the intangible process of democratic socialisation that is not captured in this data”

education and training; day two for a formal annual general meeting (AGM) and elections; and day three for the revenue distribution ceremony.

Step one: organising the community with membership lists and constitutions

The first step was to facilitate the community to define their geographical boundaries and criteria for membership (i.e. which individuals or households were entitled to benefits). We worked from a template constitution that:

- entrenches members' rights to make choices and instruct the elected leadership of the community (rather than the other way around) through an annual budget and workplan;
- provides clear mechanisms and rights to review performance against these choices (e.g. the quarterly review of variance from budget); and
- defines administrative procedures (e.g. elections, accountability, and dispute resolution).

It usually took many hours over several days for a community to define rules of membership. A key operational detail was creating a membership list, which we read out in public several times, ensuring nobody was left off and leading to a refined definition of membership as individual cases were discussed against the agreed membership definition.

Step two: clarifying the source and amount of revenue

The second step was to list, on a flip chart, how many animals were shot and the price paid for them, and explain any other fees (e.g. concession fees) or idiosyncrasies about income. Initially, community members were completely unaware of how valuable wildlife was. They were astounded that, for example, a warthog is worth the same as a cow, and a buffalo worth twenty oxen. Simple A4 pictures of an animal and its value proved extremely effective for teaching communities about wildlife values. The best example of strengthening the link between wildlife and benefit was

Figure 1: Developing a budget



The whole community meets to discuss how to allocate their money. This results in a budget.

It is useful if the budget summarises agreed expenditure in terms of:

- cash dividends;
- social projects and activities;
- natural resource management; and
- administrative costs.



The columns should summarise:

- total expenditure for each budget line; and
- the contribution that each individual is making to this.

where the safari operator counted out the money for each animal shot in front of the community, while explaining the location and circumstances of each animal hunted.

Most of the revenue in CAMPFIRE and Luangwa comes from big game hunting, with the international client paying some \$35,000 for an elephant hunt and associated outfitting services, and competitive marketing (see article 5) enabling communities to obtain trophy fees of some \$10-12,000.² At the end of step two, we were able to publicly calculate (on a flipchart) the expected income for each registered member.

Step three: choosing how to allocate the money

The process of planning and allocating wildlife revenues is an invaluable entry point for developing capacity in decision-making and project management. In the first

years, we started by merely voting to prioritise uses of money. Later, we required people proposing projects to draw up budgets and workplans for public scrutiny.

The whole community meets (in plenary and/or break-out groups) to brainstorm expenditure priorities and discuss tradeoffs. The right to take cash injects considerable vigour into this process. Choices break into four categories:

- cash;
- projects and activities (including water, health and schooling, savings clubs, football clubs, food relief, support to aged or marginalised groups);
- investments in wildlife and natural resource management (such as community game guards); and
- administrative expenses.

A carefully planned flipchart is extremely important. Possible projects and activities are listed in a column on a flipchart (Figure 1). The second column lists the cost of each proposed project or activity. These numbers are often too big for rural

² All figures quoted are in Zimbabwean dollars

People receiving cash in Mahenya

Photo: Brian Child

people to grasp. So a third column describes the personal contribution expected from each member. This focuses minds and gets individuals personally involved in the decision-making process – it creates real participation.

At the public meeting, the community then prioritises and modifies these suggestions (on the flip chart). They may modify strategies and costs, until they collectively agree what to do with their money. This table is an annual budget and workplan, providing clear instructions to elected committees (see step 4) for spending the community's income. Unchecked committees often spend 40-80% of the budget on administration (in other words, their own allowances, travel etc.). Involving the whole community avoids this, and ensures transparency.

While external facilitators and officials may clarify technical aspects of projects, they should never impose their priorities. Their primary role is to protect procedural integrity by ensuring that decisions are made by the membership not the

committee, that the community has full discretionary choice, and that traditional leaders or officials never impose decisions on them.

In my opinion the practice of setting guidelines for expenditure (e.g. 35% for wildlife management) is counter-productive. It is often a covert way for officials/NGOs to exert their own priorities. Instead, tracking financial decisions is invaluable for monitoring how well a programme is really working. For example, in one area, five villages took a disproportionate amount of cash (compared to the other 40 villages in Luangwa) reflecting serious problems of leadership and accountability. So the community (sensibly) took cash to prevent it being stolen. Similarly, tracking payments of wildlife management measures real willingness to pay for conservation in a way that is not possible if communities are obliged to allocate, say, 30% for conservation. In my experience in Zimbabwe and Zambia, communities allocate 40% of their money as cash, 40% for projects, and 10% each for adminis-

Buckets for money in Mahenya



Photo: Brian Child

tration and wildlife management. In drought years the cash allocation often increases, but communities will sometimes give up all cash if a particular project is very important to them.

Step four: the annual general meeting

We learnt to separate the above learning process from an AGM to formalise a community's reports and decisions. We often structured the AGM as follows:

- A formal report from the chair and treasurer on the previous year's activities, including a narrative report and a report on finances.
- An audit report presented by an outsider. In Luangwa, we trained field facilitators to do teaching audits (i.e. in a soft approach that also had the purpose of training community-elected treasurers on-the-job), but formalised the process using the project accountant. An attempt to hire a 'real' accountant failed because they could not adjust to a participatory development process.
- Presentation and formal adoption of workplans and budgets.
- Election of a new committee. In my experience, annual

elections are essential for accountability and especially for reinforcing the members' authority over the leadership, and far outweigh any claim that training effort is wasted.

- The new committee is then publicly presented with the budget and workplan, and told that they are accountable to these community instructions. This reinforces the principle that the membership instructs the elected leadership. Continual reinforcement is essential to reverse the unhealthy norm that committees instruct communities.

Step five: the revenue distribution ceremony

The process culminates in a revenue distribution ceremony, which is a celebration and visualisation of the process described above (Figure 2). The ceremony should start dramatically, with the wildlife income being presented to the community in small banknotes placed centre-stage on a table. This is followed by speeches, after which each member is called up and paid the full amount of money owing to them. In Chikwarakwara, for example, the community earned \$60,000 so each of the 150 members got \$400 in cash. They agreed to invest \$25,500 in a grinding mill and

Figure 2: The revenue distribution ceremony.



1. The leadership brings in and presents the cash to the community (the basket on the chairman's shoulder contains \$60,000 in small notes).



2. Each individual then gets their full payment.



3. Each person pays back an amount into buckets according to the projects they collectively chose (paper hanging under each bucket states, for example, 'Grinding Mill, \$25,500 = \$170 each').



4. They then sign for the money.

Figure 3: Accountability requires books AND public scrutiny



The treasurer keeps a simple double-entry cash analysis book and a file for receipts and vouchers (left).

Each quarter, the treasurer lists and explains each line item of expenditure to the whole community (right).



\$4,500 for the school, so each member paid back \$170 into a green basin for the mill and \$30 into an orange basin for the school. These basins were well labelled using flipchart paper, e.g. 'Grinding Mill Project: Individual = \$170. Total = \$25,500'.

Each member then signs (or thumb prints) a pay sheet summarising their take home cash and project contributions. Accountability is improved by having a community leader present the new committee to the community, using the highly visible buckets of money to clarify who is responsible for implementing different projects.

Accountability mechanisms

This process is ideal for institutionalising three documents and processes:

- a constitution;
- a set of financial books; and
- a minute book to record decisions.

Though exciting, even a full revenue distribution process will not ensure transparency and accountability to the citizens. Each community should also hold quarterly general meetings to monitor progress. In Luangwa, we made these meetings obligatory if the community was to get the next financial payout. We also constantly made members aware of their right to expect information on finances, project

implementation and wildlife management activities, believing that bottom-up control mechanisms were essential for sustainability. For example, the committee was required to present a financial variance report to the community, using a flip chart to compare expenditure against the budget. They often described every item of expenditure as recorded in the cashbook, as well as the progress of various projects and activities (Figure 3). As the support agency, our role was to provide an independent report on the books. Misappropriation rates in CBNRM programmes where revenues are controlled by committees with little genuine community participation (or NGO oversight) are commonly 40–80%. In the Luangwa villages, we found that full participation resulted in losses of less than 1% of revenues.

Some lessons for managing the revenue distribution process

Revenue distribution is about far more than cash. Indeed, cash is used as a mechanism for organising a community around principles of democratic and discretionary decision-making. It is a potent symbol of empowerment and the devolution of rights. And it can be used rather like oil in a car to find and fix leaks and other problems in the organisational mechanisms.

Scale is critical, and revenue distribution works in

communities of 150-400 members because they are small enough for oral societies to meet regularly and collectively.

Correct identification of loose-tight properties is also critical.³ We should insist on **procedural conformance to a set of democratic/organisational principles**, yet should not impose operational decisions. My advice is to insist on, and monitor, clearly defined procedural guidelines that entrench the community's right to make decisions, and include regular internal reporting to enable the community to track if its decisions are implemented. Perhaps the main role of support agencies should be to provide sensitive, but tough, external monitoring of procedural conformance. This should protect the conditions for the emergence of sound local governance (e.g. prevent élite capture), at least until these principles are embedded in cultural norms and/or functional legal institutions. The difficult practical issue is how to sustain quality conformance management for the length of time needed for cultural change in a project-driven environment. Equally, it is important not to interfere in choices made, so that people have full discretion over their finances including the right to share it amongst themselves as cash.

The following lessons are about the practicalities of managing the revenue distribution process itself.

- It was important to run workshops over several days, framing issues on one day, but giving people at least a day to digest and discuss such matters at home before any formal decisions.
- The three to four day revenue distribution process provides a meaningful opportunity to discuss hunting, tourism, changes in exchange rate, HIV/AIDS and other issues relevant to the community. Meetings invariably started at least an hour late. But this was also a critically important opportunity to talk to people and canvass opinions as they drifted in, and often informed the content and direction of meetings.
- Knowledge affects power relationships. Never just train the leadership, normally comprising elected committees, traditional leaders and some key community employees such as game guards. Always make training and decision forums open to the whole community, and entice the 'followership' to attend. If more than 40% of the members (ranging from 150-400) were absent, we usually delayed meetings.
- We always reinforced and discussed the constitution, emphasising the community's right to instruct the leadership and hold it accountable.
- Be very clear about your role. In Luangwa, communities had

perfected a dependent and subservient role, placing the obligation to deliver results on us. Our response was to transfer responsibility to them and our mantra was: 'the only thing that we give you is knowledge, not even a pen'.

- To strengthen institutional memory and local ownership, we trained local leaders or facilitators to run the process, keeping external facilitators in the background. To reinforce and monitor the learning process, we invited a member of the community to repeat each stage of the explanation.
- A valuable organisational insight from the Luangwa Valley was the effectiveness of placing high-level technical expertise in the field, directly supporting 10-14 locally recruited community facilitators (one per five to seven Village Action Groups). It cost us less than \$150,000 to make a radical difference to 50,000 people.
- An invaluable tool was a half-page questionnaire we applied to three individuals in each of the 45 villages twice a year to track understanding of the value of wildlife, constitutions, finances, project implementation, and to rate their committee.

For further information on this, Child and Peterson (1991) provide a step-by-step description and analysis of the first revenue distribution, while Child et al. (1997) put this in the context of the larger CAMPFIRE programme. Child and Dalal Clayton (2004) give more details about the Luangwa Valley programme.

Results and impacts

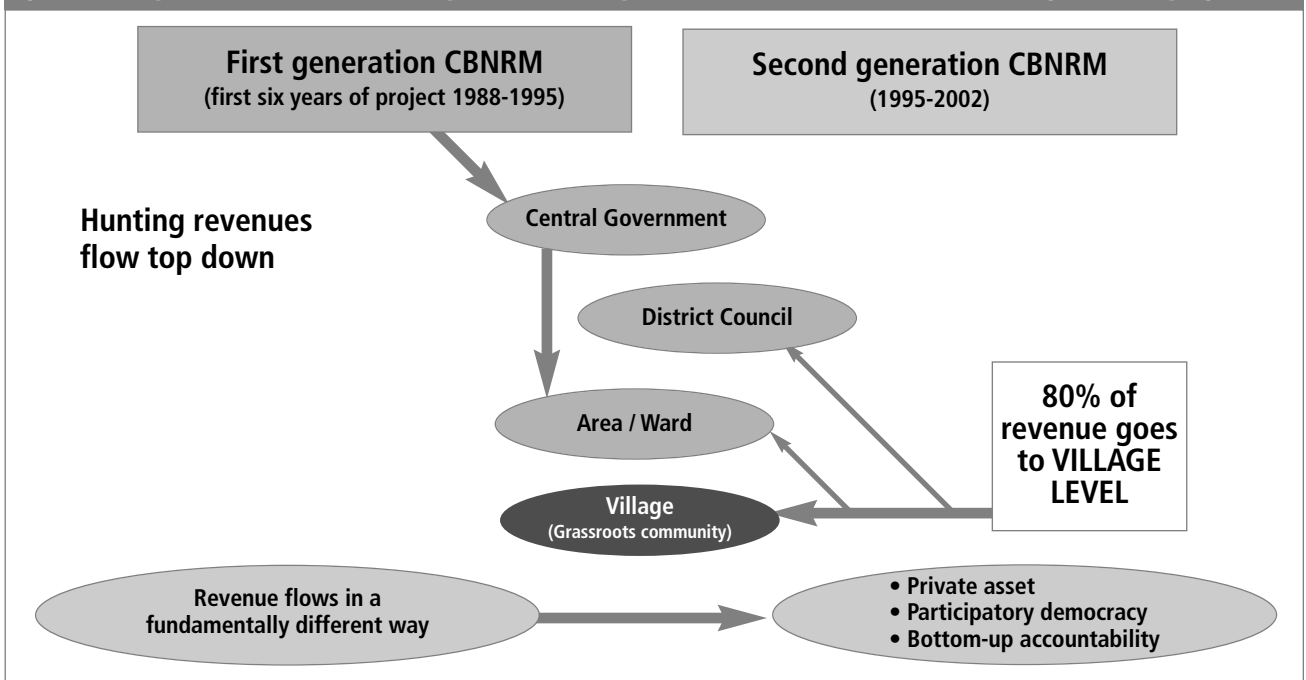
Revenue distribution proved highly effective for poverty alleviation, especially if defined broadly as the absence not only of income, but also of discretion, voice and participation. Cash benefits were often small, but nevertheless significant. More importantly, cash was a potent symbol of proprietorship, fostering fiscal responsibility, getting people to volunteer to implement social projects, and creating positive attitudes towards conservation. The process provided a vehicle for organisational development, and supported a democratic process far deeper than occasional elections. People exercised free choice in allocating resources and selecting leaders. They imposed accountability and transparency on the system, thereby practicing and ingraining their democratic rights. Communities learnt about financial management and accountability, with mechanisms to hold their representatives accountable being more important than good bookkeeping. The measurable net result (in Luangwa) was that more social projects were completed quicker with fewer conflicts than from the same amount of money handled in a top-down manner.

³ 'Loose-tight' is a phrase coined by Peters and Waterman (1982) to emphasise the importance of simultaneously centralising and insisting on adherence to core values or principles but decentralising managerial autonomy and operational choices.

Table 1: Comparing top-down and bottom-up accountability, Luangwa Valley Project

Performance Metric	Top-down (most decisions made by six chiefs and six 'elected' chairs)	Bottom-up (decisions made through revenue distribution process)
Participation days	A few hundred	75,000 or more
Benefits	About ten projects (no records available!)	200+ schools, clinics, wells, etc. 20,500 adults got cash each year
Financial accountability	40–80% unaccounted for	Less than 1% of \$180,000 at village level unaccounted for
Investment in wildlife management	None	18% of revenues allocated to game guards, water supplies, electric fences, by year 6

Figure 4: A comparison of revenue flows and power relationships in 'First' (left) and 'Second Generation' (right) CBNRM programmes



The data we have comparing the top-down and bottom-up (i.e. representational and traditional versus participatory democracy) from Luangwa suggests that enormous improvements in conservation incentives, organisational performance and democratic empowerment are associated with revenue distribution. Yet perhaps the most important benefit is the intangible process of democratic socialisation that is not captured in this data. We also found that organised communities were able to obtain funding from other sources such as social investment matching funds (see Table 1).

Conceptual learning

Revenue distribution fundamentally alters the nature and structure of community governance (Figure 4). In early ('first generation') CBNRM, project finances flowed downwards and decisions were centralised to appointed or elected leaders. Residents received some benefits (usually projects), but organisational development and democratisation were limited, while links between wildlife and benefit remained tenuous without a considerable extension effort.

Revenue distribution turns accountability mechanisms on their head, with control of revenues and decisions by individuals creating downward accountability through partici-

participatory face-to-face democratic processes. Operationally, we found it more difficult to work with six representational organisations, and cheaper to support 45 villages because of the internal checks and balances in the bottom-up system. Personally, I have no doubt that village-level participatory democracy is a powerful instrument for political economic change. However, it is a serious threat to the paternalistic status quo, and may not be able to sustain itself.

Developing such systems requires politically or administratively well-placed individuals at a high level to:

- insist on conforming to democratic procedures, and protect against the capture of benefits, power and information by the local élites; and
- defend against re-centralisation of authority by the state and even NGOs.

Interestingly, the revenue distribution process has maintained and even re-exerted itself in the difficult conditions of contemporary Zimbabwe, yet collapsed almost immediately in Zambia when key personalities in the government, project and donor changed, despite this project being better institutionalised than CAMPFIRE at the local level.

I recently heard Douglass North drawing a convincing dichotomy between states where laws and norms are strong enough to enable 'impersonal' exchange to occur, and those

where decisions are invariably personalised and controlled by closely linked politicians and businessmen. I can only speculate that the robustness of CAMPFIRE bears some relationship to the depersonalised administrative and legal advantages that Zimbabwe still has, and suggest that CBNRM will only work in personalised states like Zambia if strong personalities are present to guide and defend the process.

The approach worked well in Zimbabwe and Zambia, but processes need to be adjusted to local circumstances. But I increasingly believe that principles are more universal. So we might need to modify details in establishing similar systems in the more arid areas of Botswana and Namibia, where there are practical constraints to holding regular meetings. While not all the activities described in the steps may be applicable in all circumstances, the principles that emerge are clear. Methods need to be found to ensure that revenue distribution:

- clearly links the income to wildlife and to its sustainable use;
- is decided on by the community as a whole; and
- has mechanisms for the community to confirm that their instructions (i.e. the budget) are followed.

Done insightfully, the revenue distribution process is a powerful tool for promoting devolution, accountability and effective forms of local democratic governance.

CONTACT DETAILS

Brian Child
Associate Professor
Center for African Studies & Department of
Geography
University of Florida
PO Box 117315,
Gainesville, FL 32611-7315, US
Tel: USA +1 352 392 0494 (Geography)
+1 352 392 7015 (African Studies)
Fax: +1 352 392-8855
Email: bchild@africa.ufl.edu

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4

Building capacity for local-level management through participatory technology development

by LILIAN GOREDEMA, IVAN BOND and RUSSELL TAYLOR

Introduction

This article describes how carefully managed partnerships between scientists and communities developed the technical skills and methods for communities to manage and use natural resources (especially wildlife), and simultaneously empowered these communities with knowledge, skills, confidence and information. This support for community-based management was the primary focus of the WWF's Natural Resource Management (NRM) Support to CAMPFIRE Project (known as the SupCamp project) during the period 1994-1998.¹

Participatory technology development (PTD) is a framework for identifying, developing and implementing appropriate NRM methods with rural communities (Sutherland, Martin and Salmon, 1998). PTD combines scientific and indigenous technical knowledge (ITK), with the objective of enabling communities to participate more actively in managing their resources. The strength of the process lies in technical specialists, such as ecologists and economists, working in a structured manner with local communities.

At the outset, it was recognised that the methods developed had to be technically acceptable, and of practical value

Box 1: Summary of the CAMPFIRE programme

- CAMPFIRE is a long-term programmatic approach to rural development that uses wildlife and other natural resources as a mechanism for promoting devolved rural institutions, improved governance and livelihoods.
- Its cornerstone is the devolution of rights to manage, use, dispose of and benefit from natural resources. It is premised on economic benefit, collective proprietorship and participation.
- Ideally, the unit of management, accountability and benefit should be the same, located at a sub-district level, i.e. the ward or village 'producer communities' and at a scale enabling the whole community to meet face-to-face.
- Programme leadership is provided by the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group, a coalition of two government and three NGO support agencies, led by the political representation of CAMPFIRE districts through the CAMPFIRE Association.
- Although intended for all natural resources, the legal and financial reality was that the economic and financial success of CAMPFIRE was premised on high-valued trophy hunting safaris because the only agency that devolved user rights was the wildlife department.

to the communities concerned. These tools were also intended to strengthen common property management regimes so that communities could benefit from and manage their wild resources responsibly, profitably and sustainably.

¹ The Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources.

The SupCamp team



Photo: the authors

The need for community-based NRM methods

In 1982, Zimbabwe's Parks and Wildlife Act of 1975 was amended to devolve the rights to manage, use and benefit from wildlife to communities. 'Appropriate Authority Status' was legally conferred on rural district councils (RDCs), with an understanding that RDCs would similarly devolve authority to communities at ward and village levels.^{2,3} These legal and policy innovations enabled the CAMPFIRE programme (see Box 1) to move from concept to practice. Locally implemented management techniques were essential if community wildlife producers were to be genuinely effective proprietors and managers of wildlife and wild land. In 1992, the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group asked WWF to help develop such techniques. This article describes how technical specialists worked closely with communities to develop appropriate techniques, using a PTD approach.

² In Zimbabwe, districts are comprised of wards, which are in turn made up of a number of villages. At the village level, representatives are elected to establish Ward Wildlife Management Committees (WVMCs).

³ Although the importance of legally empowered sub-district 'producer communities' was recognised early on, Zimbabwe's local government legislation precluded this.

The process of participatory technology development

'Professional' wildlife management often advocates 'scientific' methodologies that are too impractical and costly for communities to implement. Indeed, practical methods for managing wildlife in this context are often simply not available. The SupCamp project set out to identify what communities needed to manage their natural resources. Scientists then worked directly with local people to develop practical management tools.

One objective was to empower communities to manage their own natural resources, a right denied to them for many years. Another was the need to convince wildlife authorities and policy makers that communities could manage natural resources properly. CAMPFIRE aimed at a radical relocation of the power over wild resources from central government agencies to rural communities. Many officials, however, favoured centralisation or limited decentralisation. The survival of CAMPFIRE and its policy of devolution (Box 2) therefore required that communities take on genuine management responsibility.

Box 2: Decentralisation and devolution

According to Murphree (2000):
Decentralisation is the delegation of responsibility and limited authority to subordinate or dispersed units of hierarchial jurisdiction, which have a primary accountability upward to their superiors in the hierarchy.
Devolution involves the creation of relatively autonomous realms of authority, responsibility and entitlement, with a primary accountability downward to their own constituencies.

Pilot sites

The project worked with pilot communities from five wards in three districts in the Zambezi valley, selecting wards with different levels of resource endowment, population numbers and institutional structures. The aim was to test the robustness of the methods in varying ecological, social and economic settings. A pilot approach was used because effective testing of methods is expensive and requires the development of strong personal relationships and iterative learning over several years. Methods were only rolled out for wider application once they were properly tested.

Facilitating PTD

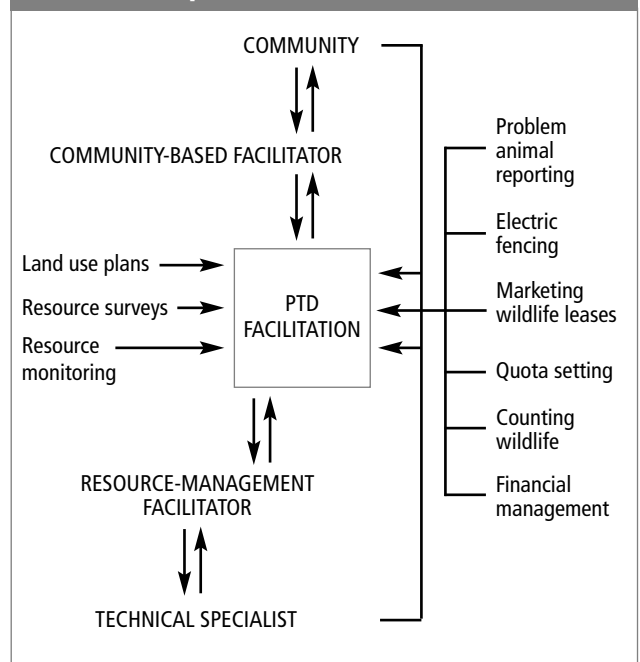
The first step in the PTD process was to use PRA techniques to facilitate communities to envision their future and identify key priorities, including environmental concerns, so that tools and aspirations could be matched. The priorities identified were:

- managing high-value trophy hunting;
- reducing conflicts between people and wildlife (especially elephants); and
- managing finances and projects arising from wildlife.

Cost-effective tools, matching the available human and financial resources to managerial priorities, were then developed. These methods needed to be rigorous and repeatable in a scientific sense, but sensitive to local managerial ability. Figure 1 shows how the PTD process was facilitated at each site.

At the village level, the project employed a resource-management facilitator (RMF). He or she helped the community to select their own community-based facilitator (CBF) who worked for the project part-time and was paid by the project. Both facilitators were resident at the field site for the three-year duration of the project. This combination of community and project facilitators provided in-depth information on community dynamics and aspirations, as well as feedback on whether the tools under development were being accepted and used. Local facilitators were particularly

Figure 1: Facilitating Participatory Technology Development



important for organising communities, for linking technical experts with the communities, and for providing continuity to local management processes. Making numerous household visits, each of the village RMFs and CBFs sought also to link the village/household levels into those tool development processes that were focused mostly at ward level.

The bulk of the development and training work was done by the RMFs. The RMFs in turn received training in key technical and social skills from the technical specialists, as well as learning through experience. The well-qualified and experienced technical specialists guided the process, providing technical leadership, innovation and imparting values that emphasised devolution and participation. They also visited the communities regularly on a 'need to' basis, developed personal relationships with key community members, and worked to ensure acceptance of these methods at a higher policy level.

This structure helped to knit all the levels together, and to provide continuity and iteration. Care was taken to balance the logistical temptation to train a small élite within the community with the need for transparency and widespread participation. Consequently, the process involved meetings with the wider community, as well as with the elected wildlife committees, traditional leaders (including village headmen),

Facilitated
PTD session

Photo: the authors

and the community's NRM employees such as community game guards and fence minders.

Results

The first phase of the project developed a number of NRM methods and tools at the different project sites. Subsequent phases of the project packaged these methods as user-friendly manuals and materials for wider delivery in a national training programme, targeted primarily at wildlife producer communities (see Goredema, Taylor and Bond, 2005). The twelve manuals and toolboxes in the WWF Wildlife Management Series (WMS) capture this generic knowledge (Box 3). Several of them were supplemented by trainer's manuals, simulation tools and games, and posters, which proved especially effective at 'leaving' knowledge in the community.

Community managers, employees and committees were given help in transforming the generic manuals into their own site-specific manuals, operational guidelines or posters. Having community leaders and employees write their own manuals increased uptake and commitment, and contributed to local technical capacity and institutional memory. Examples of local manuals include electric fence maintenance, counting wildlife, and financial management. In some districts and wards, problem animal reporters were trained using WMS Manual 1.

An example from one district shows how communities are able to adapt and improve systems. Initially, the community game guards and the ward wildlife committee acted as a conduit for reports on problem animals, and communicated these by radio to the district problem animal control unit

Box 3: The WWF Wildlife Management Series of guidelines and toolboxes

1. *Problem animal reporting*
2. *Electric fencing projects*
3. *Electric fence maintenance*
4. *Marketing wildlife leases*
5. *Managing safari hunting*
6. *Counting wildlife*
7. *Quota setting manual*
8. *Quota setting district toolbox*
9. *Project planning*
10. *Financial management manual*
11. *Financial management toolbox (including the CAMPFIRE Game)*
12. *Fire management*

All available as free downloads from
www.policy-powertools.org/related/campfire.html

some 100km away. Because this centralised system was too slow to respond the community negotiated a new strategy, working directly with the local safari operator to deal with problem animals and thus shortening response times and lowering the cost of reacting.

Over the past ten years another district council and its constituent ward communities have undertaken annual wildlife counts (WMS Manual 6), and used the results and additional data from hunting offtake records to set quotas (WMS Manuals 5 & 7 and *Quota Setting District Toolbox*). The council has then negotiated the marketing of the quota with the resident safari operator (Manual 4). These examples demonstrate both the long-term adoption of a set of complimentary tools, with continuity and even innovation after direct project support ended, and an understanding of the results linking investment in natural resources to benefit derived from them.

Positive outcomes

Effective PTD can give communities technical tools that they can sustain and adapt, with positive and lasting outcomes. PTD can also reinforce devolutionary empowerment. Not only does the consistent application of methods and tools such as quota setting demonstrate community capacity, but communities can also often accumulate more data for wildlife management decisions than does the central scientific authority. Local knowledge enables effective dialogue and argument, thus increasing the community's share of power. For example, the ability of communities to demonstrate the responsible application of quota setting to the wildlife authority has led to greater devolution of responsibility for quota setting to districts and communities. Another

example is the WMS *Marketing Wildlife Leases* (Manual 4), which has been the platform from which RDCs have negotiated, on behalf of their constituent communities, substantially higher fees and stronger contracts with private sector safari operators.

There are other spin-off benefits. For example, the financial management toolbox, and especially the CAMPFIRE game (see article 7, this issue) stimulated great interest and transparency at community level, but it has also been tested by the Ministry of Education for incorporation into secondary school curricula. The quality of the tools has also led to demand-driven adoption (with adaptations) by communities throughout CAMPFIRE and elsewhere in southern Africa.

Lessons learnt: critical analyses

If PTD is well resourced, including effective technical leadership and a sufficient time period, it produces robust methods and good technical manuals. Village-based facilitators are the key to continuity and linkages between specialists and community. There is no substitute for extensive field work. Even with field-based facilitators, technical staff need to spend up to three-quarters of their time working with village communities in the field.

Local ownership of the process, retention of information and data, and the production of ward-level manuals, generates a moderate but important level of empowerment which complements the legal devolution of use rights. However, one of the long-recognised weaknesses of CAMPFIRE is that legal authority is vested in the RDC, so that implementation of PTD at sub-district levels requires the support of the political and executive hierarchy at district level. Being legally and technically stronger, RDCs may have benefited even more from these methods than did ward and village-level communities. Thus the approach sometimes failed to build strong co-management frameworks between district and sub-district institutions.

Developing the methods and tools required patience and time, and some methods, such as the CAMPFIRE game, needed further refinement at the end of the three years. Other methods and their accompanying guidelines, such as *Electric Fencing Projects* and *Electric Fence Maintenance* (Box 3), have become redundant over time as new, more cost-effective methods have been developed. Following the PTD phase, the project commenced materials development and training, including scaling up to district and national levels. This hampered field testing and wider application of methods developed later, such as fire management. Consequently, not all the tools have continued to be used, which

Playing the
CAMPFIRE game



Photo: the authors

raises questions of timeliness, appropriateness and sustainability. Either fewer tools should be developed or more resources deployed to overcome delays and raised expectations following PTD-based field work.

The methods were mostly oriented to wildlife management, and could not easily be applied across different resources. This trade-off reflects the expertise of the project team and the fact that communities prioritised wildlife because it was both valuable to them and they had legal rights to use and benefit from it.

The assumption that robust local institutions, dynamic leadership and social cohesion are prerequisites for successful technical interventions is not necessarily valid. When some or all of these conditions are lacking, we have noticed that the technical intervention itself can contribute to institutional strengthening. We also noticed that the ability to develop capacity and the level of adoption differed between sites.

Smaller groups tended to adopt methods and develop institutional memory more quickly. Adoption of a given method reflected its relevance in the eyes of the community, confirming that establishing convergence between community aspiration and methodological reform is essential. The project did not always achieve this congruence.

Conclusion

Community-based conservation and natural resource management in Africa reflects changing paradigms in the accomplishment of broader conservation and development goals. Old rules are being replaced by new rules, a process described as institutional change. In CBNRM programmes, this is enhanced by increasing economic benefit from, and strengthening proprietorship over, natural resources. In CAMPFIRE, both benefit and proprietorship have remained relatively weak thus far. With greater devolution we believe

a more rapid rate of adoption of the methods developed would have been possible. Nevertheless, through PTD, an innovative start to producing NRM tools has been made. Such tools not only empower communities to maximise their roles within the existing set of rules, they also allow the rules to be challenged. Under such conditions, necessary institu-

tional change may be more likely. Having observed how important effective institutions are to sound resource management, a final observation is that (with the exception of financial and project management tools), PTD has not been applied to the critical matters of institutional development, transparency and governance.

CONTACT DETAILS

Lilian Goredema
WWF Southern Africa Regional Programme
Office
PO Box CY1409
Causeway, Harare
Zimbabwe
Tel: + 263 4 252533/4
Email: Lgoredema@wwfsarpo.org

Ivan Bond
International Institute for Environment and
Development
3 Endsleigh Street
London WC1H 0DD, UK
Tel: UK +44 20 7388 2117
Email:ivan.bond@iied.org

Russell Taylor
WWF Southern Africa Regional Programme
Office
PO Box CY1409
Causeway, Harare
Zimbabwe
Tel: + 263 4 252533/4
Email: rtaylor@wwfsarpo.org

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5

Marketing hunting and tourism joint ventures in community areas

by BRIAN CHILD and CHRIS WEAVER

Introduction

Community conservation in southern Africa is premised upon the devolution of rights, including:

- the right to benefit;
- the authority to manage resources; and
- the right to allocate and dispose of these resources to best advantage (see article 1).

Three mechanisms have been especially important for converting devolutionary principles into practice. Revenue distribution (article 3) encapsulates the right to benefit. Quota setting (article 8) encapsulates the right to manage and allocate natural resources to best advantage. And, as outlined here, marketing encapsulates the right to make commercial partnerships. These three activities provide powerful entry points for community development. The way they are handled has profound implications for community capacity, institutions and organisation. They embody power relationships and dictate who controls money and resources. If money earned from wildlife is appropriately allocated within communities, it creates incentives for long-term conservation and can mould institutional development.

This article describes the process of empowering and training communities to select, negotiate with and contract private sector partners. Marketing is not a mere technical

“Marketing is not a mere technical arrangement; it has important power implications. Firstly, between the community and the state. And secondly, between the community and the private sector. The confidence and capacity to understand and negotiate commercial business relationships is, of itself, empowering”

arrangement; it has important power implications. Firstly, between the community and the state. And secondly, between the community and the private sector. The confidence and capacity to understand and negotiate commercial business relationships is, of itself, empowering.

The methods described here were first developed for marketing safari hunting concessions in Zimbabwe's CAMP-FIRE programme. They were then adopted and adapted for high-end tourism concessions by Namibia. They are the result of ideas shared between the regional professionals who facil-

“With the communities and their representatives clearly in control of the sale of hunting, strong and respectful relationships developed between safari operators and the community”

itated these developments over many years. Apart from the authors, staff members of the WWF Southern Africa Regional Programme Office (SARPO) in Zimbabwe and of the WWF office in Namibia played a leading role in developing these methodologies.

Because of its economic and political power, it is important to manage the marketing process carefully to ensure competition, transparency and learning, and to reduce the risks of elite capture, collusion and corruption.

Background

In southern Africa, high-end hunting and tourism are sophisticated businesses often managed by long-standing white-owned companies. Negotiations encompass complicated economic, financial and racial connotations, with considerable suspicion by both communities and officials that the communities are being exploited by the private sector. The professionals who initiated the process described below had considerable practical experience in the administration, economics and management of hunting and tourism. They had longstanding partnerships with the black communities they sought to empower, as well as relationships with the outfitters with whom they brokered negotiations and contracts of sufficient integrity that the higher prices they achieved were not resented.

When CAMPFIRE was initiated, hunting was sold by the Wildlife Department on behalf of communities, with state officials setting prices. Economists in the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group knew that this administrative pricing was undervaluing the wildlife resource, and that contracts set in a devaluing Zimbabwe Dollar were exacerbating this. Moreover, centralised marketing clashed with the devolutionary principles of CAMPFIRE. To rectify these faults, community-based marketing was initiated in Tsholotsho near the Hwange National Park in 1989. It was based on the following principles¹:

- planning to maximise financial returns and positive political economic consequences;
- active community participation to ensure that their needs are met in the contract and to create capacity, knowledge and commitment about a business historically opaque;
- competition to drive up the price and reduce the possibility of unfair profiteering; and
- transparency to reduce suspicion and the potential for corruption.

Methods used

Tendering

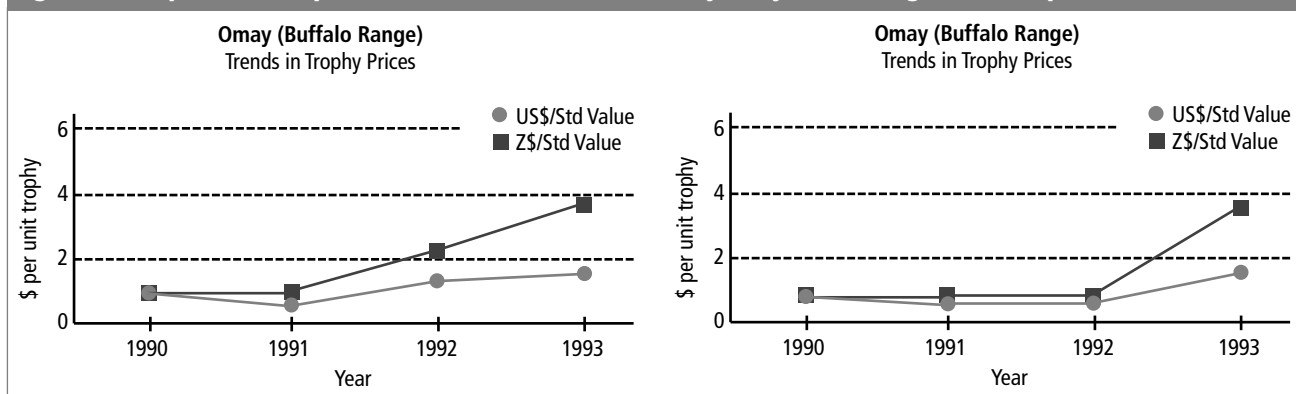
The primary innovation was very simple – the introduction of a tender system to replace the arbitrary determination of prices by government. A newspaper advert solicited twelve bids. Technical experts from the Wildlife Department and local government worked with a wildlife committee that represented the seven producer wards to agree upon selection criteria before the bids were opened. Three bids were short-listed and invited for an interview. It was also agreed that the first agreement would be for a single year because the committee did not have time to research the financial and performance background of the applicants sufficiently to be confident in a long-term agreement. Two weeks later these same technical experts and officials provided a one-day training session on the safari industry, and worked out the key questions the community needed to ask as well as what prices to expect. The following day, three outfitters were interviewed. After much heated debate, the hunting concession was split and offered to the top two bids. This process increased income for nine elephant bulls from the government-set price of Z\$108,000 in 1989 to Z\$280,000 in 1990. So successful was this initial process that other districts and countries rapidly adopted it, leading to the iterative refinement of the marketing and training process in the region.

Database

A database showing the prices of trophies and concessions proved invaluable in supporting the marketing of hunting. Support agencies tracked the prices of all animals in each concession (Figure 1). This database provided up-to-date information for negotiations. By demonstrating the relative prices received for hunting from each community concession, it was easy to see which communities were under-performing, and therefore to prioritise corrective action. In Namibia, similar databases are regionally disaggregated by average price per species to allow communities to decide if they are receiving a fair offer.

¹ See the manual developed by WWF's Southern Africa Regional Programme Office (SARPO) *Marketing Wildlife Leases*. For the full manual see: www.policy-power.com/related/docs/marketing_wildlife.pdf (1585kb).

Figure 1: Example of annual performance of two concessions in Nyaminyami showing Z\$ and US\$ prices.



Planning

High-level technical support was essential to help communities clarify exactly what to sell, how to package it, the preparation of tender forms and information, and the initial newspaper adverts (for details on this process see WWF's *Marketing Wildlife Leases*). Namibia developed a template that is easily customised for specific sales and specifies:

- financial offer;
- number of local people to be employed and value of employment;
- training and value of planned training; and
- conservation contributions (e.g. game translocations, wildlife water point maintenance, support to community game guards, etc.)

Shortlisting

If tender documents are well planned, it is usually easy to shortlist applicants based on the minimum guaranteed income and/or expected income. For technical and transparency reasons, this process should be facilitated by professional staff from NGOs or government agencies. Important attributes of these staff are a sound knowledge of the economic and operational realities of the hunting sector, and an ability to facilitate community decision-making without dominating it.

Training

It is invaluable to provide a day's concentrated training the day before the interview. The first step is to facilitate the community's elected wildlife committee to define their **selection criteria** through an interactive process that creates deep awareness of the safari hunting sector. Experience suggests that communities usually want the following:

- money;
- a respectful relationship (which, more than anything, sometimes trumps the money);
- local employment; and
- help with transport in emergencies.

Business performance issues such as an outfitter's track record in terms of hunting capabilities, marketing, and previous community involvements are also discussed. Finally, pricing issues are clarified, including:

- prevailing market norms (using the databases mentioned above);
- the use of minimum guaranteed prices or off-take to guard against non-performance; and
- USD equivalents to protect against devaluation.

A checklist of questions is a useful outcome of this process. Members often practice specific questions to solicit information such as price, character, employment, hunting experience and knowledge of the area in order to fill out the



Figure 2: An example of the evaluation criteria and evaluation matrix used by communities to choose safari outfitters to partner with them (from WWF SARPO manual)

SUMMARY OF NON-FINANCIAL PARTS OF TENDER						
	OPERATOR 1		OPERATOR 2		OPERATOR 3	
Payment offered	500 000	3	550,000	4	600,000	5
Guaranteed income	500 000	5	400,000	3	400,000	3
Hunting experience	Good - 12 years in CAMPFIRE	4	No experience in CAMPFIRE	2	Little experience in CAMPFIRE	2
Knowledge of area to be hunted	Not good- all experience in lowveld	2	Very little	1	Good	3
Local employment	16 full-time 50 casual	4	12 full-time 40 casual	3	20 full-time 60 casual	4
Language	Fluent Shangaan	2	Poor Shona	3	English only	1
Character-trustworthiness	Good	4	Good	4	Uncertain	2
Relationship with community	Potentially good	4	Potentially good	4	Unclear	2

agreed evaluation matrix (see Figure 2).

Once the community negotiators have this background, role-playing techniques are invaluable to:

- practice asking and evaluating the right questions;
- gain confidence with dealing with the private sector; and
- develop confidence in discussing prices and bargaining beyond the initial offers.



Interviewing

Outfitters are interviewed individually, often for several hours. The wildlife committee sits at a large table, seating the outfitter(s) at one end. The session warms up with brief introductions. The interview proceeds like a semi-structured interview, with the conversation moving into issues that the outfitter or community want to clarify in a business arrangement. The chair

checks the list of questions to ensure all information requirements are fulfilled. If the training is done properly, the technical advisers should be able to sit quietly at the back of the meeting. This also encourages other government officials not to dominate proceedings.

Deciding

After all outfitters have been interviewed, the technical experts facilitate the community to carefully summarise each offer in a large matrix chart according to the agreed criteria (Figure 2). Experienced facilitators with an intimate knowledge of the economics, culture and operation of the industry are invaluable. It is best if the facilitators can also 'read' into the outfitters rugged, individualist (invariably white) culture, and have personal knowledge of operator's reputations for performance and trustworthiness.

Contracting

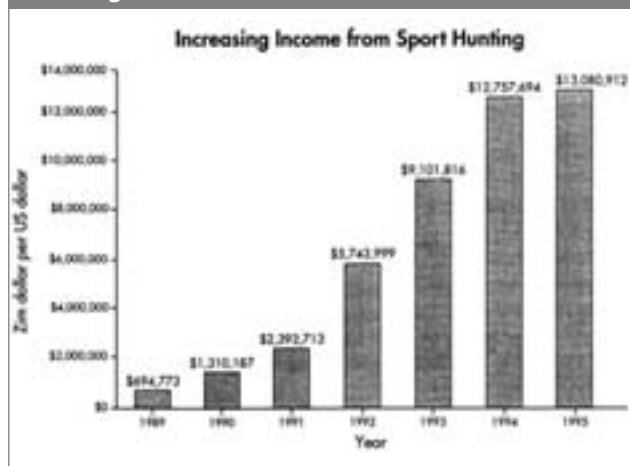
Once an operator is chosen, the offer is converted into a contract. In Zimbabwe, this was usually a two- to five-page document, kept deliberately clear and simple so that the selection committee could understand it and explain its provisions to anyone who asked. Lawyers and legalese were avoided in the design and preparation of these contracts, although communities and outfitters were advised to have them scrutinised by their lawyers. Namibian contracts are developed in two parts. Key contractual details such as agreement duration, payment amounts and schedule, values for each species, etc. are incorporated into a Memorandum of Agreement (MOU). The MOU is supplemented with an attachment that contains greater details around the 'Operational Conditions and Guidelines' for the hunting concession. As with the tender document, the MOU and guidelines have been developed in a template format that is adapted to new concessions.

The simplest option is to specify the price for each animal, and the number that the outfitter guaranteed to pay for. Some agreements in Zimbabwe were based on a percentage of gross income (carefully defined). Communities were strongly advised to steer away from profit sharing arrangements, because 'profit' is too difficult to define unambiguously, and also from in-kind payments which are difficult to value and verify.

Marketing tourism joint ventures

The same basic principles of open, transparent, highly participatory marketing apply to tourism. However, this sector is much more complicated than safari hunting. It has high fixed costs in infrastructure and marketing is complex and expensive. Financial timeframes are much longer and more uncertain and business models are more varied, ranging from small to large lodges based on anything from scenery to fishing, hiking or big game. Most of the tourism business initiatives in communal land are also more exploratory and

Figure 3: Increasing income from sport hunting due to tendering in Zimbabwe



risky. By contrast, safari hunting is well established in communal lands, and has low fixed costs in the form of lodge infrastructure etc., and sells a well-defined product – trophy animals and wild land.

The marketing process follows similar procedures to hunting. However, greater technical judgment is necessary to analyse and evaluate bids based on 10- to 25-year cash flow projections. Initially, there was far less comparative data for a highly specialised and new sector. It was also difficult to use competition to control the process, and in some cases the offer had to be tailored to suit a single investor or the community had to maintain the pretence that several offers had been made in order to keep the investor's cash projections honest. This process worked reasonably well, aiming to extract 10% of gross income from the investor. In the best cases, informed tourism operators incorporated CBNRM principles such as revenue sharing into contracts.

In Namibia, with no established market value for lodge sites prior to 1995, NGOs had not only to assist communities to negotiate joint venture lodge agreements, but to develop the demand for these sites and overcome past practices of grossly under-priced sites. The first community lodge was facilitated jointly by an NGO, Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC) and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET), assisting a community trust to negotiate the Damaraland Camp with a highly reputable operator (Wilderness Safaris). This initial negotiation played an important role in providing a benchmark for one-on-one negotiations with the lodges that already existed in communal conservancies from pre-Independence arrangements.

From 2002–2004, a formal tender process for joint venture lodges in six sites was undertaken by MET and a tourism-specific NGO, the Namibian Community-based Tourism Association (NACOBTA), with the support of WWF. The process produced mixed results, and only two joint ventures contracts were immediately developed through the tender process. However, the attention generated by the tender process increased the private sector's awareness of lodge opportunities in these new areas and by 2006, agreements had been signed for five of the six sites and lodges were fully operational in three of them.

As with Zimbabwe, Namibia's joint venture agreements are based upon a percentage of gross revenue, but with fewer taxes and marketing costs to the operator. Payments vary from 4% to 10% of gross income. Already existing lodges are able to pay more, whereas new lodges usually pay less, reflecting the effects of high investment costs, and the three to five years it takes to establish a market on cash flow and debt burdens. To cope with start-up costs, contracts are formulated to increase percentage payments as debt is repaid and successful marketing of the lodge increases beds per night occupancies. In Namibia, joint venture lodge contracts also set clear targets on the number of community staff to be employed and timeframes by which community staff must be elevated to middle management positions.

Results

Increased income to communities

The income from safari hunting on communal land in Zimbabwe rose very rapidly after control was passed from the state to communities and open, competitive marketing was introduced. Z\$ prices rose 4.5 fold in four years, and US\$ prices 1.5 times.

In US dollars the revenue from sport hunting has increased from US\$326,798 to US\$1.4 million over the same period.

Table 1 shows the increase in income to communities from trophy hunting concessions following the introduction of tendering.

Increased empowerment

Empowered social relationships are as important as the income described above. With the communities and their representatives clearly in control of the sale of hunting, strong and respectful relationships developed between safari operators and the community. Many subtle value-adding

Table 1: Growth of the financial values realised from the tendering of three new communal area hunting concessions in Botswana and Namibia, 1993–2005.

Year	Chobe Enclave (Botswana) Concession Values	Salambala Conservancy (Namibia) Concession Values	Nyae Nyae Conservancy (Namibia) Concession Values
1993	P20,000 (\$4,000)		
1994	P60,000 (\$12,000)		
1995	P200,000 (\$40,000)		
1998/99	P365,000 (\$73,000)	US\$17,308	US\$17,850
2002		US\$28,431	US\$45,977
2005	P1,200,000 (\$240,000)	US\$96,000	US\$110,550

arrangements were formally and informally negotiated to mutual advantage. This was also invaluable for overcoming historical racial issues and forming genuine cross-racial and class business partnerships that, in some cases, have lasted fifteen years and are still in place. Evidence from other countries where government still carries out the negotiations (behind closed doors) and shares the revenue with communities, shows that far less money was paid for concessions, and communities learnt almost nothing about the hunting sector, the safari operators had little knowledge of and respect for communities, and the relationship between operators and communities were socially, environmentally and economically dysfunctional. There was less local employment, far less meat was delivered, and the many little support relationships that evolved in other programmes (such as the operator delivering or fixing machinery) simply never occurred.

In Namibia the importance of empowering communities through choice was illustrated when the government awarded a hunting concession in 2006 to the San community living in the Bwabwata National Park. Previously the government had sold the concession on public auction and the same operator had won the concession since 1994 by making the highest bid. Once awarded the concession, the community set their criteria for awarding a contract, which included factors such as employment, training, conservation contributions, and partner relationships, rather than just the highest price. The previous operator had the highest tender,

but the community opted for the second highest offer, which was considerably lower. This was because on past experience they did not think the previous operator was a suitable partner and because of the inclusion of more benefits related to employment and training in the second offer. So, the San community made a decision that was based upon empowerment and partner relations over one that would have generated significantly more cash.

Critical analysis

Effective marketing increases income rapidly, reduces the risks of corruption, and goes a long way towards providing the foundation for sound long-term cross-cultural/business arrangements. It substantially changes the politics of control to overcome historical disempowerment. Marketing is an important vehicle for generating skills and knowledge in natural resource management and for helping people to understand the value of wildlife. If an NGO or state agency does the marketing on behalf of a community, important opportunities for increasing the financial benefit and increasing empowerment and learning are lost. However, good marketing is wasted if the money so generated is not used well, or fuels elite capture and associated problems. In the negotiation process, there is always a problem of how many people can participate because concessions usually include a number of communities (5–10,000 people) and only twenty or so people can effectively participate in the negotiations. This makes it difficult to avoid empowering the leadership more than community members (the ‘follower-ship’), and great care must be taken to use parallel measures (e.g. revenue distribution, article 3, this issue) to increase transparency and participation and avoid the dangers of elite capture.

Ways forward and conclusions

In order to assist appropriate marketing by communities, technical facilitators working in NGOs or government agencies need to understand the private sector well, be able to communicate with them technically, financially and culturally, and be able to facilitate communities to bargain hard and fair. This is particularly the case for lodge developments, which are complicated by the variability of the tourism product, fickle markets, and high investment costs. Consequently, agreements need to be negotiated as far as fifteen or more years into the future, with the accompanying uncertainty regarding projections of income, expenditure and profits.

With such support, communities are quite capable of bargaining for themselves provided:

- they have good information on prices;
- they are facilitated to understand the sector they are dealing with;
- they receive a small amount of training in cross-cultural/class negotiation; and
- they have support to draw up contracts.

Legal support is essential, but must be applied judiciously to ensure that documents are legally binding, and also to make them simple to ensure clarity and transparency.

This works extremely effectively for a highly competitive and similarly structured sector like safari hunting, or where similar lodges are added to a well-developed tourism circuit. More flexibility is required to encourage innovative private sector entrepreneurs to experiment with new kinds of tourism products or new destinations.

While good marketing is highly effective, there has often been too little invested in the ongoing monitoring and evaluation of agreements. Some operators in Zimbabwe exploited communities because Rural District Councils failed to check their agreements, and there was insufficient discipline (or support) in the application of databases, hunt return forms and other monitoring instruments.

Sustainability is also an issue. So far marketing has been supported by NGOs, as well as free technical support. The next step is to link community-based organisations (CBOs) to commercially available technical support, such as consultancies.

In conclusion, the returns on investment in effective facilitation of communities to market their own wildlife is extremely high. A few days of careful work by experienced facilitators can often double or quadruple the value of wildlife. More than this, it places community leaders at an equal level in negotiations with the private sector. This fundamentally improves cross-cultural relationships, and adds considerable value to both parties. Moreover, the partnerships that arise from well-facilitated negotiations result in personal trust and legal agreements. Where the fundamental principles of community conservation (such as revenue sharing) are tied into such agreements, they can often outlast the participants and extend beyond project cycles that are invariably too short to institutionalise such changes. In other words, well-structured agreements add considerable robustness to community conservation. Because they provide legal strength that can hold up in court, they provide an alternative or complementary mechanism to genuinely empower communities and protect principles such as revenue sharing, participation and transparency.

CONTACT DETAILS

Brian Child
Centre for African Studies
Department of Geography
University of Florida
3034 SW 98th Way
Gainesville FL 32608
USA.
Email: bchild@africa.ufl.edu

Chris Weaver
WWF LIFEPLUS
Box 9681
Windhoek
Namibia.
Email: cweaver@wwflife.org

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6

Community-managed tourism small enterprises in Namibia

by ANDEE DAVIDSON with REUBEN MUFATI and USIEL NDJAVERA

Introduction

This article explores the development of community-managed tourism small enterprises with two pilot conservancies in the Caprivi Region of Namibia, each of which had been given rights by government to develop campsites in the adjacent National Park.¹ This work took place over a period of two years (2003–2005) and was facilitated by a local NGO, Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC), with technical guidance, inputs and direction from a Tourism and Business Advisor from the WWF LIFE (Living in a Finite Environment) Plus Project, Namibia.

IRDNC has worked for more than 15 years in support of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) and enterprise development, and has a long relationship with both communities and Traditional Authorities. The WWF LIFE Plus Project has provided support and technical advice to local partners in Namibia since 1993.

¹ Conservancies consist of areas of communal land on which neighbouring landowners or members have pooled resources for the purpose of conserving and using wildlife sustainably. Members practise normal farming activities and operations in combination with wildlife use on a sustainable basis. The main objective is to promote greater sustainable use through co-operation and improved management. Conservancies are operated and managed by members through a Conservancy Committee.

“... to ensure that the proposed campsites fitted into the overall tourism vision for the respective communities, a highly participatory tourism planning process was undertaken”

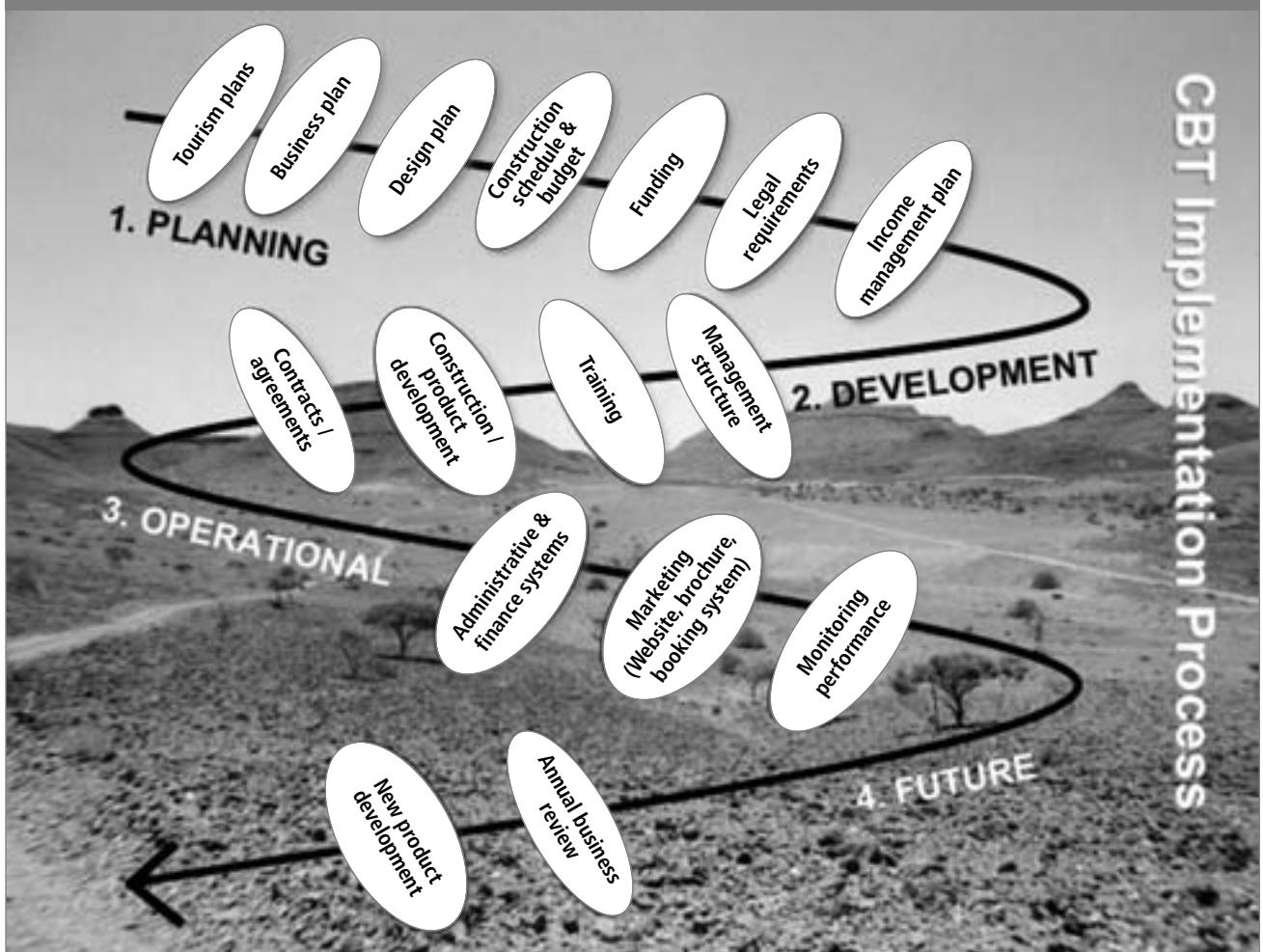
Donor funds from both WWF LIFE and IRDNC were used in the facilitation and to cover enterprise development costs.

Enterprise development in action

Working interactively and iteratively with the conservancies, we used a step-by-step approach to small enterprise development (Figure 1). We divided the process into four key phases – planning, development, operations and the future (growing the business) – which are discussed in more detail below.

Although ownership of the campsite rests with the conservancies (and hence the community members) we worked primarily with core groups of five to ten people, made up of elected Conservancy Enterprise Committees (CECs) and appointed campsite managers and staff. The

Figure 1: Community-based tourism implementation process



CECs are comprised of three or four representatives from the broader Conservancy Management Committee, all of whom have been elected from the various villages in the conservancy area. The CECs were given the specific mandate to monitor the performance of the campsites and to provide feedback to the Conservancy Committees, who in turn, through the village representative structures, would inform community members of progress.

Planning

Tourism planning and awareness

To ensure that the proposed campsites fitted into the overall tourism vision for the respective communities, a highly partic-

ipatory tourism planning process was undertaken (Figure 2). Planning was grounded in the conservancy but involved all stakeholders (e.g. tour operators, government officials). The process took several months, and was effective in engaging the community, raising their understanding of tourism as an economic sector and creating local buy-in and ownership of tourism development opportunities.

Business planning

Once the campsites had been identified through the tourism planning process, business viability was determined by developing a business plan collaboratively with each core group over a period of four to six weeks. At an introductory workshop, the format of a business plan was explained, and ideas

Figure 2: Tourism consultation and planning process

sought from the group. The technical facilitator then finalised the more technical components (tourism demand, projected income and expenditure, competition, marketing etc.) before discussing this draft analysis with the core group for modification and finalisation. This highly collaborative process resulted in a business plan which has been used throughout the development and operational process as a tool to guide the growth of the business.

Design plan

In order to meet the high expectations of international tourists, the campsites were carefully designed prior to construction, using the knowledge of tourism experts in collaboration with the core groups.

Enterprise implementation plan (EIP)

We agreed with each core group on the development of a simple matrix identifying the different steps in the process of enterprise development, timelines, and roles and responsibilities. Crucially, the EIPs were developed with the core groups ('with participation comes commitment') and have become their plans with which to drive the development and operation of the enterprise forwards. Initially, the EIP was seen as a tool for the NGOs to ensure comprehensive planning and to facilitate monitoring of progress. However, enterprise staff are increasingly using it to plan and implement activities, while the CECs are using it to monitor staff performance. Use of the EIP required a great deal of facilitation over the first year, but from the second year staff in

Figure 3: Example of an Enterprise implementation plan (EIP)

EXAMPLE																														
Enterprise Implementation Plan																														
Enterprise: _____ (An information centre)																														
Date: 9 Jan 2005																														
	ACTIVITY	JANUARY				FEBRUARY				MARCH				APRIL				MAY				JUNE								
Code	Planning	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	Comments
01	Tourism Plan / Study																													See notes in booklet in the MTRP
02	Business Plan (including marketing)																													To be developed with conservancy committee
03	Design Plan																													Finalise
04	Construction schedule / Budget																													Finalise a certain extent on approval of Management panel
05	Small Grants Proposal (including budget)																													Apply for a certain amount on approval of Management panel
06	Small Grants Contract / Agreement																													Apply for a certain amount on approval of Management panel
07	Recruit Distribution Plan																													
08	Planning - Other																													
Code: Development																														
01	Management Structure																													Conservancy committee to approve out of office
02	Tourism Awareness Skills																													
03	Business / Enterprise skills																													
04	Tour Guiding Skills																													
05	Training - Other																													Training and education
06	Membership of NACCOTA																													
07	Construction																													
08	Minimum Standards Incorporated																													Use MTR standards for information centres
09	Development - Other																													
Code: Operational																														
01	Guest Support Package																													
02	Financial systems																													
03	Admin. Systems - visitors book																													
04	Visitor comments book																													
05	Included in Brochure																													Advance printing of enterprise needed
06	Included in Website																													Advance printing of enterprise needed
07	T-shirt / Merchandising																													Include graphics, staff, T-shirts
08	Uniforms																													Use Travel Conservation badge
09	Maintenance checklist																													
100	Working System																													
101	Operational - Other																													

particular used it at each meeting to assess their progress and make changes where necessary (Figure 3).

Development

Management structures

Although the local community may want to manage the tourism enterprise itself, it is important not to compromise on the minimum standards needed in order to compete in the market. In Namibia most community-owned tourism enterprises are managed and operated by community members, but the quality of management varies enormously, and is often sub-standard. In Caprivi we were able to work with the core groups to think more critically about the most effective management approach. This involved:

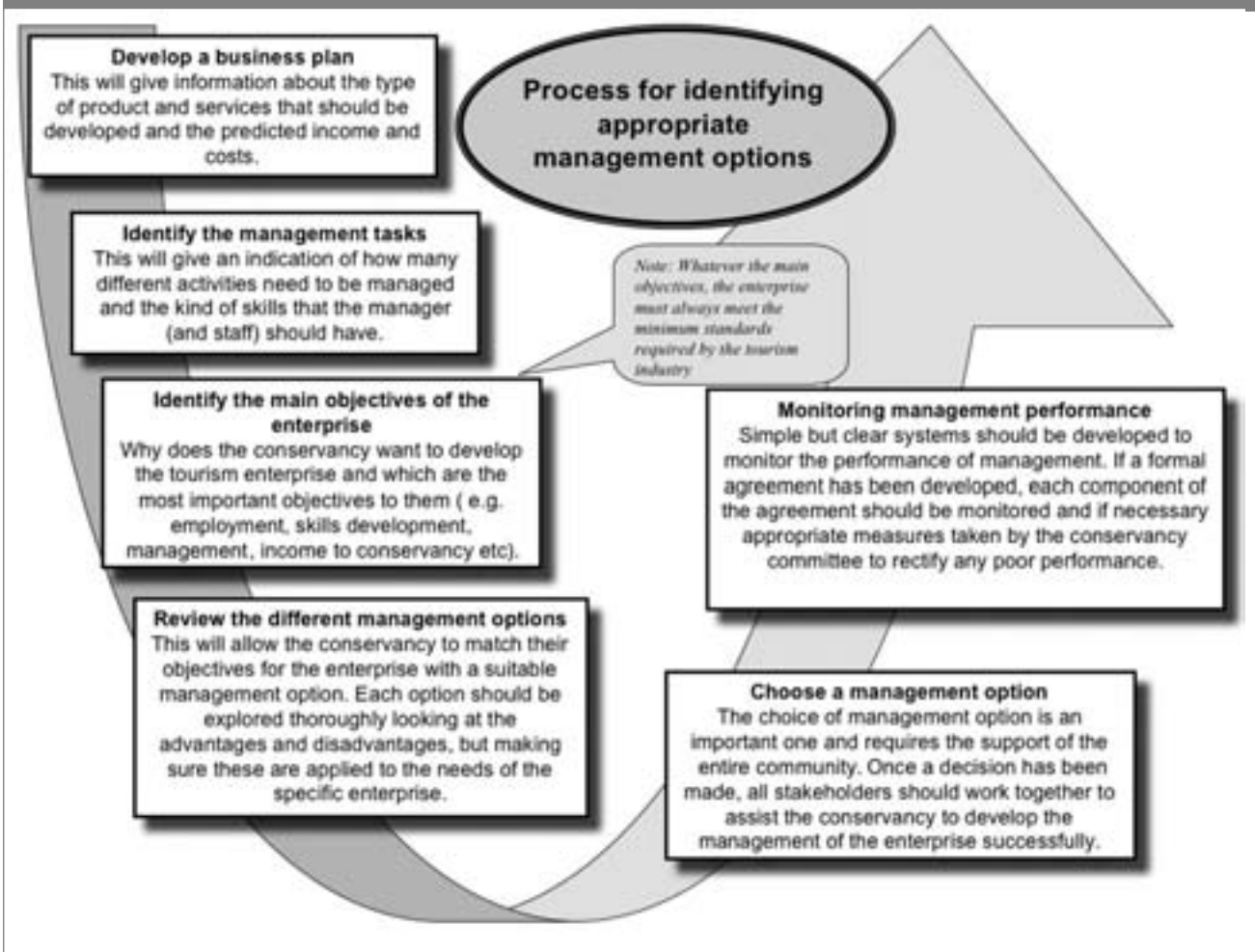
- Exploring all the management options available, including outsourcing management and/or services to entrepreneurs and/or existing tourism operators, in a one-day workshop for the core groups (Figure 4). Both conservancies felt that they would be able to recruit suitable staff and, with the support of IRDNC and WWF, develop the appropriate competencies to manage the campsites. However, these

decisions meant a very high level of support was needed from both NGOs.

- Discussion and agreement of the need to separate ownership (which resides with the conservancy or community body) from the management of the business. A number of tools were developed to deal with this issue, including a decision-making matrix to clarify who has the authority to make decisions about the enterprise (the manager or the larger conservancy), staff job descriptions and individual contracts with staff (Figure 5). The staff contracts clarified the roles, responsibilities and rights of the manager and staff.
- Exploring the possibilities of linkages into the tourism private sector right at the beginning of the planning process rather than leaving it as an after-thought.
- In addition, we have subsequently recognised the need to clarify the terms on which NGO support is provided and for how long at the beginning of the planning process (this should be clearly indicated in the EIP).

This process has encouraged conservancies to adopt a more business-oriented approach. Staff have been recruited on the basis of their competency in identified management tasks. Contracts have been developed between staff and the

Figure 4: Reviewing management options



conservancies. Moreover, with good performance monitoring systems in place, the conservancies have given more autonomy to the campsite managers to operate the businesses on their behalf (Figure 6).

Enterprise operations

We worked with the core groups to design simple management tracking systems that are aligned with the key performance parameters of tourism businesses and the capacity of the staff to apply them (Figure 7).

We started by discussing with the core groups a number of questions:

- why is data and information important to your business?
- what data in particular needs to be captured?
- how should it be captured?

- once captured, how should it be analysed to improve decision making?

Working collaboratively using mind maps, we summarised what the group needed to monitor, which data to collect and when to do so. The outcome of this process was the development and piloting of the campsite performance monitoring system.

This system ensures that key data is collected and summarised systematically, but is also designed to present data in a easy-to-understand visual format. Building on the now accepted practice in Namibia’s CBNRM programme of presenting information in the form of graphs (e.g. Event book system – see Chapter 9, this issue), enterprise-monitoring graphs were developed to track the number of visitors, income and expenditure, and profit and loss (Figure 8). In

Figure 5: Example of a decision-making matrix

Activity	Decision	Who has authority ?
Day-to-day operation of campsite	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purchase of supplies, spare parts etc. up to a maximum of N\$1000. • Payment of staff wages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager • Campsite manager
Product development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any changes – new ideas, activities, different prices etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager recommends and KEC* approves
Discounting campsite fees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To give discount and how much? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager using written guidelines
Management & organisation of staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who does what and when? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager
Identify poor staff or campsite manager performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warning letter (1 or 2) & possible termination of employment agreement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For staff, the campsite manager makes recommendation and KEC approves and implements • For the campsite manager, the KEC implements
Staff recruitment & dismissal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruit or dismiss staff 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager recommends and KEC approves and implements
Payment of staff incentive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calculation of incentive amount • Measure if staff performance deserves incentive payment • Payment of staff incentive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager but KEC needs to check and approve • KEC • Campsite manager but only after it is approved by KEC
Normal leave – staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When and how much leave can be taken at a time (max. 4 weeks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Campsite manager
Normal leave – campsite manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When and how much leave can be taken at a time (max. 4 weeks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • KEC
Extra leave/sick leave – staff & campsite manager	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When and how much extra leave and if paid or not 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • KEC

* KEC = Kwando Enterprise Committee

Figure 6: Management – the future



addition, we have developed a system of performance checklists that are used by the CECs to monitor the performance of enterprise staff in carrying out their duties (Figure 9). These checklists are used to look at the performance of staff with regards to maintenance, cleanliness, and administrative and finance systems. Once completed, they are also converted into graphs for ease of understanding and presentation back to the conservancy (Figure 10). A visitor comments book complements the checklists. Figure 11 shows the process for setting performance targets.

At both the Caprivi campsites, performance checklists are linked to incentive payments. Adequate performance against the checklists results in a further percentage of enterprise income being shared amongst the staff. Where this has been in operation, good performance has been rewarded in line with increased enterprise income.

Figure 7: Campsite management systems

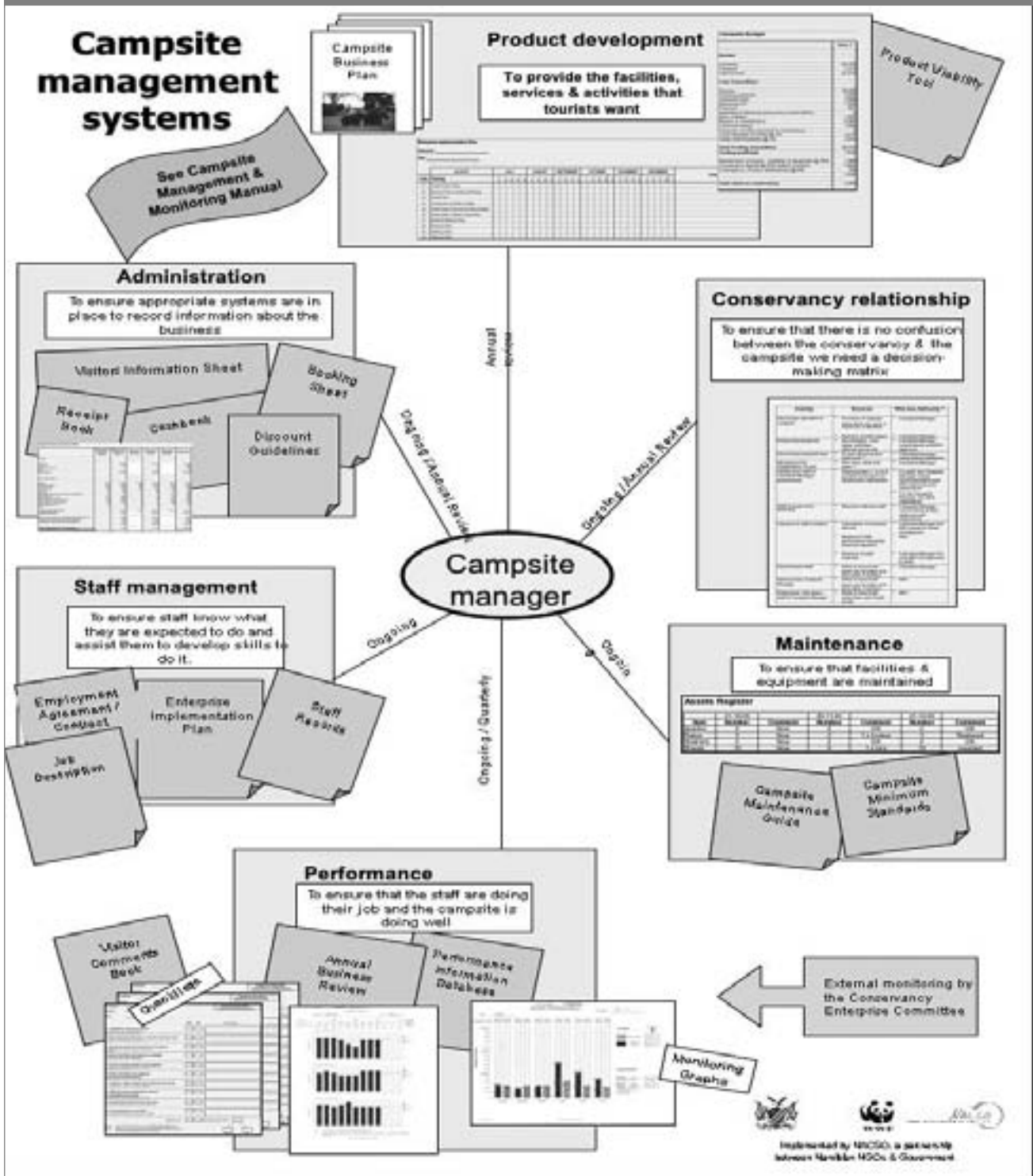
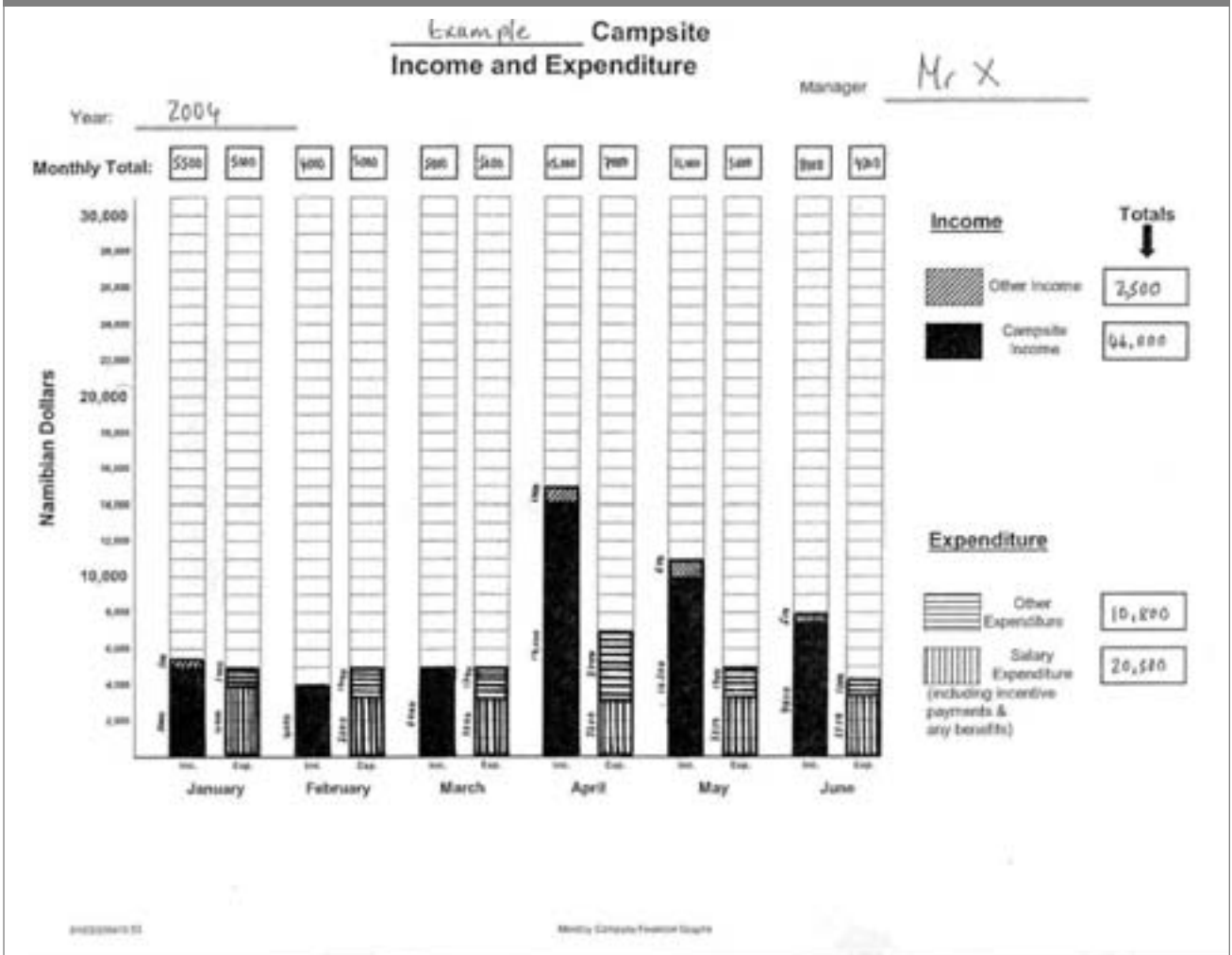


Figure 8: Example of a campsite income and expenditure graph



The future: growing the business

In Namibia, there has been a strong tendency amongst community-owned tourism to neglect re-investment in product upgrading or even maintenance. Most enterprises have become a source of ready cash that has been 'milked', and communities then returned to donors for a further injection of funding.

Over the last two years at the two Caprivi campsites, we have introduced and facilitated an annual review to assist community enterprises in planning for the future. This has proven very valuable. The review looks backwards at the performance of the enterprise in the previous year, utilising all the data obtained through the monitoring graphs and administrative and finance systems. It then looks forward to

the coming year to identify key activities such as potential product development, maintenance and staff training. These decisions are then captured in a new EIP, together with a budget and financial projections for both income and expenditure. This EIP becomes the basis of performance reporting in the next year.

Results and impact

The use of a structured and business-oriented approach to the development of the Caprivi campsites has seen their steady growth over the past two years. Collectively they are generating more than US\$43,000, employing eight people and returning a dividend of US\$18,000 to the conservancies. More importantly we have seen a gradual but noticeable

Figure 9: Example of a performance checklist (finance and administration)

Company: <u>Namibia</u>		Company Checklist Finance & Administration	
Period: <u>Jan - March 2004</u>			
Date: <u>10th March 2004</u>			
	YES	NO	Comments
1. Cashbook is read and up to date <small>(Cashbook should be reconciled monthly and entries to date should be up to date)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
2. Visitor Information Sheets are completed and up to date <small>(to include a monthly summary if completed)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
3. Monthly financial reconciliations are completed <small>(Balance sheets, expenditure, profit, assets register)</small>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Only January completed
4. Bank / Post Office statements are available and reconcile with Cashbook	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No statements since December 2003
5. Visitors Comments Book is used regularly <small>(to record visitor comments, queries & concerns)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
6. Bank / Post Office cash deposits are made on a regular basis <small>(to include a monthly summary if the practice)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
7. Complete "flow" diagrams are completed each month <small>(to help identify areas for improvement & action)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
8. CBTE Performance Data Sheets should be completed every month <small>(to provide a record of performance)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
9. Staff Administrative Files are up to date <small>(to include a record of staff performance)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
10. Assets Register is up to date <small>(to include a record of assets & liabilities)</small>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Total Score: <input type="checkbox"/> 10 <input type="checkbox"/> 9 <input type="checkbox"/> 8 <input type="checkbox"/> 7 <input type="checkbox"/> 6 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1		Yes Score out of 10 = <input type="checkbox"/> 10 <input type="checkbox"/> 9 <input type="checkbox"/> 8 <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 7 <input type="checkbox"/> 6 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1	
Note: A Score of 7 out of 10 or more is OK for staff performance. Note: A Score of less than 7 out of 10 is Not OK for staff performance and no financial payment should be paid.			

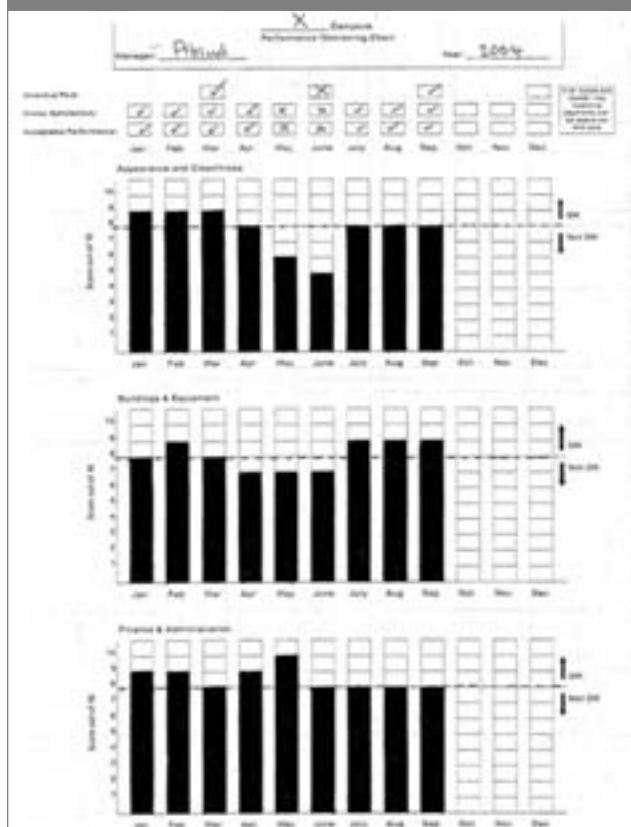
improvement in staff capacity and, in particular, in their use of management systems to monitor progress. Although not yet fully sustainable, they are well placed to engage more confidently in the mainstream tourism sector in the near future. For example, in the pilot conservancies, contact has recently been made with a local lodge operator (to assist with guide training) and a local booking agent (to assist with advertising and bookings).

Key lessons and principles for sustainable small tourism enterprise development

Sustainability of NR-based tourism enterprises can be achieved but it will require a fundamental shift of approach and a change in the mindset of some CBNRM practitioners.

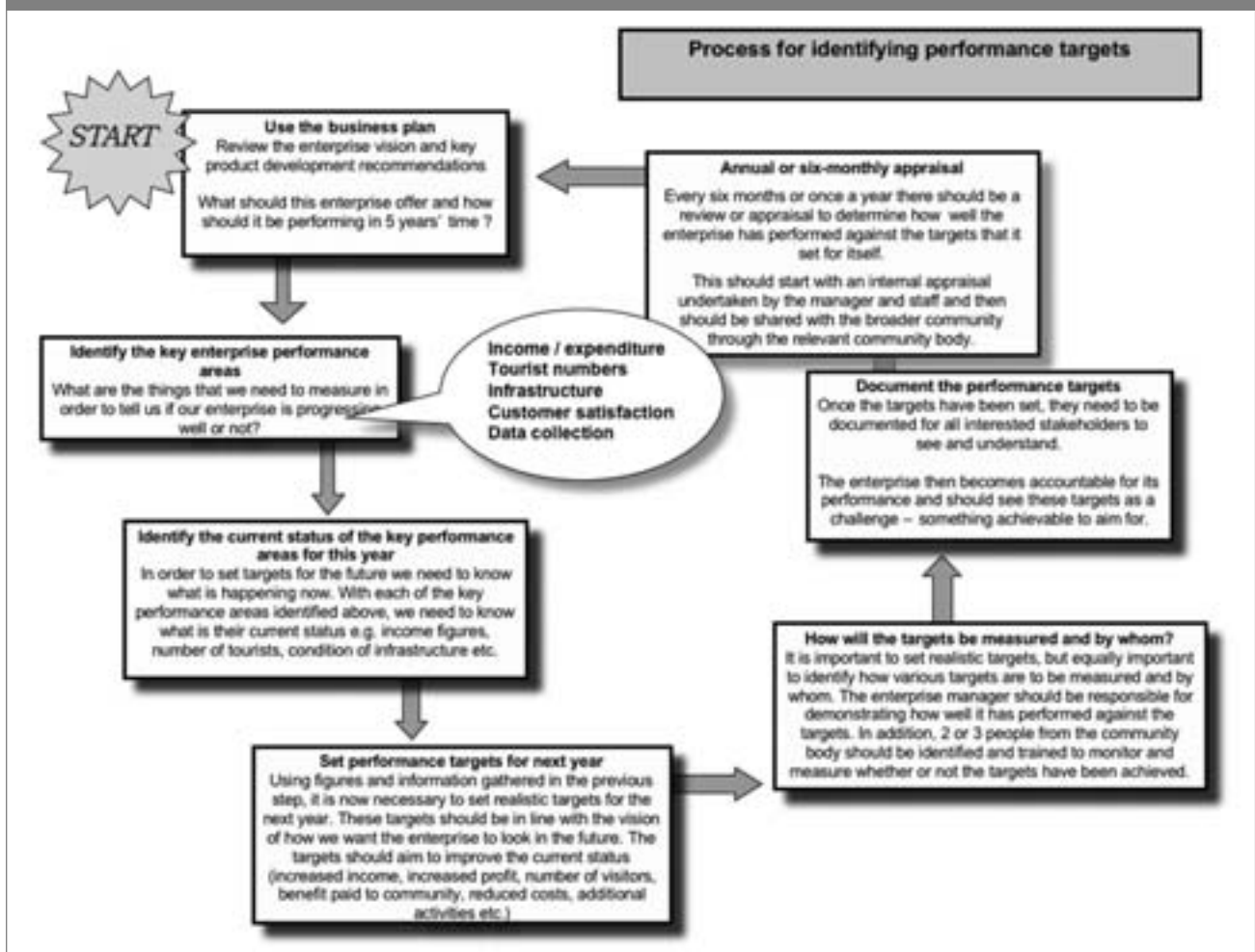
- NGO partners need to become more business-like. The original focus of CBNRM was wildlife conservation using collaborative approaches. However, these approaches are often not suited to the identification and development of business opportunities where very different institutional models and support staff are needed.

Figure 10: Performance monitoring graphs



- Expectations should not be developed unless there is a genuine market demand for the product (e.g. campsite) in question. Contrary to earlier approaches, which were community or supply led, effective enterprise development needs to undertake proper market demand studies to ensure viability.
- The external environment in which small enterprise development takes place means that what works in one country may fail in another. The scale and sophistication of the market affects how well community initiatives can be integrated into it. In countries where the tourism market is weak or the policy environment unfriendly, it is less likely that operators will offer support and services to emerging community-owned tourism enterprises than where the tourism sector is strong and supportive.
- There is currently a strong move within business development circles to adopt a 'Making Markets Work for the Poor' (MMW4P) approach. In particular, this means that NGOs and other support agencies need to develop a better understanding of markets and how they can be strength-

Figure 11: Process for identifying performance targets



ened in the interests of rural enterprise development.

- Most small enterprises, especially in tourism, would not be developed if left entirely to market forces because high transaction costs and low profit margins discourage potential or existing market players. However, to avoid the common scenario of pumping in grant aid only to see businesses collapse at the end of the project cycle, support organisations must look at the level of their input and accompanying costs and compare with the likely impact or returns achievable by the enterprise. Subsidised support is often necessary to overcome initial development and transaction costs, but it is important to explicitly define the process for withdrawing subsidies and support.
- Ideally, projects should not be initiated by NGOs. NGOs need deliberately to phase out their support by creating

linkages into the market so that community businesses learn to buy business services from market providers rather than NGOs providing them at subsidised rates. Here, where the business services market is weak, there is a new opportunity to nurture its development, even spinning off NGO staff to operate as private service providers. This might use a similar process of subsidising development and transaction costs but ensuring that a process for weaning new businesses off these subsidies and support is in place and clearly stated up front.

- Linkages with the mainstream tourism sector should be encouraged from the beginning. In Namibia, campsites that were struggling to attract sufficient volumes of tourists or maintain minimum standards have been able to attract tour operators wanting to use their facilities on

a regular basis. The tour operator has assisted in upgrading the facilities, provides a regular rental fee (in addition to a per person payment), covers the costs of the manager and undertakes to make regular quality control checks and support management skills development. In addition, the operator has agreed to promote the campsites through their own marketing channels. In these circumstances, it is expected that, as the tour operator develops an effective working relationship with the campsite staff, the facilitating NGO can increasingly withdraw services and support.

The advantage of developing these relationships is that the community-owned enterprise gets more exposure to the reality of the tourism sector and becomes mainstreamed. In addition, they are able progressively to include the full costs of enterprise activities, without ongoing NGO subsidies. This forms the basis of financial sustainability. The enterprise-NGO relationship is then replaced with an enterprise-private-sector

relationship based on mutual business interests. However, private sector partners can be overbearing and paternalistic, leaving little room for the community staff to learn by doing or for skills development. In such cases, there may still be a temporary role for local NGOs to monitor and facilitate these relationships.

- Support agencies need to be realistic about the enterprise management capacity in communities, and should carefully and methodically nurture this capacity, being demanding of performance rather than overly soft and forgiving. Support needs to be structured, and to be provided with a 'light touch' and over more years than most project cycles. NGOs should avoid solving the community's problems for them rather than letting them gain experience by working through their own solutions.
- Ownership and management of the enterprise should be separated and management systems should be developed collaboratively with the community core groups.

CONTACT DETAILS

Andee Davidson
Tourism & Business Advisor
WWF LIFE Plus Project
PO Box 9681
Namibia.
Tel: + 264 61 239945
Email: davidson@wwflife.org

Reuben Mufati
Enterprise unit Co-ordinator.
IRDNC
Caprivi.
Email: rmafati@iway.na

Usiel Ndjavera
Business Advisor
WWF LIFE Plus
PO Box 9681
Namibia.
Email: usiel@nacobta.com.na

RESOURCES

The tourism small enterprise development process, tools and systems have been captured in a series of user guides which are available from LIFE Plus Project, Namibia (contact details above), and include a range of management systems, templates, draft contracts etc. For further information about the LIFE project, visit:
www.met.gov.na or www.dea.met.gov.na – Ministry of Environment & Tourism, Namibia
www.lac.org.na – Legal Assistance Centre, Namibia (land issues)
www.nacobta.com.na – Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association
www.irdnc.org.na – Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation
www.nnf.org.na – Namibia Nature Foundation
www.panda.org/about_wwf/where_we_work/africa/where/namibia/index.cfm – WWF LIFE Plus Project, Namibia

7

Making financial training fun: the CAMPFIRE game

by SAM MURINYE, LILIAN GOREDEMA and IVAN BOND

Introduction

One of the most powerful aspects of Zimbabwe's Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme is that the revenues from wildlife are devolved to districts and communities. As described in article 3, fiscal devolution fuels a process of institutional building. It also provides an opportunity and imperative for communities to learn about financial planning management. In 1992, the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group (CCG), which guided the development of the programme, mandated the World Wildlife Fund Southern Africa Regional Programme (WWF-SARPO) to develop active and innovative ways for communities to manage their wildlife resources and the benefits derived from them. WWF's Support to CAMPFIRE (SupCamp) Project focused on developing appropriate management methods in partnership with wildlife producer wards. The emphasis on natural resource management methodologies (e.g. the estimation of wildlife populations, fence management and quota setting), was augmented by financial and project management tools developed with and for Ward Wildlife Management Committees (WWMCs).

Initial participatory assessments showed that earlier financial training was inappropriate and/or insufficient. At this time, District and Ministry of Local Government officials

“The success or failure of community conservation initiatives is often determined by financial matters and accountability.”

expressed concern about financial management by communities, and often placed conditions of financial accountability upon communities that greatly exceeded their own organisational standards. The CCG, through WWF, responded to this flaw and the need for improved financial management, transparency and accountability by developing the CAMPFIRE game and financial management toolkit. With surprisingly few financial management training aids available, these tools were meant to be modified later to provide much-needed materials to secondary schools.

The game and toolkit were developed, tried and tested in secondary schools in Zimbabwe, and although important lessons were learnt, the process was stalled and needs to be rejuvenated.

Developing the CAMPFIRE game

The idea for using a game to address financial training needs

Figure 1: The board game of the CAMPFIRE game, adapted from Monopoly

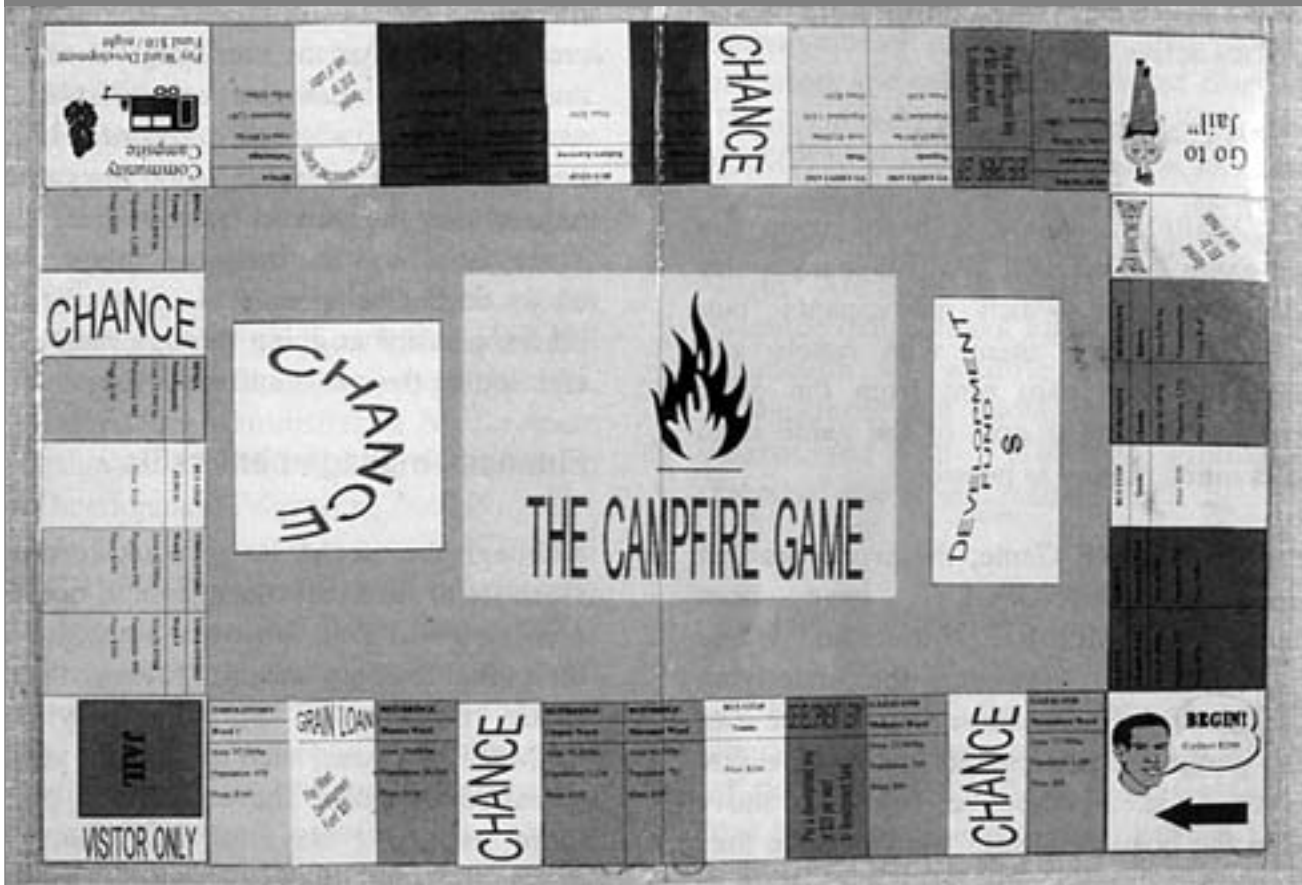


Photo: Ivan Bond

evolved when WWF facilitators reflected on the development of basic financial skills in society. They recognised that children in urban and more affluent societies develop basic financial skills through handling money regularly, e.g. pocket money and through playing games, particularly Monopoly.^{1,2} By contrast, Zimbabwe rural areas were and still are 'cash poor'. Consequently, the SupCamp team decided to develop appropriate games for training purposes. To test community's reaction to board games, facilitators took a Monopoly set to one community. The response to the game was so enthusiastic that WWMC members played Monopoly late into the night.

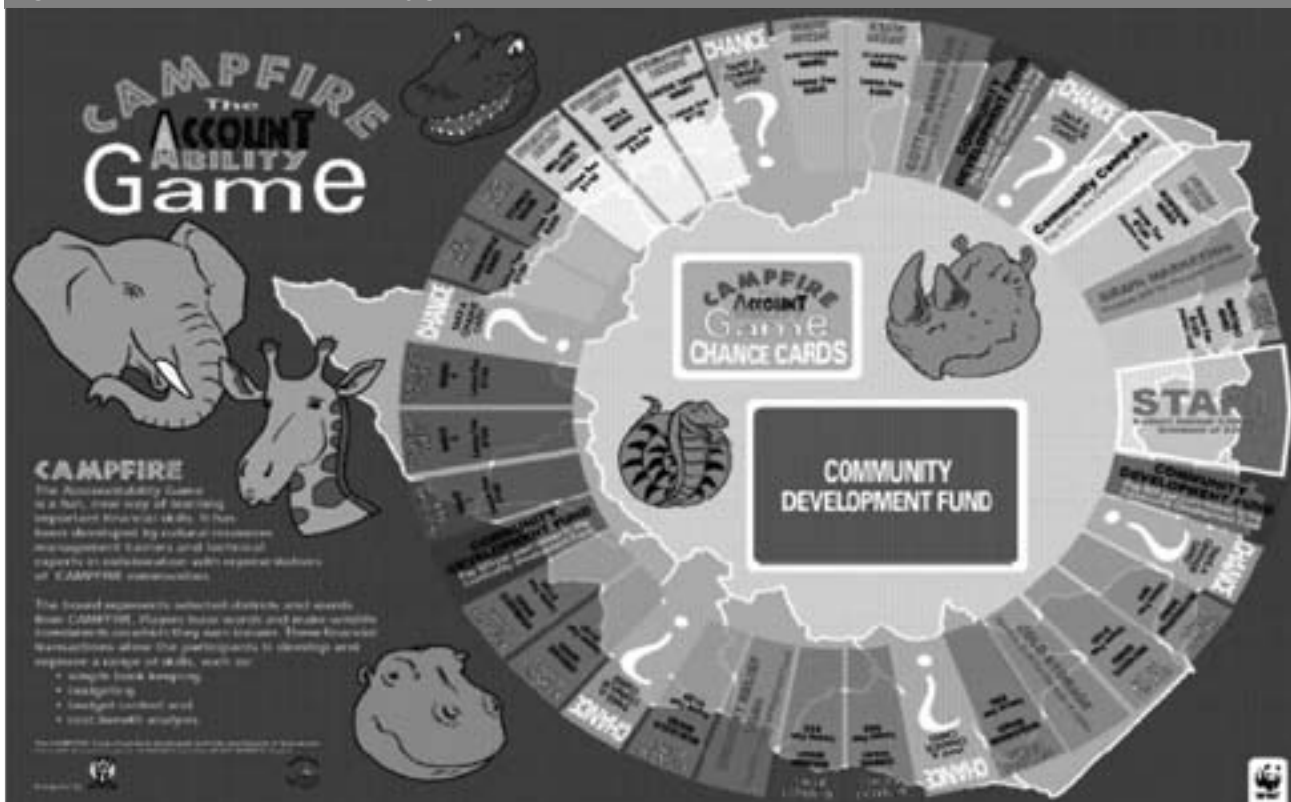
¹ 'Pocket money' refers to small amounts of money given to children, usually weekly, to spend or save as they like.

² Monopoly is the best-selling commercial board game in the world. Players compete to acquire wealth through stylised economic activity involving the buying, rental and trading of properties using play money, as players take turns moving around the board according to the roll of the dice. The game is named after the economic concept of monopoly, the domination of a market by a single seller (source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monopoly_\(game\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monopoly_(game))).

This positive trial of Monopoly stimulated the SupCamp Team to develop a prototype CAMPFIRE game. The first game was hand-made with scissors, card and coloured paper, laminated for durability (Figure 1). In addition, the team worked on a set of training activities to accompany the game. The prototype was tested through a series of ward level workshops, resulting in a few modifications to the board, the accompanying cards and the basic activities. The SupCamp team tested similar prototypes for community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programmes in Zambia, Botswana and Namibia.

The evolution of the prototype CAMPFIRE game into the full financial training toolbox was a result of intensive collaboration between the SupCamp team, with facilitation and managerial skills, and the graphic design team at ACTION, an NGO dealing with education. The vision of a discrete toolbox was strongly influenced by a parallel process to develop a quota setting toolbox (article 8). The toolbox

Figure 2: The CAMPFIRE accountability game



forced the SupCamp team to describe and document the entire training process and includes the game itself, a rule book, the financial management manual and the trainer's guide. With ACTION, development of these games and materials went through several iterations, including trial sessions of draft products with selected trainers working at the level of rural district councils.

Description of the CAMPFIRE game

The CAMPFIRE game is a participatory learning tool that follows the principle that people remember 25% of what they hear, 50% of what they see and 90% of what they say and do. It is based upon the board game Monopoly and consists of a playing board, the ward cards, the chance cards, an icon for each player, artificial money, dice and an instruction manual. The game is part of the financial management training toolbox which includes cash and receipt books, laminated posters and the financial management manual. The game has been designed to be played at many levels of training. It can be used progressively to improve participants' skills in handling money, simple mathematics, bookkeeping, analy-

Box 1: How to play the CAMPFIRE game

In the CAMPFIRE game, the properties found in Monopoly have been replaced by CAMPFIRE districts and wards (Figure 2). However, the underlying principles of the game are similar. At the start of the game, the participants are given a sum of money, their objective being to move around the board 'renting' wards, investing in hunting and tourism, and earning as much money as possible. Once they have control of the ward, they can develop its wildlife potential by building either hotels or hunting camps, but not both in the same ward. Other players 'visiting' these properties are required to pay rent to the owner. The rent payable is dependent on the wildlife resources of the ward and the commercial developments made by the owner. Other payments are introduced through a set of chance cards. These, for example, may require the player to pay school fees, undertake repairs and maintenance to infrastructure, or receive money from the sale of ivory.

Source: Bond, I. (1998) 'A board game for financial management training.' *PLA Notes* 33.

sis of financial records, budgeting and cost-benefit analysis of investments (Bond, 1998). Box 1 explains how the game is played.

Using the CAMPFIRE game to develop financial skills

The CAMPFIRE game and the financial management training toolbox provides a complementary (or alternative) training approach to conventional financial management training that is largely based on the classroom situation. As shown below, the game can be used repeatedly to improve sequentially a range of financial skills.

Elementary book-keeping skills

With the game generating financial transactions, each player (or pair of players) keeps a cash book, issues receipts and writes out payment vouchers. These documents are designed to represent the actual financial recording system of the ward or district in which the training is being conducted. In playing the game, participants practise bookkeeping by entering transactions in the cashbook and completing supporting documentation like receipts and payment vouchers. The game improves mathematical skills and accuracy. The facilitator intervenes periodically so that participants balance their books, and learn to reconcile their accounts, finding and correcting errors if they don't balance.

Understanding wildlife enterprises/financial management skills

Playing the game also teaches participants about the wildlife business and enterprises, and raises, for example, the issue of why it is not generally possible to have a hunting and tourism enterprise in the same location, or the relative capital costs of such enterprises.

Financial analysis

The game was developed to provide training in simple accounting skills. However, discussions with treasurers and secretaries indicated that they had very little overall sense of how they allocated and spent their income, i.e. they needed to learn how to analyse simple income and expenditure data. A further set of activities was developed to address this managerial requirement, including categorising income and expenditure, calculating the relative importance of these sources and/or allocations and working out where the returns on investment were highest.

Budgeting and budget management

Once the players had analysed their financial records, these figures were used to plan and budget for the new game. This helped participants to apply their budgeting and planning skills to figures they had generated themselves. In the subsequent game, participants were then required to follow their plan and budget rather than making random investments,

SupCamp Facilitator explaining CAMPFIRE Board in first Financial management ToT



Photo: WWF SupCamp Project

emphasising the monetary discipline that individuals or committees require to manage public finances. Simple methods of cost/benefit analysis and payback period allowed participants to analyse the viability of all the potential investments on the board. In subsequent rounds this allowed them to target their investment.

Piloting the approach with schools

An initial set of 100 financial management toolboxes was produced in 2000. As with other management modules developed by SupCamp (see Goredema *et al.*, this issue), a training of trainers course was held for Rural District Council (RDC) personnel responsible for financial management training. Evaluations confirmed that the CAMPFIRE game and toolbox taught financial management in a practical and pragmatic manner to adults with a wide range of literacy skills.

At the same workshop testing the CAMPFIRE game within both rural and urban schools was proposed, on the assumption that the limited cash in remote rural areas meant that financial management skills were generally taught in theory. The CAMPFIRE game, it was argued, would provide tangible opportunities for children studying bookkeeping and accountancy to practice their skills. In addition, the introduction of the CAMPFIRE game in schools would:

- strengthen the understanding of natural resource management issues in the school, particularly in the urban areas;
- provide future or potential members of WWMCs with financial management skills; and
- provide teachers with financial skills and the ability to assist and train new members of WWMCs.

In 2003, WWF-SARPO sought permission from the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) Zimbabwe to test the CAMPFIRE game and toolkit in rural and urban secondary schools. This was done in eight rural and four urban secondary schools. A skilled financial trainer was recruited to expand the scope of the game. So, in addition to simple accounting, players

Box 2: Financial skills training

The CAMPFIRE game was used in schools to provide training in:

- analysing financial records;
- classifying accounts into **assets** (fixed and current), **liabilities, capital and accumulated funds**, **sundry income and expenses**; etc.
- Students then produced a **trial balance**, an **income and expenditure account**, and finally a **balance sheet**.

Teachers and students also realised that the game could be used in most areas of financial management training, including:

- cost-benefit analysis for leasing and developing a ward;
- cost-accounting with particular emphasis on capital investment appraisal, and the introduction of principles such as break-even point, absorption rates, cost centres, leasing, standard and variable costing, calculation of payback period, discounting cash flows, and obtaining net present values for project appraisal; and
- can also be used to introduce and practice cash flow projections, projected income and expenditure accounts, projected balance sheet and appropriation account, budget and variance analysis, planning and standard cost control.

were trained in a series of financial skills (Box 2).

With WWF and the CAMPFIRE Association³ working hand in hand with the officials from the Ministry of Education and Culture and Curriculum Development Unit, the CAMPFIRE game was introduced to more than 730 students and 40 teachers (including headmasters) in a classroom situation for approximately six weeks. Its usefulness was then evaluated in a workshop for teachers and officials, with a view to improving it as a teaching aid and incorporating it into the curricula of commercial subjects taught at secondary school level. The workshop also developed a strategy to expand and formally incorporate the CAMPFIRE game into secondary school curricula (commercial studies, bookkeeping and accounts).

Results and impacts

The SupCamp Project ended before the direct impact of the game and training toolkit within the communities was measured. An end-of-project evaluation (Zinyemba, 2002) indicated that the game was being used by trainers employed by Rural District Councils. WWF-SARPO also used an evaluation questionnaire on Training of Trainers courses. This suggested that 33% of the respondents were using the game, 73% found the methods effective and helpful, and 75% felt the game was an effective training tool. They considered that financial awareness had increased tremendously at ward and district levels in both Guruve and Muzara-

³The CAMPFIRE Association is the lead agency of the CAMPFIRE Collaborative Group which consists of a loose consortium of government departments, NGOs and the University of Zimbabwe's Centre for Applied Social Sciences.

CAMPFIRE District coordinators playing the CAMPFIRE game



Photo: WWF SupCamp Project

bani Rural District Councils because of the game and toolkit.

Outside Zimbabwe, the game was modified to suit local conditions and has been introduced to other community-based wildlife management programmes in Namibia, Zambia and Mozambique. In Mozambique, the financial management manual, the game and financial management training toolkit have been adapted and translated for use in community financial management training. WWF-SARPO is also assessing the potential of tertiary training institutions in the region to incorporate CBNRM into their curricula and to develop relevant materials that can include the game.

The CAMPFIRE game was well received in secondary schools. Teachers and students found the game fun and practical, and it gave them a wealth of experience in practical bookkeeping and financial management. However, its wider introduction was prevented by bureaucracy and lack of funds. The Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture's Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) insisted that senior policy makers be exposed to the game to obtain their go-ahead for its incorporation into the curriculum of commercial subjects, such as economics, business studies, commerce, management of business and financial accounting. A new proposal is being developed under the regional CBNRM Project of WWF-SARPO to take on the game where the SupCamp Project left off.

Conclusion

The game provides the financial skills for elected community leaders, some of whom are semi-literate, to manage their books. This improves their technical capacity to account to their constituencies, Council and external agencies. However, financial training only addresses one of the many problems preventing accurate, transparent and accountable financial management at ward level. Time limitations of WWMCs, the lack of accountability of WWMCs to their constituents, extremely opaque financial relationships between RDCs and wildlife producer wards, and weak finan-

Initial stages of CAMPFIRE game testing and development: SupCamp Facilitator playing game with Masoka Ward Wildlife Committee treasurer and secretary



Photos: WWF SupCamp Project

Financial Management ToT participants doing budget planning based on previous expenditure records



cial and communications infrastructure also reduce transparency and accountability. Effective book-keeping is a necessary but not sufficient condition for ensuring that financial affairs are subject to public scrutiny. The success or failure of community conservation initiatives is often determined by financial matters and accountability.

Globally, many NGOs involved within the environment and development sector devote considerable resources to the development, production and distribution of tool-boxes. The experience of the CAMPFIRE game and financial management toolbox has important lessons.

- First, training that is project funded is unlikely to be anything other than a short-term approach. To be sustainable, training needs to be incorporated into mainstream approaches, often under the control of government. So, tool development incorporates a large amount of work to ensure that authorities participate in and buy into the process.
- Secondly, unless training aids are accepted by mainstream training or educational authorities they are unlikely to be used beyond the funded project cycle. The experience from

the schools pilot project suggests that, even with a highly innovative product that was enthusiastically received by stakeholders in secondary education, there are considerable bureaucratic hurdles to be overcome.

Since developing the CAMPFIRE game, the Support to CAMPFIRE Project has ended before a large and successful investment has been fully consolidated. This mode of development funding is expensive and prone to reversal. This and other training initiatives have proven that they can work. The problem, however, lies with the naivety and short-termism of development funding.

CONTACT DETAILS

Sam Murinye
WWF SARPO
Box CY1409, Causeway, Harare, Zimbabwe
Email: smurinye@wwfsarpo.org

Lilian Goredema
WWF SARPO
Box CY1409, Causeway, Harare, Zimbabwe
Email: lgoredema@wwfsarpo.org

Ivan Bond
Natural Resources Group
IIED, 3 Endsleigh Street, London WC1H 0DD,
UK
Email: ivan.bond@iied.org

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Bond, I. (1998) 'A board game for financial management training.' *PLA Notes* 33, pp 64-66. London: IIED
Goredema, L., R. Taylor, I. Bond and S. Vermeulen. (2005) *Empowering rural communities to manage wildlife: lessons learned from WWF's Support to CAMPFIRE Project 1993-2002*. London: IIED.

8

Participatory wildlife quota setting

by NORMAN RIGAVA, RUSSELL TAYLOR and LILIAN GOREDEMA

Introduction

Participatory quota setting is an innovative biological and monitoring tool. It is used to adaptively manage wildlife sport hunting quotas in multi-stakeholder resource management regimes.

A large number of relationships need to be carefully nurtured to undertake and, most especially, to institutionalise a supposedly technical process like setting quotas for communities' hunting concessions. Zimbabwe's then Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWLM) officially mandated the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), through its Resource Management Support to CAMPFIRE (SupCamp) Project, to:

... develop, implement and disseminate improved community-based resource planning and management techniques/tools (Taylor and Bond, 2000).

These management techniques and tools needed to be simple, robust, technically acceptable, cost-effective and socially possible, so that they can be implemented by community wildlife managers at ward and village levels. This paper describes the process for developing and institutionalising participatory wildlife quota setting in Zimbabwe's Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme.

"If managed carefully, the process would give communities knowledge and skills that would empower them to make informed management decisions and take greater control over valuable resources"

Piloting participatory quota setting: learning from experience

Between 1994 and 1996, the SupCamp project developed and piloted participatory quota setting in three wildlife-rich districts in the Zambezi valley of Zimbabwe – Nyaminyani, Gokwe and Guruve. We used the iterative Participatory Technology Development (PTD) process described by Sutherland *et al.* (1998) and also by Goredema *et al.* (article 4, this issue, and Figure 1).

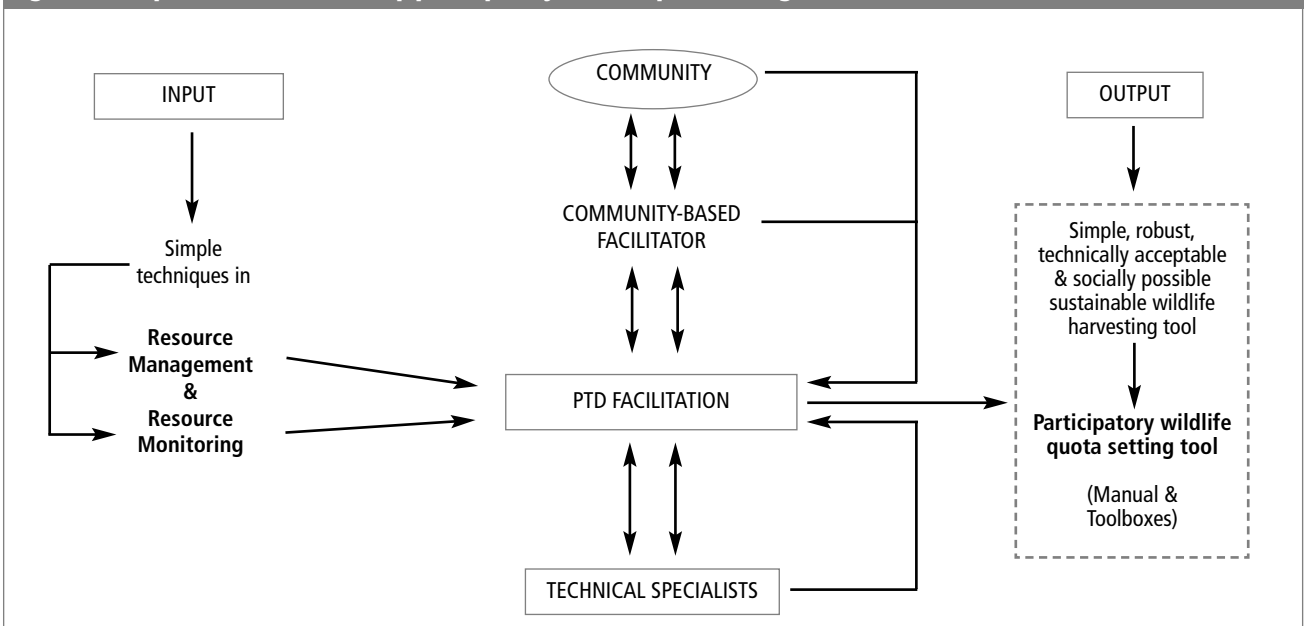
The SupCamp project experimented with wildlife resource management and monitoring techniques. We worked progressively through a number of steps, using both scientific and indigenous knowledge and genuine community involvement. The participatory wildlife quota setting

Planning for PTD facilitation: SupCamp facilitators reviewing and refining quota setting activities



Photo: Norman Rigava

Figure 1: PTD process used to develop participatory wildlife quota setting



methodology was developed through learning by doing, using PTD facilitation that brought together the community and SupCamp’s technical specialists.

Developing and maintaining relationships amongst community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) support agencies and with communities was vital to the success of this initiative. This took at least as much time as the technical aspects. Right at the beginning, meetings were held to clearly define the roles and goals of these partners (Table 1).

WWF SupCamp also recognised that quota setting was far more than a technical exercise. If managed carefully, the process would give communities knowledge and skills that would empower them to make informed management decisions and take greater control over valuable resources. We placed great emphasis on working respectfully with local people.

Technically, the development of the tools took into account the cost, local-level skills, and the limited formal training of participating communities in wildlife management issues. We avoided techniques that relied on field observation and measurement requiring high levels of precision, expensive or highly technical tools and equipment, and complicated analyses.

Rolling out the methodology

The pilot phase and the further development and refinement of participatory quota setting took place between 1996 and 1998. These experiences generated enthusiasm and demand from other CAMPFIRE districts for these techniques to be made more widely available.

In responding to this demand, the SupCamp project team adopted a dual approach. First, the team distributed the quota setting manual and toolbox to districts and participating communities and evaluated the impact of their use. Next, we held training of trainers’ workshops for participatory wildlife quota setting. These were for district-level CAMPFIRE managers and for selected NGO staff involved in training at sub-district level. In addition, SupCamp and Zimbabwe Trust provided technical advice and facilitation at annual district quota setting workshops in the 12–16 wildlife-producing districts.

At a national scale, seminars and workshops were conducted for wildlife agency managers and biologists. These events raised awareness of the participatory wildlife quota setting methodology. They also helped to broaden the debate on the robustness of the methodology from an institutional and biological perspective. Getting official participation and buy-in to the process was important later for communities to gain stronger rights to setting their own quotas.

Table 1: Participatory quota setting implementation and coordination

Organisation	Role
Department of National Parks and WildLife Management (DNPWLM)	Statutory agency. Responsible for wildlife conservation and management in Zimbabwe, including policy and coordination of all wildlife matters. This includes quota setting.
WWF Southern Africa Regional Programme’s Natural Resource Management Support to CAMPFIRE Project (SupCamp Project)	An NGO project with a mandate to develop community-based wildlife management techniques, including participatory quota setting.
CAMPFIRE Association	A political organisation representing the interests of rural CAMPFIRE communities through their respective Rural District Councils (RDCs). Provides coordination and policy advocacy at central government level and internationally.
Zimbabwe Trust	An NGO that supported institutional development amongst CAMPFIRE communities and provided an institutional home for the Quota Setting Project.
Safari Club International (SCI) and United States Fish & Wildlife Service	Provided funding for the Quota Setting Project.
Action	An NGO that specialises in education materials, and which produced the guideline manuals, toolboxes and other training materials.

By the end of 1998, the methodology had attracted some regional attention and demand. From 1999, seminars and training workshops were held on a demand basis in Zambia, Botswana, Namibia, and Southern African Wildlife College and Gorongosa Wildlife Training School in South Africa and Mozambique respectively.

Results and impacts

The participatory quota setting tool

The major outcome was a robust wildlife quota setting methodology that is captured by documents at three levels¹:

¹ See www.policy-powertools.org/related/campfire.html

**Quota setting workshop
preparation: participatory
field analysis of wildlife
trend data from community
ground counts**



Photo: Norman Rigava

Quota setting manual

This manual presents core content material on the theory of quota setting in an easily accessible style. It describes the steps for doing participatory quota setting.

Quota setting toolbox

The toolbox describes a set of participatory learning and action activities. These include games, demonstrations, simulations, and role-plays that explain and simplify complex technical issues to local communities, and guide them and facilitators in developing the quota.

Visualisation of data was an important innovation, espe-

cially for summarising and analysing wildlife trend data (e.g. aerial surveys, ground counts, trophy quality and other inputs such as incidences of poaching, problem animal information, safari operator's hunting effort, offtake rates and local community information). These activities enable community members and other key stakeholders to fully understand and participate in the quota setting process, and the resulting matrix is, in fact, an adaptive management (learning-by-doing) process (see Table 2).

Quota setting trainer's manual and toolbox

This is a comprehensive trainer's toolkit. Combining core

Table 2: A section of a participatory triangulation matrix

SPECIES	CURRENT QUOTA	GROUND COUNTS TRENDS	AERIAL SURVEY TRENDS	TROPHY QUALITY TRENDS	SAFARI OPERATOR	COMMUNITY INFORMATION	PROPOSED QUOTA FOR NEXT YEAR
Elephant (m)	7	↔	↔	↔	↓	↑	7
Buffalo (m)	20	↔	↔↓	↑	↔	↑	20
Lion	3	X	X	X	↔	↔	3
Leopard	4	X	X	↔↓	↔	↔	3

KEY TO TABLE

↑ = LOW INCREASE IN POPULATION	↔ = STABLE POPULATION	↓ = LOW DECREASE
↑↑ = MEDIUM INCREASE IN POPULATION	↔↑ = STABLE BUT INCREASING	↓↓ = MEDIUM DECREASE
↑↑↑ = HIGH INCREASE IN POPULATION	↔↓ = STABLE BUT DECREASING	↓↓↓ = LARGE DECREASE

X = INFORMATION NOT AVAILABLE/ IRRELEVANT

Source: Rigava, 2003, Taylor, 2001

technical content with the PLA techniques, the trainer’s manual provides training objectives, trainer’s notes, training tips, suggestions for the order and timing of activities, visual aids, handouts, other trainer’s aids and, finally, course monitoring and evaluation tools.²

Using these tools in a facilitated workshop setting, the quota is adaptively determined using a participatory triangulation matrix. The underlying key principle is that of adaptive management. A matrix is developed showing key indicators for individual species, as well as the current quota. Participants collect the data needed, which is then summarised on the matrix in the form of arrows. Participants then consider (by a process of triangulation) whether the available data and information justifies a change in the quota (Table 2).

The completed matrix forms the basis for quota recommendations to the State wildlife regulatory authority. Ecologists responsible for approving quotas review and adjust (if necessary) the proposed quota from each district, taking into account the relationship between the district, other hunting areas and adjacent protected areas. The approved quota is then returned to the district, where contracted safari outfitters use the animals for hunting. At the local level, each hunt is monitored by the RDC. Community game guards and/or

wildlife monitors accompany the hunts. Both districts and the wildlife authority have permit systems to ensure that professional hunters work within government-approved quotas. An essential tool here is the hunt return form. This captures economic and ecological data for each hunt, provides data for subsequent quota setting exercises, and feeds into a national database for tracking quotas, off-takes, income, and trophy quality.

Participation and empowerment

The participatory quota setting process provides a platform for continuous engagement, negotiation and consensus building between the community and key stakeholders in the wildlife sector. Full and informed participation encourages communities to:

- change their attitude towards wildlife; and
- invest time and money in resource management and monitoring.

There was a notable increase in community monitoring of wildlife resources. This was done through formal walked transects, and by including index monitoring techniques into community game guards and/or wildlife monitoring patrols. Participatory quota setting also provided the incentive and rationale for wildlife-producing communities to extend their control over external monitoring activities. These include aerial surveys (e.g. demanding timely access to results for management decision-making) and actively to monitor sport hunting – such as the numbers and species killed, location of kills, and trophy quality of the hunted animals (Bond, 1999).

² See also Tips for Trainers (this issue) which includes three extracts from the quota setting toolbox:

- Counting animals – drawing up a resource abundance matrix
- Use of the quota – examining the use of the quota
- Monitoring and evaluation – measuring and calculating trophy size

Small group activity (in a quota setting workshop): measurement and analysis of trophy quality



Photo: Norman Rigava

Adopting the quota setting methodology

In Zimbabwe, wildlife quotas for communal areas have historically been set and allocated by the State wildlife authority (DNPWLM). Especially after the authority began to lose technical capacity, the decision-making process became bureaucratic. There was little or no consultation with the resource managers or end users of the quota (Taylor, 2001). The participatory quota setting process subtly challenged the status quo. Rural communities, by taking space previously occupied by DNPWLM, were shifting power away from the centre to local institutions – districts and rural communities – that were historically viewed as technically incompetent to undertake such work.

Participatory quota setting is both quantitative and qualitative. It was a radical change from conventional, highly tech-

nical and centralised quota setting approaches used by the DNPWLM's wildlife managers and ecologists. The methodology was not immediately recognised by the DNPLWM. This was because it was so different. And, perhaps more importantly, because it challenges the distribution of power.

But although the process was initially resisted, WWF played an important relationship-building role. The quality of community data kept improving. And national databases were becoming increasingly indisputable. This growing acceptance led to the formal and full adoption by the DNPWLM in the year 2000.

Because of this, the DNPWLM distributed the participatory wildlife quota setting format as the framework for community quota proposals. They instructed the CAMPFIRE districts to use this system as the basis for quota develop-

**Demystifying aerial surveys:
SupCamp facilitator
demonstrates the aerial
survey game during a quota
setting workshop**



Photo: Norman Rigava

ment and submissions to the DNPLWM.

The WWF SupCamp team worked hard to persuade DNPWLM to accept the participatory quota setting methodology. They held seminars, workshops, and involved key DNPWLM ecologists and wildlife managers at district quota setting workshops. Plus there was continuous networking and debate. This resulted in a shared understanding that participatory quota setting is a technologically robust method.

Lessons learnt

- Capacity needs to be built at all levels (i.e. community, district, state authority) for participatory techniques to be developed and accepted.
- Participatory quota setting is technically robust. It probably represents an improvement over more 'scientific' methods. Studies of wildlife populations and trophy quality concluded that its use in CAMPFIRE is helping to achieve biological sustainability. Moreover, by using co-management and adaptive management principles, this tool strengthens the quota management capacity at all levels (for the DNPWLM, RDCs, local communities and safari outfitters). It helps to develop an organisational system capable of responding to changes in dynamic environments (Taylor, 2001; Rigava, 2003).
- In developing and facilitating the process, conflict resolution and consensus building skills are critical. The use of

multiple perspectives enriches the process. But within different groups there are wide disparities in knowledge, skills, power, and experiences. This invariably results in conflicts, communication obstacles, and domination by certain individuals or groups of individuals. Handling these group dynamics is as an important a skill as technical wildlife management.

- Managing the development process specifically to create 'institutional memory' is important once the methodology is adopted.
- Visualisation of data/information in the form of tables and charts is a powerful tool. This is not only in communities, but also at all levels. It allows equal access to information by stakeholders and provides an objective basis for discussion and collective decision-making.
- It is an expensive process that requires joint learning, careful facilitation, patience and sensitivity to community processes. But the ultimate benefits outweigh the costs. These benefits include: consensus building, conflict resolution, trust building, sharing information, co-management, sense of ownership and commitment to the outcome of process, active community participation, and contribution to biological and institutional sustainability. The process acts as a catalyst for communities to engage in other resource monitoring activities. This further enhances the quality of quota setting information, such as community wildlife census. The communities are also able to monitor wildlife revenues from sport hunting.
- For effective institutional support at local level there is need to involve not only implementers (the local communities) but upper level 'mother institutions' (at policy-making level) as well as local political and traditional leaders.

Major challenges

There were several major challenges we faced. One was breaking the technical barriers that made effective community participation difficult. The other was providing equal opportunities for communities and others to participate in the quota development process.

Getting the tool accepted by the wildlife officials was also a challenge. Trained wildlife professionals were used to interacting with communities in an authoritarian style. Teaching them to have the patience to listen to rural people without judgement or pre-conceived notions, to respect rural people's opinions even when they disagreed with their own thinking, and agreeing to be 'taught rather than teach' required skilful facilitation. Believing in the capability of a group of people who were traditionally considered 'ignorant' when it comes

to dealing with complex technical wildlife issues such as quota setting was not easy for wildlife managers. In trying to overcome this, the SupCamp team concentrated on the process of how best to engage and involve the statutory authority. By building relationships, we succeeded in reaching a common understanding of the merits of participatory wildlife quota setting.

For the PTD facilitators, remaining calm, relaxed, composed, respectful and confident, objective, neutral and fair so as to gain the trust of local people was important. So was knowing when to drive the process from the 'front and back seats' and an ability to handle conflicts and inappropriate group behaviour (especially when 'unfairly' directed at you!) with skill and sensitivity. The facilitators need to know when to lead the process (driving from the front seat). But they must also be aware of when to just observe and participate as one of the group members, while making sure that the discussion remains focused (driving process from the rear seat). It was essential to ensure that:

- decisions were consensus-based, taken by the group, and not imposed by a few 'powerful' individuals;
- the voices of the voiceless were heard as part of the quota setting chorus;
- stakeholders feel their views have been adequately represented and that they own the final workshop output (developed quota), ensuring accountability by all stakeholders.

Lessons to service providers and policy makers

Participatory quota setting creates a repetitive process in which communities monitor and evaluate their resources. This enhances local ownership and control (over resources) and contributes to positive institutional change at local and national levels. In CAMPFIRE, from a policy reform standpoint, demonstrating the capacity of communities to sustainably manage natural resources was an important step towards further devolution of natural resource management responsibilities from the district to local villages and wards (Rigava, 2003).

Conclusions

The participatory quota setting tool is a practical, working example of how co-management and adaptive management can be applied in CBNRM to improve, and genuinely engage, local people in wildlife management.

The quota setting process is also very robust, despite the uncertainty and complexity of the science. It triangulates between several indices of wildlife population and quality, and recognises that the harvesting of biological resources requires broader points of view than conventional natural resources management practices. The complexity of managing wildlife increases in multi-stakeholder systems such as in CBNRM so participatory quota setting is invaluable for gluing together multiple stakeholders. And while technically specific to wildlife, this method can be easily modified for non-wildlife resource harvesting regimes.

CONTACT DETAILS

Norman Rigava
Danish Association for International Co-operation, 5011 Los Angeles Boulevard, Longacres, PO Box 35788, Lusaka, Zambia.
Email: nrigava@yahoo.com

Russell Taylor
WWF SARPO
PO Box CY1409
Causeway
Harare
Zimbabwe
Email: rtaylor@wwfsarpo.org

Lilian Goredema
WWF SARPO
PO Box CY1409
Causeway
Harare
Zimbabwe
Email: Lgoredema@wwfsarpo.org

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9

The event book system: community-based monitoring in Namibia

by **GREG STUART-HILL**
with **RICHARD DIGGLE, BEVAN MUNALI, JO TAGG and DAVID WARD**

Introduction

The event book system is a grassroots natural resource monitoring programme. It differs from traditional monitoring in that the community dictates what needs to be monitored, collects the data itself and undertakes all the analysis. In this devolved monitoring system, scientists only facilitate the design process and act as advisers. The analytical tools facilitate information sharing amongst members. An important and unplanned impact has been the empowerment that the system has given communities to communicate on an equal footing with donors, investors and government officials. A spin-off is that scientists can also use the data.

The event book system started in a few conservancies in late 2000¹. Now more than 33 communal area conservancies in Namibia have adopted the system, covering almost seven million hectares. A sense of ownership, confidence, pride and commitment has developed. The process of monitoring has been as important as the results it has produced.

The success of the system prompted the Namibian

“The process of monitoring has been as important as the results it has produced”

Ministry of Environment and Tourism to use the same principles in their national parks. Exchange visits to Namibia have resulted in similar systems being developed in Mozambique (including marine parks), Zambia, Botswana and, most recently, Cambodia.

This paper describes the event book system, provides guidelines and lessons from the implementation process, and discusses its impact.

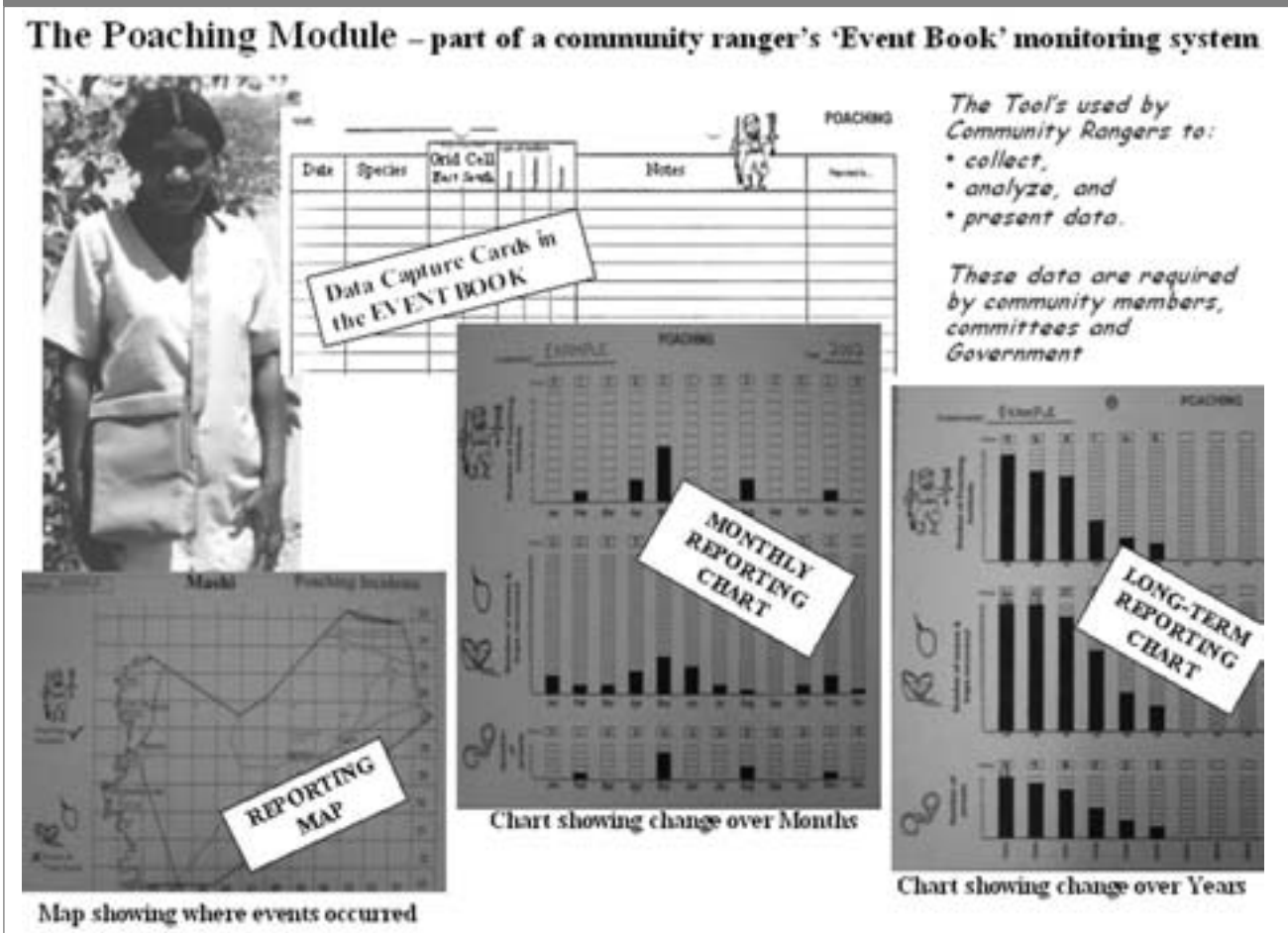
Background

Namibia currently has 44 registered communal conservancies. Legislation allows communities to benefit from wildlife but in return requires that they become active in resource management. Management requires an understanding of what is going on with key resources and associated activities. Conservancies need to monitor to get this information, as this is the basis of adaptive management.

Initial community-based natural resource management

¹ Conservancies are local-level common property resource management institutions which receive rights over wildlife and tourism under Namibian legislation. Their members manage wildlife and tourism activities whilst continuing with their existing land uses such as livestock and crop farming.

Figure 1: Event book system data collection and reporting tools used by community rangers to monitor poaching



(CBNRM) monitoring systems in Namibia were conventional in that external scientists designed them, conservancy-employed staff collected the data and the scientists then analysed them. Communities rarely received feedback, or there were lengthy delays, or community members were not able to understand the results. This led to a lack of ownership of the monitoring process and the results and these early systems struggled to survive.

In 2000, a more effective monitoring system emerged. Known as the event book system, it is designed around meeting the needs of the local community. Its name derives from monitoring events that occur randomly, e.g. fire, poaching, human-wildlife conflict, mortalities, etc. It also makes provision for systematic monitoring activities such as vegetation or wildlife censuses. A more accurate term is probably Management-Orientated Monitoring System (MOMS).

The event book system differs from traditional monitoring systems in that:

- communities decide what they need to monitor;
- data collection, analysis and archiving are undertaken locally; and
- technicians only facilitate and support the process.

The event book system

The event book

The event book is a personalised A5 ring file maintained by a community ranger. The file contains a set of yellow cards, one card for each monitoring theme or topic, e.g. there is a card for poaching, one for human-wildlife conflict, one for rainfall, and so on. As events occur, rangers select the appropriate card and record the event. At the end of each month

Figure 2: Job description poster for a community game guard in North-West Namibia

Community Game Guards (North West Namibia)

Poaching & Stock Theft

To obtain a dossier to address & prevent farming & game-guard community support for the officers of the Conservancy

Poaching Stock Theft

Community Meetings

To provide information to Conservancy Committees & inform ordinary Conservancy members about the conservancy policies and activities

Rainfall, Fire & Floods

To track these environmental variables that have an influence on the performance of the natural resources so that any changes can be explained and management adapted accordingly

DATE	RAINFALL	FIRE	FLOODING

Problem Animals

To track problem animal incidents over time & provide assistance to reduce conflict with problem animals

Predators

To estimate predator populations at any given time & get trends on how these species are performing over time

Wildlife Patrols

To get trends on various wildlife species to see how they are performing over time

Visitors & Guiding

To provide logistical and guiding assistance to official visitors to the Conservancy

Fixed-Route Vehicle Counts

To get: 1. population estimates for sports hunting & carrying capacity 2. trends of wildlife species to see how they are performing over time 3. a map of where the important wildlife areas are

Mortalities

To track mortalities to alert the Commission of there is a sudden rise in mortalities & help to determine the cause of mortalities (e.g. poaching, disease, etc)

Management

- Game introduction & harvesting
- Maximum water points
- Fence maintenance
- Fire control & firefighting
- Manage trophy hunting
- Road maintenance

Game Guards are the natural resource management arms of the Conservancy. In addition to monitoring, they also perform functions to maintain and improve common property resources

Elephant/rhino monitoring

To track these rare animals as they have high value and management can be applied on the basis of an individual animal or herd

Veld monitoring

To track seasonal and long-term changes in the veld so as to understand the impacts of grazing, veld collection and droughts and to predict local shortages for livestock and wildlife

Community Game Guards

a line is left and then data is recorded for the following month. At the end of the year, all of the old cards are removed and archived, and a fresh set of cards is inserted into the book.

The community rangers collect, analyse and then report on the data for different time periods. Colour coding is used to avoid confusion between the data-flow levels (yellow being for data collection; blue for reporting within a year; and red for tracking long-term trends). Figure 1 shows the tools used to monitor poaching.

Some conservancies generate sufficient income from tourism and wildlife utilisation to employ a community ranger to undertake the monitoring. Others use donor grants to employ staff or make use of community volunteers.

Deciding what to monitor

The community decides what they would like to monitor, although conservancies are legally obliged to report on levels of wildlife utilisation so this is automatically included. Agreement on what to monitor is reached through a workshop involving community leaders and rangers. This starts with brainstorming all issues of importance and ends with a list of topics that should be monitored. Normally this includes resources critical for livelihoods, those that the community is concerned about, threats to the conservancy and indicators of achievement. The final selection of topics is presented as a 'job description poster' which shows what the community would like the community ranger(s) to do (Figure. 2). The poster contains pictures and icons to assist less literate community members.

To support local design, yet provide a standardised and rigorous methodology, monitoring has been modularised by topic (Box 1). Twenty-one modules have been developed so far, each containing the colour coded 'tools' necessary for data collection and reporting monthly/quarterly and long-term trends.

Once the conservancy selects what it wants to monitor, the technical support team develops a kit for any areas not already covered. Over time, as needs and skills develop, communities add more modules, eventually covering a wide spectrum of issues – all at their own pace.

Data analysis

Data analysis is extremely simple. Community rangers record the location of incidents onto maps and calculate monthly totals or averages and present these on charts. There are three categories of reporting: monthly incident reports; annual reporting maps; and long-term incident reports.

Box 1: Modules developed

Problem animal incidents	Trophy hunting
Poaching	Wildlife harvesting
Predator encounters	Livestock mortality
Rare and endangered animals	Livestock theft
Fence monitoring	Livestock condition
Water point monitoring	Fishing effort
Flooding and river levels	Fish catch trend
Rainfall	Long-term vegetation change
Wildlife sighting during fixed foot patrols	Seasonal grass grazing assessment
Wildlife mortalities	Craft resources
	Wildlife re-introductions

Every month the rangers complete the monthly (blue) reporting charts (see Figure 3a). These charts are pre-prepared A3 templates that are housed in a large format 'flip-file' so results can be displayed at community meetings. One 'block' on the chart refers to one 'event'. For example, to report on poaching, one block is coloured for each poaching incident. Two incidents are represented by two blocks, and so on. In some instances, one block may represent standard values, e.g. 5mm of rainfall or 10 animals seen whilst on patrol. More advanced conservancies also complete reporting maps using symbols to differentiate between different types of incidents. One map is used for each monitoring topic and lasts a year (Figure 3b).

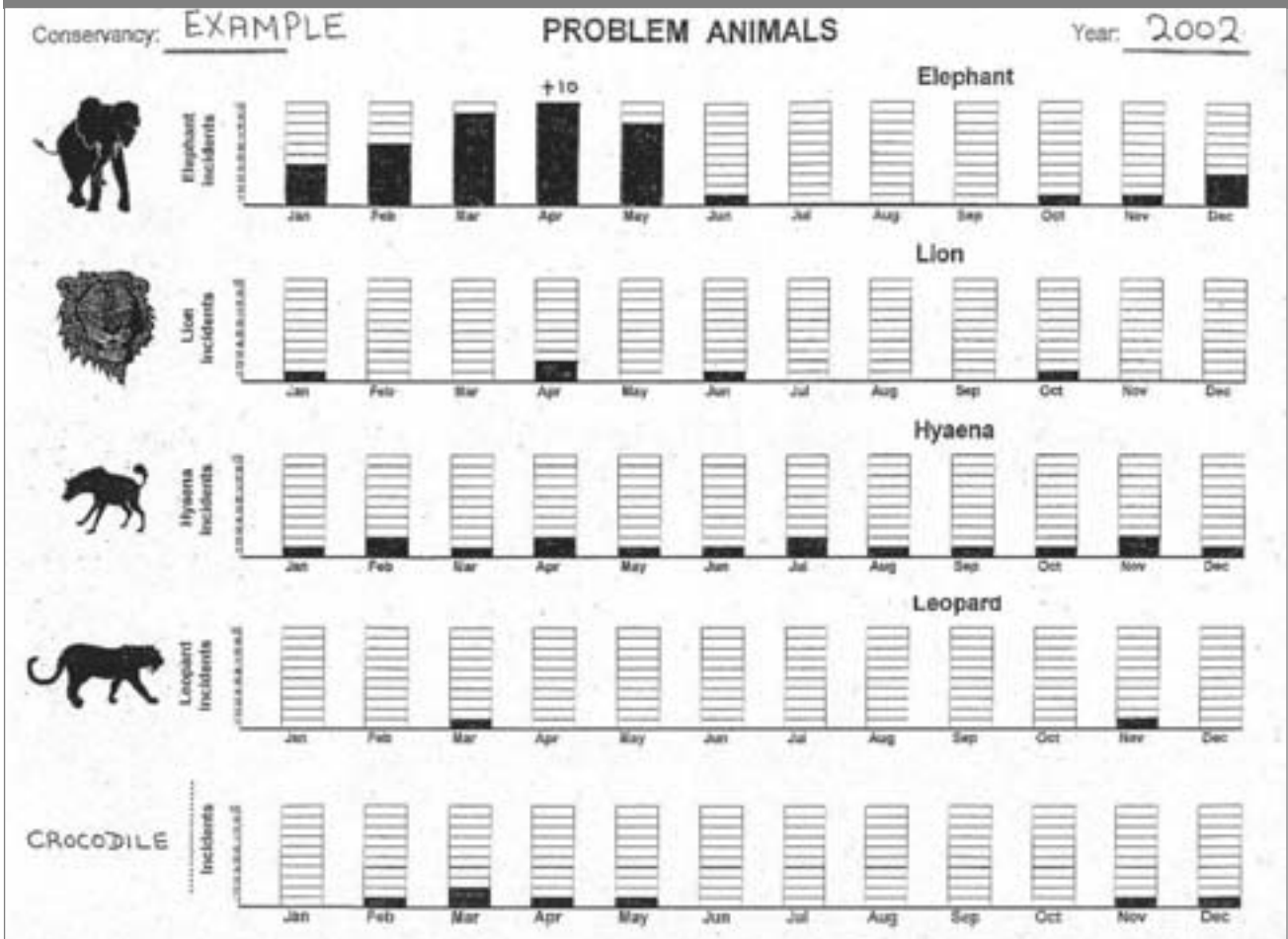
At the end of each year, the totals for the year are transferred onto long-term trend red reporting charts. These are similar to the monthly reporting charts and use the same method of colouring in blocks to represent number of incidents or quantities (Figure 4). However, on the blue monthly charts the x axis shows months, and on the red trend charts it shows years. Colour coding the different reporting timescales has proved to be critical in avoiding confusion.

The reporting materials are presented at monthly community management meetings (and at annual general community meetings). Community members evaluate the spatial impacts of different events (using the reporting maps) and compare differences between months (blue charts) and/or years (red charts) and reach management decisions through consensus.

Year end auditing, reporting and archiving

At the end of each year there is an annual audit of the system. Attended by external stakeholders (government, donors, NGOs and neighbours), the audit is based on a yes/no activity questionnaire. If the answer is 'yes, it was done', then a summary of results is recorded. The completed

Figure 3a: Example of a monthly reporting chart for problem animals



questionnaire constitutes the conservancy's annual monitoring report and copies are circulated as required. The annual audit takes approximately two hours, including archiving the previous year's data, updating the red long-term charts and issuing fresh cards for the event book for the new year. Conservancies are happy to share their results and take great pride in their annual reports. There is considerable competition between conservancies, which creates an incentive to improve performance.

Pen and paper versus computers

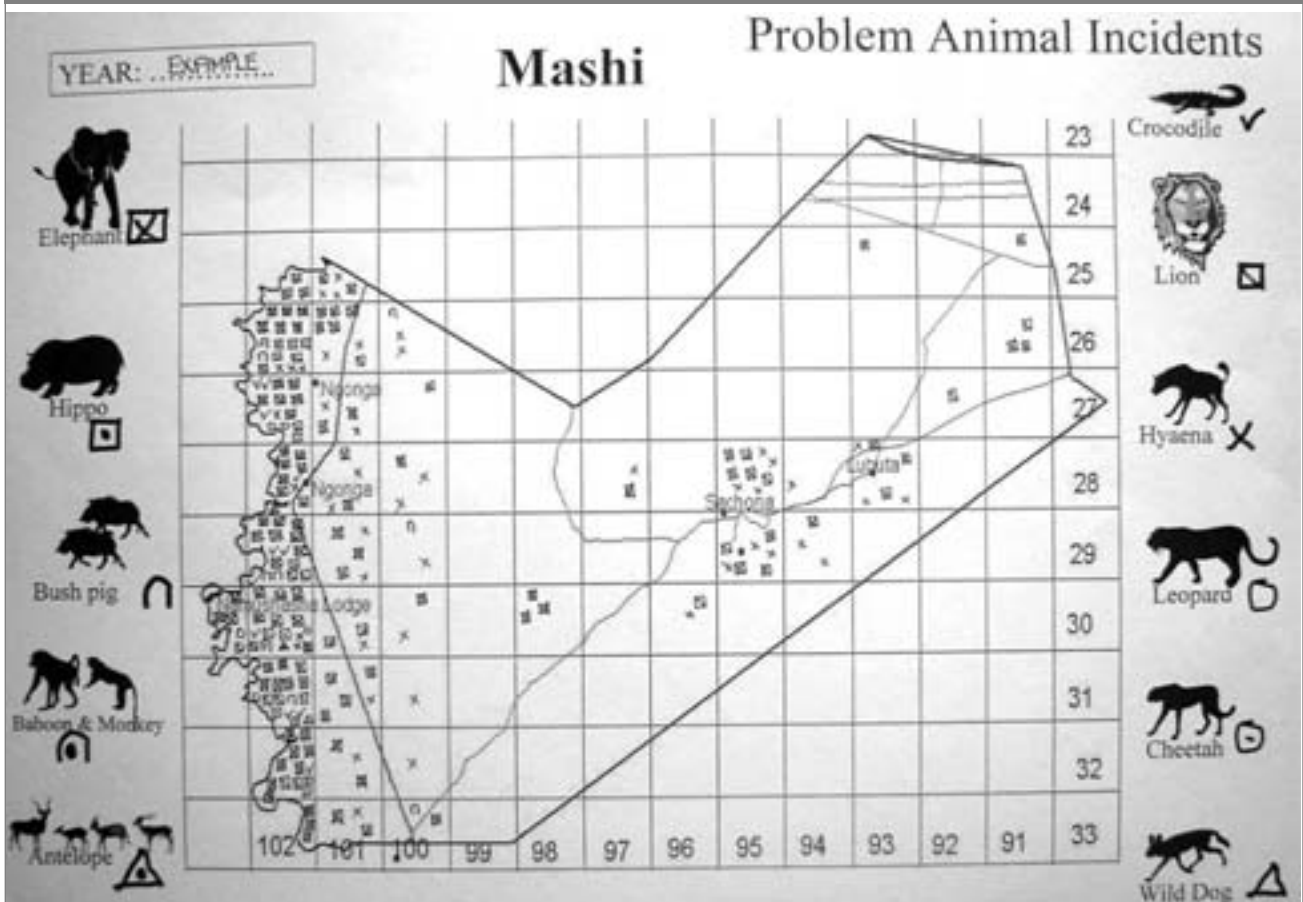
The entire system is paper-based, which is appropriate for remote communities and avoids the sustainability problems of ever-changing computer technology. All papers are filed in a customised filing box (Figure 5). This is important in an environment where there are often no offices. The data are

owned by the conservancy and if a researcher or government official wants data, only a copy may be taken away. Original raw data never leaves the community! Researchers can easily capture event book data in a digital format for further analy-

Box 2: Elements of the event book system

1. A visual description of the monitoring work to be done:
 - the monitoring poster for the area as a whole
 - job description posters for key people
2. Data-flow posters
3. A data capture system: yellow data cards (e.g. event books, incident books, pocket books; office registers)
4. A monthly/annual reporting system
 - Blue reporting charts
 - Reporting maps
5. Long-term 'red reporting charts' (for trend)
6. An annual audit report
7. An archiving and filing system

Figure 3b: Example of a community reporting map for problem animals



sis and all the data have a spatial element so they are compatible with GIS. In Namibia, data from all annual conservancy reports are captured into a national database. This aggregates results from many different conservancies and creates a national view of the performance of the CBNRM programme in Namibia.

Box 2 summarises the key elements of the event book system

The implementation process

The role of technical experts

The role of technical experts is to provide advice on how a community can gather, process and report data for each monitoring topic it selects. If a module has already been developed with another conservancy, it is made available to new conservancies. It is not compulsory that communities

use the modules, but because the tools are standardised across the country, it simplifies the job of supporting community monitoring in a sustainable way.

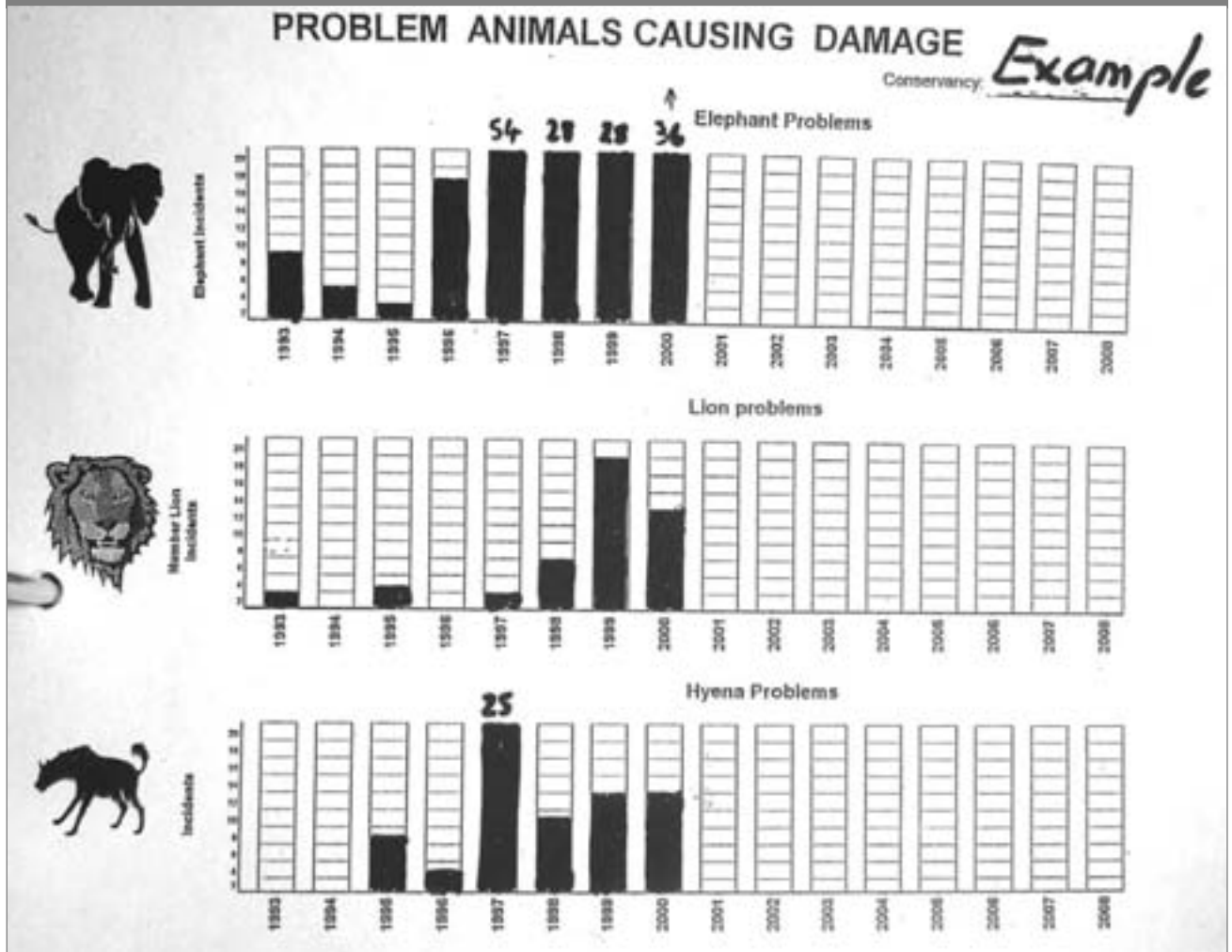
How much detail to collect?

Land managers want 'balanced' monitoring systems, i.e., a bit of information about a lot of things rather than lots of details about one or two components of the system. They want basic facts – are species declining, is the vegetation degrading, is poaching increasing? Scientists tend to get tangled up in detail and encourage data collection based on 'what if ...' scenarios. The basic rule on data collection should be: if in doubt, leave it out!

Need for visual representation of results

Simple reporting charts and maps are critical for success. Primarily for information sharing with community members,

Figure 4: Example of a red trend data reporting chart for problem animals



they just as importantly serve to motivate the people collecting the data. The charts incidentally also allow managers to track work performance of conservancy employees.

Box 3: The Ten Commandments

1. Always with its master
2. Never sleeps
3. Always neat
4. Never lies
5. Always reports monthly
6. Never works in another conservancy
7. Always changes its forms once a year
8. Never shares incidents (to avoid double reporting)
9. Always lives in its bag
10. Never works without a smile

The Ten Commandments

A number of technical problems were of course encountered. These resulted in a set of rules which the rangers termed their 'Ten Commandments' (Box 3).

Implementation schedule

Full implementation of the event book system takes a number of years because it is implemented incrementally, building on small successes. It is important to be patient and pay attention to building sustainable monitoring systems rather than being obsessed with data quality. The community needs at least two years of reporting to experience all levels of the system. Participants need to develop basic skills in map reading, filling in data forms and knowledge of the

Figure 5: Event book system filing box



issues being monitored. Depending on the skills in a given conservancy, average follow-up interventions are every quarter during the first 12 months and every six months thereafter for at least two years. Each intervention is kept short (maximum one day) to maintain interest. Box 4 shows how implementation can be phased.

Overcoming difficulties

- Decision makers in conservancies are elected representatives. They change every few years and many have little knowledge about natural resource management. Ongoing training and support on the interpretation and use of monitoring results is necessary.
- Establishing the system requires limited technical support, but it is critical that the support be sustained over a period of at least three years. Don't start such systems unless you are prepared to continue to provide this period of support.
- Success depends on the motivation of the local participants. Individuals who are not managed can drift away from their key responsibilities. The job description posters make it clear which persons are responsible for what.
- Where individuals within a conservancy live large distances from one another, aggregating data into the monthly (blue)

Box 4: Implementation schedule

Phase 1 (>18 months):

- Design the system
- Develop materials for the field
- Start yellow data collection
- Begin blue-level analysis (i.e. monthly reporting systems).

This phase can only be completed once a full year/season of data gathering and field analysis has been completed.

Phase 2 (approx 2 years):

- Continue providing support for the systems established during phase 1
- Design and implement red long-term trend reporting tools
- Refine the system as required

Phase 3 (Optional):

- Design systems for reporting to external stakeholders (e.g. annual reports)
- Design systems to aggregate data from many different conservancies

Produce reporting templates, develop a computerised information system for data input, processing and reporting. Timing for this phase varies because the databases get increasingly more complex depending on the level from which data are inputted (red, blue or yellow level).

reporting charts and maps can be problematic. In these instances blue charts can be compiled on a quarterly basis.

- Basic monitoring materials (event book cards, reporting charts, etc.) must be produced and distributed on an annual basis. This is best achieved through an external technical support provider. Printing large volumes generates economies of scale and the costs are small relative to the benefits of being able to aggregate local-level monitoring data to give national level data.
- Communities often do not have resources to employ staff for monitoring. Sometimes, individual farmers volunteer to maintain event books. School groups could also take this on as a project providing learning opportunities.
- Literacy can present challenges but the use of icons on data cards, reporting charts and job description posters greatly helps. Support from literate colleagues or family members has enabled non-literate rangers to maintain their event books. Because analysis and reporting involves simple addition and colouring in blocks, everybody is able to participate in this.
- Some individuals invent data. This can quickly be exposed during the collective reporting process. The concept of 'no data' being valuable should be addressed and it helps if the technical support persons display a nonchalant attitude, whilst emphasising that the data belongs to the community.

Impacts of the system

The initial objective of the system was for local communities to improve their decision-making. Communities do use the results for technical decisions (e.g. reducing human-wildlife conflict, improving harvest quotas, reducing poaching, etc.)

but the greatest benefit seems to be the empowerment that has emerged through the community having a better sense of what is going on in their area. This puts them in a stronger position when engaging with stakeholders, and the information provides a common currency for these interactions. The increase in conservancy pride has been remarkable. The indirect benefit of Government, NGOs and investors treating the conservancies more seriously has probably greatly outweighed the improved data-linked decision making one normally associates with monitoring. Quotas have increased in the face of a lack of alternative data from Government. Communities are more confident in negotiations partly because of the pride they have in knowing that they have better information than neighbouring National Parks. They also have data to counter dissenting views regarding the sustainability of their game harvesting programmes.

Another impact has been the evolution of organisational management systems which are now being used to formalise other conservancy management systems such as financial and enterprise management. The system is also being used to identify weak and strong community office bearers and has contributed to the institutional strengthening of a number of conservancies. Over time we noted that the literacy and numeracy skills of community rangers has improved

Finally, whilst never an initial design intention, a spin-off is the collection of a considerable amount of data in an extremely cost-effective manner. The data are aggregated and used at a national level for compiling an annual state of conservancy programme report, and for improved support and more equitable treatment of conservancies with regard to human-wildlife conflict and quota setting.

CONTACT DETAILS

Greg Stuart-Hill
World Wildlife Fund
LIFE Project
P.O. Box 9681
Windhoek, Namibia
Email: gstuart@wwflife.org

Richard Diggle
Integrated Rural Development & Nature
Conservation
P.O. Box 24050
Windhoek, Namibia
Email: rwdiggle@iway.na

Bevan Munali
Integrated Rural Development & Nature
Conservation
P.O. Box 24050
Windhoek, Namibia

Jo Tagg
Ministry of Environment & Tourism
P Bag Box 13306
Windhoek, Namibia
Email: jotagg@mweb.com.na

David Ward
Namibian Nature Foundation
P.O. Box 245
Windhoek, Namibia
Email: dward@iway.na

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to acknowledge the hundreds of community rangers, resource monitors and conservancy members who have contributed to the development of the event book system. Raymond Peters, Simon Mayes, Hertha Nakathingo and many other field support workers have added a particular dimension. They have been the people who have provided the necessary sweat equity to turn this into a success. Support from the Namibian Association of Conservancy Support Organizations (NACSO) representing a number of Namibian NGOs has been invaluable. So too has the support from the Ministries of Environment and Tourism and Fisheries. The work described in this article was made possible by the World Wildlife Fund (WWF, Namibia) and Living in a Finite Environment (LIFE) Programme through funding from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) under the terms of a Cooperative agreement. The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of USAID.

10

PGIS and mapping for conservation in Namibia

by JO TAGG and JULIE TAYLOR

Introduction

Conservation groups all over the world are increasingly using mapping technologies in the devolution of environmental management. These technologies include Geographic Information Systems (GIS). There has been a shift towards local participation in natural resource management. Participatory mapping, and the use of GIS, is seen as a logical step for capacity building and empowerment. It is also an instrument to assist environmental monitoring and management.

This article examines the emergence of mapping and GIS as a central community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) tool in Namibia's community conservation programme. Here, the use of GIS in CBNRM has evolved in response to community, NGO, and government needs.

In CBNRM, it is important to develop an equal relationship between rural communities and outside agents. So it was essential for these communities to gain access to appropriate information technology and its benefits. Now there is improved access to this technology and its outputs. This has helped strengthen local institutional capacity needed to devolve authority for resource management to local authorities and communities themselves.

The GIS approach outlined here allows for the participation of all partners: communities, government and NGOs. It

seeks to integrate local knowledge with information technology. This provides a common information base that is both understandable and acceptable to all partners, and is freely available to all partners. It is used for planning, managing and monitoring natural resources, and for decision-making.

Background

Like several southern African countries, Namibia has followed the pattern of devolving rights over wildlife to rural communities. CBNRM in Namibia, however, is specifically based on the conservancy model. Communal area residents form a common property resource management institution (a conservancy). They are granted conditional rights over wildlife species while they are also able to benefit from tourism as a land-use. To be registered as such, a conservancy needs to have:

- a defined boundary and membership;
- a representative management committee;
- a legal constitution recognised by government; and
- a plan for the equitable distribution of benefits.

Conservancies are social and legal arrangements for improved natural resource management. From a natural resource point of view, they are not ecological units: they form part of a larger system. So a common overarching

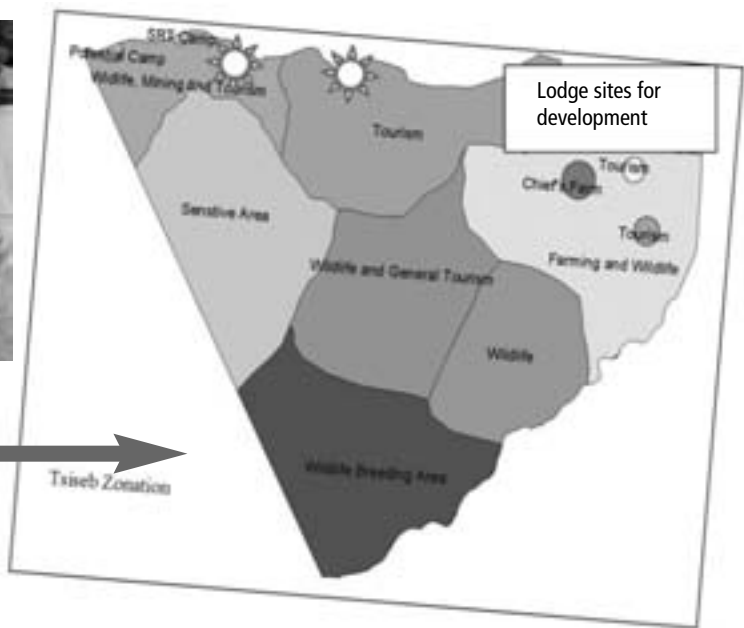
Figure 1: Land-use planning

Competing land use activities take place within conservancies (for example, farming, wildlife, settlement, mining). Consequently, land-use planning is a key need.

Appropriate tools are also needed to communicate the plans to residents, government and investors.



The NRM group provides assistance to Conservancies to develop land use plans and zonation maps through participatory mapping.



Credit: Greg Stuart-Hill, Jo Tagg, 2001

system that would facilitate monitoring of natural resources was required:

- across geographic areas;
- over time; and
- involving different communities and institutions.

This means that different information can form parts of a larger picture and should be continuous, representative and compatible. This was the impetus for using spatial data, mapping and GIS as tools to support CBNRM and for creating a national CBNRM GIS. More recently (in 2005) legislation was passed which affords rights over forest resources. To date, 13 community forests have been proclaimed and these contribute further to the national CBNRM effort.

GIS are not only capable of storing diverse sets of data. They are also powerful spatial analysis and modelling tools. These can prove highly valuable for monitoring wildlife and joint decision-making. Successful common property management often hinges upon both local expertise and knowledge and a broader, regional view. So it was imperative to promote a collaborative management approach between all partners in the CBNRM programme.

The Namibian CBNRM GIS developers are an informal coalition of government and NGO natural resource management service providers. A conventional user needs analysis was not undertaken at the outset as those central to the development had little GIS background but focused on immediate resource management issues. Instead, the GIS evolved slowly over several years. It started modestly in late 1995 in response to the most immediate need of mapping boundaries and infrastructure.

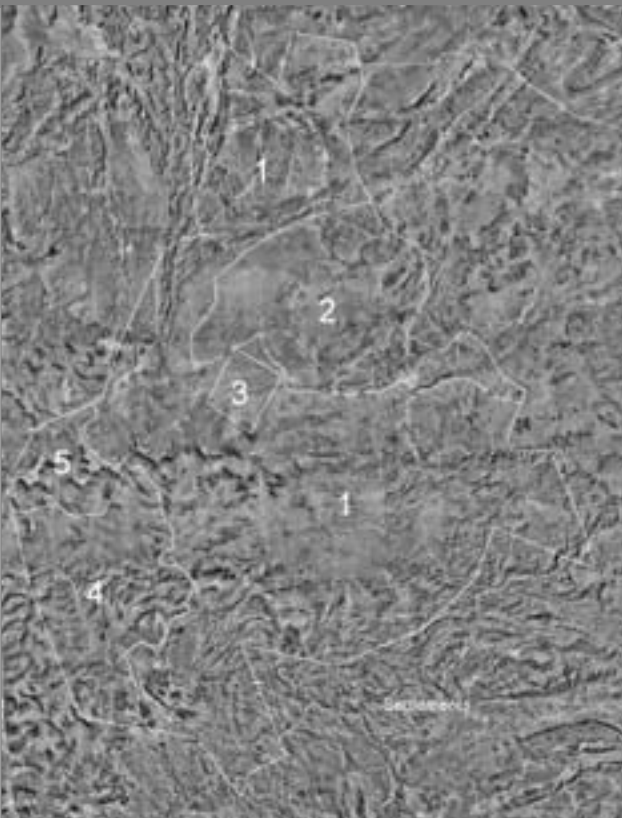
Main aim of the project

During the process of forming a conservancy, a variety of needs for spatial data tools have arisen.

Boundaries

Boundaries are a legal requirement for the registration of conservancies. Conservancies need a defined boundary agreed by neighbours. But this process has often been lengthy, due to disputes and negotiations over boundaries between different parties. So maps and spatial data, which promote common spatial understanding, are central tools for conflict resolution and decision-making.

Figure 2: ≠Khoadi //Hôas conservancy zonation



Credit: Jo Tagg, 2006

Land use planning

The purpose of creating different land use zones (zonation) is to plan land use. Using a participatory process, conservancies establish the best locations for different activities which are selected according to existing land use practices, and the nature and potential of the natural resources. Importantly, this activity seeks to reduce conflict between land uses and optimise benefits. It is not a 'one-off' activity but rather responds to changing opportunities and needs. Technicians use a variety of spatial data sets to develop appropriate maps. These support the mapping and planning process. Conflicts over resource use and benefit distribution are more readily resolved if all parties have the same spatial understanding of the contested resources.

The ≠Khoadi //Hôas conservancy zonation represents an approach which includes participatory mapping and locally undertaken resource inventories (see Figure 1). To support the process, technicians provided a range of datasets including satellite imagery, aerial photographs and topographical maps. Five zones were identified and agreed upon. Each has its own

rationale and development rules:

- Zone one: livestock and wildlife zone. This is where the presence of wildlife is encouraged, but where livestock rearing is a priority. Wildlife utilisation is allowed.
- Zone two: farming. This is farming zone is the most densely settled area, where no hunting is allowed although wildlife tolerated.
- Zone three: livestock. This is an intensive livestock breeding area. A small-stock improvement scheme is located here.
- Zone four: exclusive wildlife zone. This zone is the centre of a lucrative trophy hunting enterprise. The conservancy actively supports a carefully managed and low impact hunting concession.
- Zone five: exclusive tourism development zone. This zone was added in 2004 following significant tourism investment. The conservancy developed a lodge here, using a grant, and by working with a private sector partner. This initiative has led to further investments with the re-establishment of black rhino. This meets both biodiversity objectives and development needs.

Monitoring wildlife

With conditional rights over wildlife, conservancies are also responsible for managing that wildlife. Supported by NGOs, they define certain management objectives for themselves. This includes monitoring different activities. GIS has become an essential support tool in planning, undertaking, and reporting on monitoring activities, for example:

- annual wildlife game counts (for wildlife numbers, trends and distribution);
- monitoring of poaching; and
- problem animal incidents.

Much of this data is much easier to understand when spatially represented. The spatial element has been incorporated in the event book local-level monitoring system (see chapter 9, this issue). Using GIS technologies mean that maps, based on local-level monitoring data, can be produced to support further planning. They are also useful communication tools.

Communication

GIS and maps are essential tools for conservancies to communicate their plans to other parties. They need to communicate internally with members and externally to neighbours, government, partners, donors, and investors. Using GIS and maps leads to greater shared understanding of important issues about natural resource management and land use planning.

Methodology and process

The Namibian CBNRM GIS approach has been to optimise and combine local and indigenous knowledge. It also uses the knowledge and skills of those supporting and assisting the community to build a GIS. The GIS must be accessible and appropriate for all parties and ultimately, beneficial for a wide range of natural resource management efforts. From the early stages of development, the collaborating group adopted an approach of sharing public domain datasets, as well as approaches and resources.

For land use planning, the GIS support group, which includes individuals from government, NGOs and private sector partners (e.g. tourism concession holders), collects and collates as much existing data as possible. These include commercial maps, remote sensing imagery, reports, and existing GIS layers. These are integrated into the national GIS. Service providers have helped local communities to capture additional information that is important to them, and provide maps and other spatial resources to local people for land use planning.

In terms of a support strategy for GIS in Namibia, the Windhoek-based GIS managers provide:

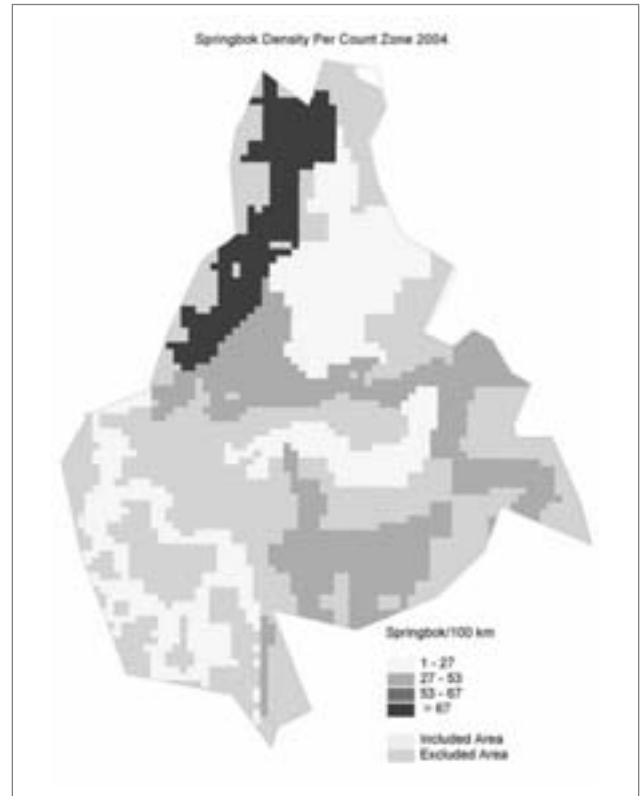
- roll-out systems and baseline data;
- technical support;
- training;
- incentives for data-sharing;
- a service which maintains data standards, directory structures; and
- support for the development of GIS.

The regional users are fieldworkers, from NGOs or government, who use GIS in their daily work to varying extents. They depend on central support for initial training and baseline data.

Crucial to developing the Namibian CBNRM GIS was the creation of a data management tool called CONINFO. One challenge when using GIS data is that many slightly different copies of the same data set are often in circulation at any one time. CONINFO was created to store and manage all core conservation data.

CONINFO brings all relevant data sets together in a fixed, understandable, and standardised structure. Information is shared in a structured way. Software (WinZip) places all data in the correct location on all users' computers. Through a user-friendly interface, all levels of users can access conservation-related data quickly, simply and effectively. Users can also extract the data they require. And, by retaining the data structure, they can regularly update or add to their data set, ensuring compatibility over time. Users

Wildlife density zones, 2004



Credit: Jo Tagg, 2004

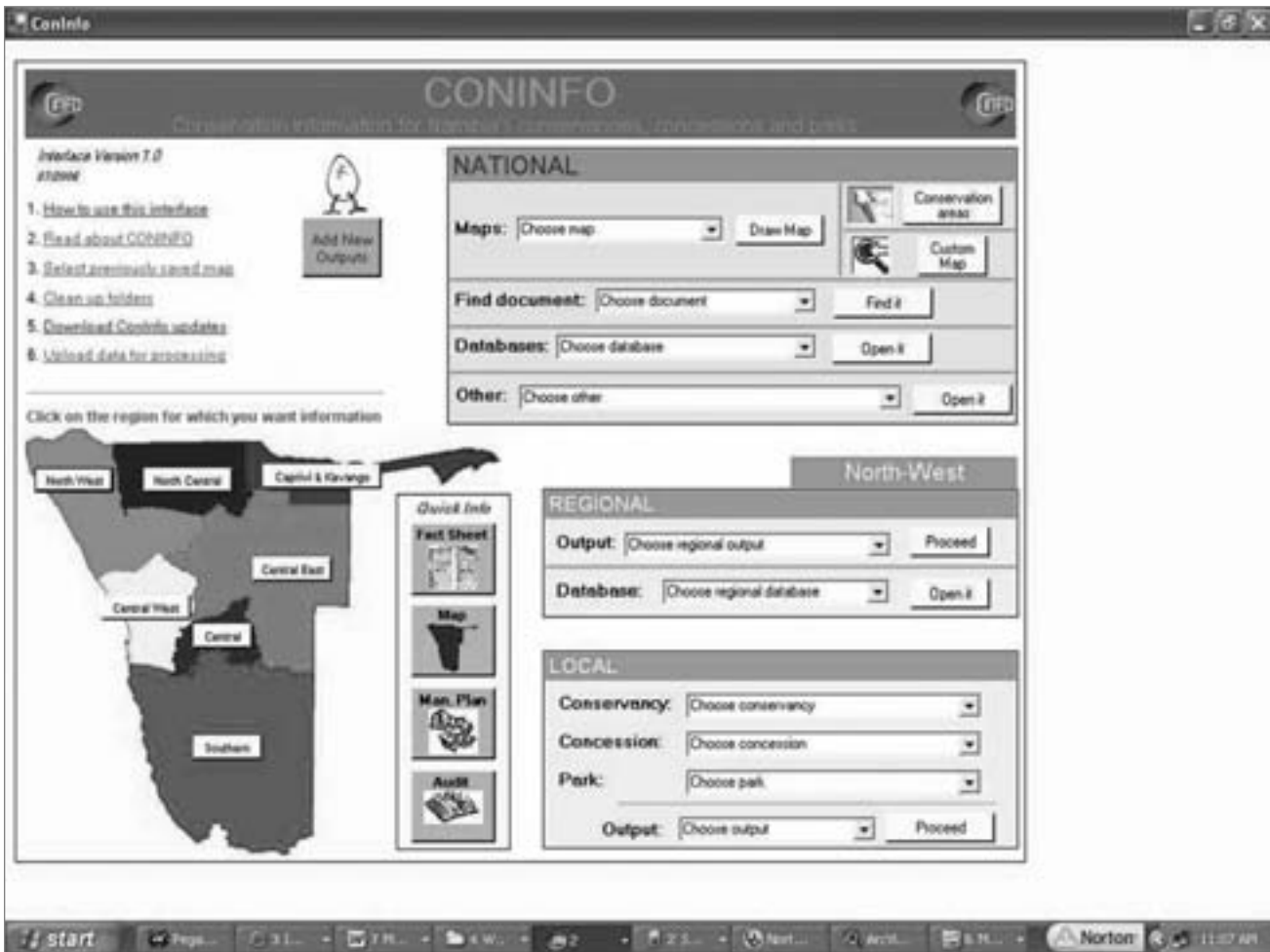
need not worry about managing CONINFO data themselves because they can obtain updates (e.g. a newly registered conservancy boundary) from an Internet update site. The challenge is to meet the needs of users with limited or no Internet access – updates need to be done through CDs or DVDs.

Lessons learnt

GIS for Namibian CBNRM evolved in response to community, NGO and Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) needs. This created joint ownership and, by default, a GIS user group. This informal group shares the incentives of common approaches, systems and access to the most up-to-date data. There are three regional hubs. At central level, users include government (largely MET), as well as four NGOs who collectively provide services to 50 conservancies. As the user group expanded, common systems and directory structures had to be developed to ensure compatibility of approaches. There was also a need to support an ever-increasing network of conservancies undertaking local-level monitoring and participatory mapping.

Subsequently, this approach has gained wider accept-

The CONINFO user interface



Source: CONINFO Interface designed by Tony Robertson, 2006

ance. This has enhanced data collection and quality, sustainability and creativity. Using GIS to respond to user needs has had another very important benefit: generating trust between partners and a common vision between government, communities, and NGOs.

The institutions and technicians developing the GIS need to understand the needs of resource users, technical service-providers and managers. They then need to prepare the information, data, and products in a manner appropriate for the users. For GIS to be a truly effective joint planning, monitoring and management tool. There needs to be a common understanding of the benefits, which the system holds for all parties.

Two key results, broadly classified as 'cooperation' and 'sharing' have emerged from the development of GIS and mapping for CBNRM in Namibia.

Cooperation

Working from a needs-driven approach has been of enormous value. It has built credibility with field users. This has given the core development team great freedom to explore and learn from mistakes. It has led to strong feeling of ownership by ordinary rural people and field-based support staff. GIS has become a strong bridge-building activity between communities, organisations and technical advisors, leading to shared spatial understandings. It has encouraged a culture of sensitivity towards community needs among technical institutions. Finally, it has built critical mass of users, which enhances sustainability. There is better data gathering, technical skills sharing, and data quality. The synergies between all partners, from government and NGOs, keep the system dynamic and functioning. And considerable cost savings have been made as a result of data and hardware sharing between partner institutions.

“All users have access to all existing data, regardless of which CBNRM group or conservancy created them. This reduces or prevents the duplication of information gathering efforts. It allows all users to benefit from available information”

Sharing

Generally, Namibia has a progressive culture of data sharing. To facilitate this, several factors have been necessary:

- adherence to a principle of making data freely accessible (i.e. there is no cost to the user);
- using standardised GIS software;
- using a standardised format for data; and, most importantly
- using a standardised directory structure.

The latter has been one of the best lessons learnt in the evolution of the Namibian CBNRM GIS. All users have access to all existing data, regardless of which CBNRM group or conservancy created them. This reduces or prevents the duplication of information gathering efforts. It allows all users to benefit from available information. It reduces or prevents duplication and splitting of data sets. It allows ArcView projects to be shared easily and allows data to be more easily extracted and disseminated.¹ Finally, broad range of people with different levels of computer skills can use the data.

There have been several challenges. The first has been how to make users aware of what information is available and where they can find it. Second, has been to bridge the technology barrier in terms of gathering, accessing and using the information and, crucially, to create user friendly interfaces. In terms of gathering and integrating field data, one of biggest problems has been having Global Positioning Systems (GPS) incorrectly set up by field users. This then creates entire data sets that are inconsistent with existing data sets.

Another related problem has been the lack of GIS training within the service provider organisations. They have sometimes struggled to manage, access and use their data and software efficiently, and there is still reliance on centralised GIS expertise.

GIS capacity is also limited by the lack of hardware. Its

value as a community empowerment tool is often used as an argument for investing in the technologies. Computers become redundant and information technology services are difficult in remote areas. Technologies may not have life beyond donor-supported projects. Sustaining the system has been an ongoing concern, as the development and maintenance has been financed largely by donor funding.

Mapping may also facilitate the entry and involvement of powerful external actors who do not share or support the vision of the legitimate land managers. If communities were operating in isolation this potential problem would be of greater concern. While possible, the present conservancy network minimises this risk. There is a possibility of unequal private sector relationships. But these are more likely to be as a result of lack of understanding business models rather than local mapping.

While the public domain approach to data sharing is an important principle, land managers need to be aware of the possible consequences of sharing critical data (e.g. localities of rare or important plant resources) with a wider and unknown audience. As long as communities understand this, it is likely that key resources may not be mapped.

Ways forward

The collection of field data needs to conform to basic standards of precision and needs to be delivered for processing in a format that excludes processing errors. To address this problem, Namibian partners developed a manual to promote standardised data collection. This however, needs to be made more widely available and integrated into appropriate higher education, government and NGO programmes.

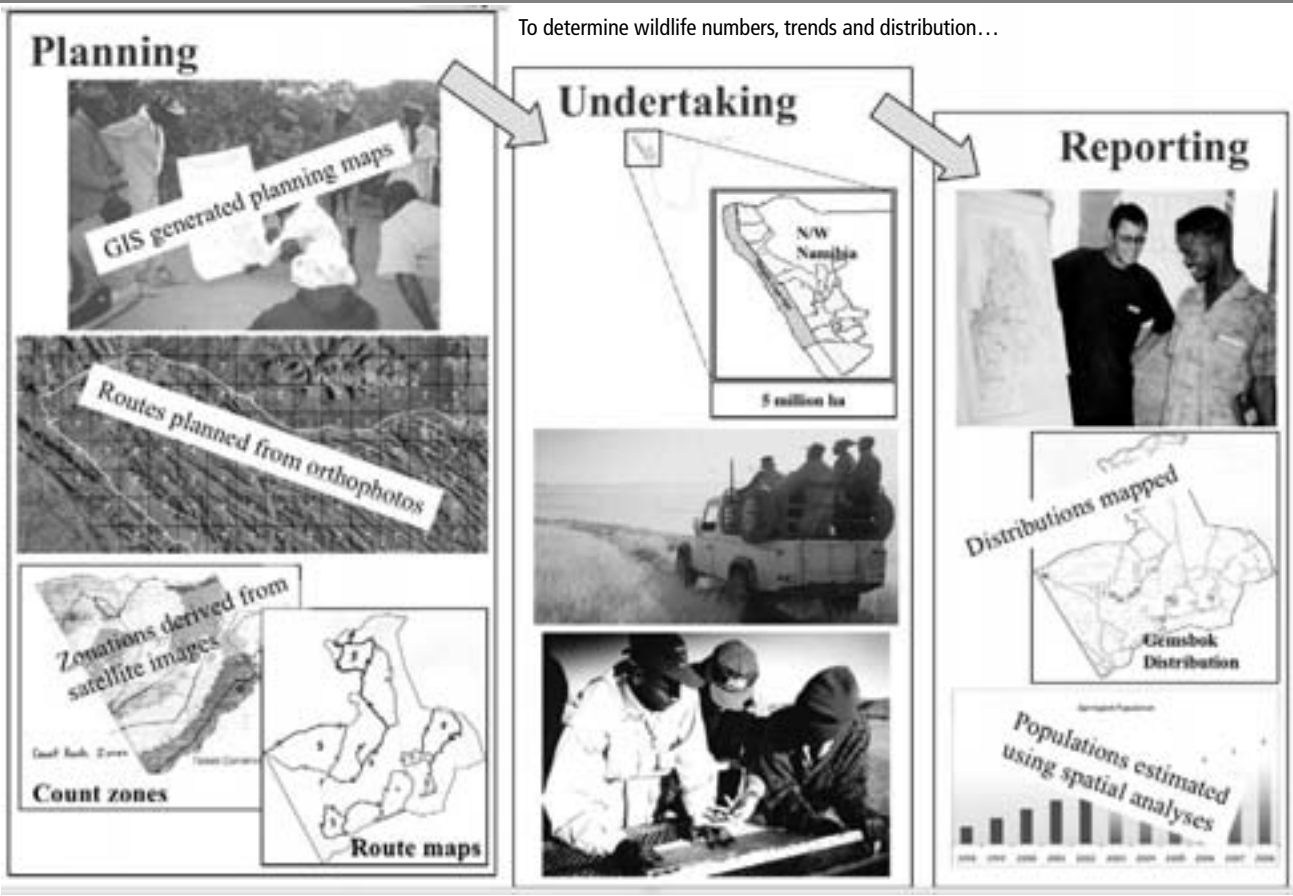
While it is not viable to develop full GIS capability within each institutional or field-based partner, they should have at least some capability, which can be limited to viewing maps and accessing data. There is a similar need for access to data for a range of decision makers within the NGO, donor and government communities. The development of a user-friendly interface has been prioritised and supported by a number of partners including the MET. This should greatly reduce the technology barrier to accessing and using information.

Access to relatively high-resolution satellite imagery is becoming increasingly simple and so much information can be obtained without the cooperation of land managers. So safeguarding local resource rights requires well-informed communities and enabling and supportive policy and legislation.

Reliance on donor funding raises serious sustainability

¹ ArcView projects are mechanisms for storing existing work. The project provides the path for all the datasets used for a particular ArcView application.

Figure 3: Game counts



(Source: NACSO, 2006)

questions. In the past two years, MET has committed donor funding to develop and refine the system. This shall make data more accessible to a wider range of users and expand the range of datasets to cover protected areas. The demand for data should ensure a commitment by MET to cover GIS maintenance costs while the wider range of users in both government and the NGO sector has the potential to promote sustainability.

Conclusions

There are presently 50 registered conservancies in Namibia. They cover an area of about 11.78 million km² and which involves approximately 100,000 people. During 2005, CBNRM income is estimated at close to N\$20 million (approximately US\$2.8 million) with more than half being cash income. The following chart illustrates the sources of benefits.

While CBNRM income cannot be attributable to the use of GIS technologies, each of the 50 conservancies required a boundary and description. Each conservancy develops a management plan with spatial components. Many of the conservancies monitor resources that require spatial understanding and tools.

Using GIS technologies to support the management and monitoring of resources at local level is becoming increasingly important. Conservancies are moving beyond the management of wildlife and becoming institutions for integrated resource management. While this places additional demands on service providers, the approach has the potential to add significantly to sustainable land management and rural development.

The benefits of GIS technologies have supported conservancies to plan concessions and negotiate with trophy hunting and tourism partners. These income-generating

“Conservancies along the Kwando River and neighbouring protected areas in Caprivi, for instance, have recognised this need. They are cooperating on a wide range of activities from fire management to wildlife introductions”

activities account for more than 50% of conservancy income. CBNRM GIS products are used in planning, management and monitoring of agreements.

Conservancies have social boundaries and operate in larger open systems where collaboration is required. This challenge is becoming more apparent with more formal collaborative resource management initiatives emerging. Conservancies along the Kwando River and neighbouring protected areas in Caprivi, for instance, have recognised this

need. They are cooperating on a wide range of activities from fire management to wildlife introductions. This is an important step in a move towards an integrated ecosystem management approach, where individual management authorities seek added benefits from managing resources at an appropriate scale.

The GIS is becoming increasingly important for aggregating local-level monitoring data. This can be used for measuring impact of the CBNRM programme. Combined with spatial data this contributes to an annual ‘State of Conservancy’ report, which is a valuable resource for service-providers, donors and government. Without this information, stakeholders could not share lessons learnt, successes, and impacts between themselves and with a wider audience. This information sharing is critical for filling policy gaps, improving service delivery and replication. It is these ingredients that shall ensure that the CBNRM programme is responsive to local needs and evolves in the face of new opportunities and challenges.

CONTACT DETAILS

Jo Tagg, PO Box 90190, Windhoek, Namibia.
Email: jotagg@mweb.com.na

Julie Taylor, Department of International
Development, Oxford University, United
Kingdom.
Email: julie.taylor@st-antony.oxford.ac.uk

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Using theatre in participatory environmental policy making

by TAMARA GUHRS, LIZ RIHOY and MIRANDA GUHRS

Introduction

This article documents the use of theatre as a tool for promoting community participation in policy development in community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) initiatives of southern Africa.¹ The experience of the last decade has demonstrated that culturally appropriate forms of communication, such as theatre, story telling, song and dance, can be effective tools. They can enhance community participation in the policy development process at national and international levels. By amplifying the individual and collective voices of diverse rural dwellers, theatre has brought community perspectives on natural resource management – including those of traditionally marginalised community members – to policy makers.

This article describes the ongoing process of developing of theatre as a communications tool in three related initiatives. The critical factor for success has been the development of partnerships between appropriate institutions. This has

“The experience of the last decade has demonstrated that culturally appropriate forms of communication, such as theatre, story telling, song and dance, can be effective tools. They can enhance community participation in the policy development process at national and international levels”

enabled collaboration between CBNRM and theatre professionals as mediators of the communications process.

In 1996, the production *Guardians of Eden* sparked an interest in the use of theatre for articulating key CBNRM concepts. Since then, theatre has become a significant component of the CBNRM toolbox, notably through the efforts of the Report-back Africa Community Outreach Programme (COP). COP developed theatrical performance as a tool to research and package community perspectives to disseminate to policy makers and enhance participation and further community empowerment in local CBNRM initiatives.

¹ ‘Theatre for Development’ has been in use since the late 1970s as a medium for communicating with rural communities in developing countries where existing media systems had failed to serve the needs of development. It is viewed as a more democratic medium, capable of integrating indigenous and popular systems of communication and relying on human resources and interpersonal channels (Mda 1993). The theatre initiatives described here take this approach a step further.

“We cannot claim that this had a direct and immediate impact upon policy development. But evaluations of the road show have made it clear that this approach contributed to a greater appreciation of the complexities and implications of environmental management. This contributed to the creation of ‘democratic space’ in the policy-making process”

The COP experience then led to the establishment of local theatre related initiatives. These include the creation of several dedicated NGOs in those countries involved in the COP. One of these is SEKA (Sensitisation and Education through Kunda Arts) in Zambia. SEKA's experiences are related here. They illustrate how theatre is used as a tool at village level for catalysing community participation.

Each of these three initiatives has refined and improved the ‘theatrical tool box’. And evidence shows that theatre is capable of representing multiple points of view, envisioning solutions, and suggesting methods of resolving conflict, whilst communicating this complex information to a broad range of critical audiences in a sympathetic and appealing manner.

Background

At the IUCN World Conservation Congress (WCC) in Montreal in 1996, *Guardians of Eden* helped to articulate Southern Africa's sustainable use position. It was commissioned by the Southern African Sustainable Use Group (SASUSG) and brought to life by the vibrant physical and musical theatre style of Theatre for Africa (TFA). Despite being a ‘side-event’ it became one of the most popular events of the Congress. It achieved what technical document-based communications could not do: it provided the human face of community conservation. It captured both the practical struggle of people living in close proximity to protected areas, as well as the intellectual premises behind CBNRM. It achieved a powerful impact contributing to WCC adopting several progressive resolutions on the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity.

The production created an awareness amongst implementing agencies, donors and policy makers of the value of

theatre in providing a mechanism to communicate community perspectives. Such appreciation – coinciding with increased international awareness about the need for, and difficulties associated with, ensuring that community perspectives were considered in the policy making process – proved to be the catalyst for developing theatre as a tool for participation. The COP built upon this early success and developed theatrical skills, expertise and networks both throughout the region and internationally.

Methodology

The COP was implemented in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region in Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe.² These countries had adopted policies and programmes to promote CBNRM strategies and were signatories to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). The regional nature of the COP promoted an ecosystem approach. Countries could collaborate across boundaries and exchange information and best practices with relative ease. It also allowed cost-effective implementation, while ensuring that the messages developed were representative of the southern African region rather than just one country. An additional significant advantage was that regional ‘peer pressure’ was generated. This was ensured significant domestic political support for COP activities in particular and CBNRM activities in general.

From the earliest stages, the COP adopted an approach based on partnership and consultation. During the project conceptualisation phase, the design team visited each country.³ They found appropriate local implementation partners and ensured that each took the lead role in designing and implementing activities in their respective countries. Before the project proposal was developed, partner institutions had been identified in each country. All were involved in developing the details of activities in their respective countries. These included a local NGO as lead partner, the relevant government Ministry and a local theatre group. These local implementing partners proved to be a critical ingredient. They contributed to success at every stage of the programme and have continued to support and promote activities since the COP ended in 2001.

Next, two individuals from each country were selected to become members of the core team of ‘actor-facilitators’ for

² The principal donor was the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) through the World Bank, whilst the Ford Foundation provided significant co-financing.

³ The design team consisted of the primary implementing agency, Africa Resources Trust (ART) and the main technical advisory agency, Theatre of Africa (TFA).

the COP. These 14 individuals formed the building blocks upon which the programme was implemented. The team underwent an intensive four-month training period with TFA and ART. This upgraded their acting and directing skills and introduced them to the basic principles and concepts of CBNRM. They also received intensive training in facilitation and community extension skills from an experienced team of CBNRM trainers in Namibia. These 'actor-facilitators' represent the unique contribution that the COP has made to CBNRM. They are professionally trained actors, who are also experienced and knowledgeable in CBNRM issues – and expert facilitators. They have gained local respect and trust, collected information and identified key local CBNRM issues for dramatisation. They effectively facilitate community discussions exploring the issues that arise after plays have been performed and help plan action that should be taken. The capacity and commitment of these individuals, coupled with that of the local partner agencies, has meant that in most cases activities were sustained and expanded after the COP was withdrawn.

After training, team members returned to their respective countries. Employed by the lead national agency, they were integrated into the ongoing community extension activities of the national CBNRM programmes. They undertook a range of activities, which included:

- Creating plays to raise awareness in villages on CBNRM rights and responsibilities.
- Working with community members to create theatrical productions that related stories and perspectives of rural villagers. A number of these toured nationally and regionally.
- Development and training of local community theatre groups.

After two years of in-country fieldwork, the team was brought back together to share their findings, gathered from the communities they had worked in. They were to create a theatrical production that would tour throughout the regional and internationally. The stories, perspectives and knowledge of rural communities from the seven countries were collated and then presented in the form of the production *A Light in the Night of President Khaya Afrikha*.

The creation and rehearsal process took eight weeks. The actor/facilitators, theatre directors and CBNRM technical experts generated a storyline that would appeal to an audience of policy makers. But it would also remain responsible to the community at grassroots level. A variety of media including song, dance, image theatre and storytelling were used. The challenge was to communicate rural stories to an

In the theatre production *A Light in the Night of President Khaya Afrikha*, the sympathetic President Khaya listens to the needs and voices of marginalised rural communities and ultimately devolves power to the people. Findings from across the region were presented in a compelling story, with appealing songs and dances, to reinforce key messages



Photo: Undine Keyser

audience of firstly policy makers – but also project implementers, donors, the urban public, media and other artists. The production then went on tour in each of the seven countries. There were performances in national and provincial capitals as well as the specific project site in each country. They then went on to tour throughout Europe.

Ms Graca Machel was patron of the production. With her support, the performance was able to secure the 'hosting' of the Minister of Environment or equivalent in each country. Getting an invitation for the performance from the Minister went a long way to ensuring that the key target audience of politicians, bureaucrats, donors, implementing agencies and the media were in the seats. So the perspectives and voices of many of the most marginalised in society were presented directly to those whose decisions impact upon their livelihoods. We cannot claim that this had a direct and immediate impact upon policy development. But evaluations of the road show have made it clear that this approach contributed to a greater appreciation of the complexities and implications of environmental management. This contributed to the creation of 'democratic space' in the policy-making process.

Applying the methodology at village level is best illustrated by the activities of SEKA. SEKA was established by the COP Zambia team members in 2001. It has used theatre to communicate and problem solve on issues of land use planning and management, human wildlife conflict and anti-poaching in the Luangwa Valley, Eastern Zambia. SEKA has trained groups from Zambia, Zimbabwe, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Gabon on how to use theatre to introduce the Elephant Chilli Pepper farming method.⁴ Their

⁴ Using chilli pepper extract on farm fencing. It is an irritant that deters elephants from raiding crops.

A crop raiding elephant, performed by the SEKA drama group, South Luangwa, 2006



Photo: Miranda Guhrs

distinctive use of action research combines with a theatrical use of humour, visual imagery, puppets, and local song and dance forms to create channels for community concerns. They also create radio dramas to ensure that issues reach a wider audience. Box 1 provides a taste of one of their theatrical productions; the following describes the production process.

Nsendemila (Upside Down) was commissioned by the IUCN with UNDP and Parks Canada for the World Parks Congress (WPC), to give a local perspective on governance issues. The play was created using the Action Research methodology that SEKA has incorporated into their approach. A team of actor-facilitators (later to be the cast) spent two weeks living in the villages of the target area Malambo. They first informed the headman and traditional leader that they would be speaking to people in order to create a play. They then spoke to a cross section of the community, joining people in their daily activities so as not to interrupt work. Children on their way home from school, children who were not at school, women gathering firewood, young entrepreneurs at the local market, the elderly, and well

Box 1 Fwalu's journey

Fwalu is a weaver who lives on the edge of a protected area. Complaining that new laws about paying for materials will put him out of business, he comes into conflict with government authorities. In the series of meetings that he attends, he is sent from one group claiming authority to another. His frustration levels mount as he struggles to find the right person to speak to. He has a plan, he says, one that can work for everybody, but who will listen to him? Fwalu is a fictional character, played by Msatero Tembo of SEKA. As he goes on his journey, he encounters government officials who drown him in paperwork, traditional leaders who argue heatedly that they – not the local council – hold the power, and development workers who baffle him with jargon. All of these are played by a group of animated puppets, created and skilfully operated by the SEKA actor-facilitators.

respected figures in the community were interviewed in depth. The team gathered stories, opinions, issues and possible solutions to problems people experienced relating to governance structures. A recurring theme was that people often felt they had solutions to the problems that faced them, but did not know who were the correct authorities to speak to. At the end of each day, the actor facilitators reported back amongst themselves, comparing notes and gaining a detailed picture of attitudes and life situations in the community.

Normally, the action research process would then require them to develop two drama scripts. One script is usually not enough to cover all the issues that arise. During the data analysis process, the actors sort the data into themes. One script might deal with, for example, human wildlife conflict, while forestry issues would be dealt with in a separate script. This prevents a storyline from becoming too 'crowded' with issues.

Each script would:

- present the problem (to be verified by the audience);
- show the effects (negative impact on the individual);
- show the negative impact on the society as a whole;
- quest for a solution;
- brainstorm alternative solutions (action plans with audience); and
- present the ideal situation.

The performance would then be presented at a big village event. Various groups and other villages would attend, along with all stakeholders – government officials, chiefs, headmen, teachers, children, parents, the Area Member of Parliament and any other stakeholder specific to the area. The performance itself is participatory: the audience must verify the findings, as well as take ownership and come up with solutions to their own problems.

The *Nsendemila* performance was a little different. It was

**Simple but effective
imagery from
Thailand enhances
the global relevance
of environmental
messages**



Photo: Liz Rihoy

not targeted at the local community but created for the urban WPC. However, the issues presented were collected using a participatory methodology. The WPC audiences laughed with recognition at the characters presented. But they also reflected on the complexities that confronted the main character, and the need to create systems that would allow his voice to be heard.

Results

Theatre can be a powerful and culturally sensitive tool to convey complex environmental and developmental

messages. It can also represent a variety of different perspectives in cross-cultural settings. Local level feedback indicates that the use of plays conveyed information more equitably than traditional communication mechanisms do. At meetings presided over by traditional or political leaders, the participation of marginalised groups is often minimal. Plays serve to bridge communication gaps. They make dialogue possible between technical agencies and communities, and leaders and their constituents. They stimulate dialogue and conflict resolution between those who hold opposing perspectives.

In rural areas, entertainment events are well attended by a large cross section of the population. Plays performed in the vernacular and using familiar modes such as stories, proverbs, song and dance, easily stimulate open dialogue and participation. Facilitated discussions after performances take place in an informal, unstructured manner and incorporate women, youth and the poor, who are often marginalised by decision makers in a village. The regional network developed both between implementing agencies and rural communities has laid down a foundation for cross-border co-operation which many other initiatives have been able to build upon.

A lasting legacy of capacity now exists. Ongoing initiatives, such as SEKA, contribute to environmental policy-making at a variety of regional and international events, including the World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg 2002, and the WPC in Durban in 2003. A significant indicator of how well theatre has been embraced as an effective communications tool within the policy development process is its 'coming of age' at the WCC. At the 1996 WCC it was a 'side-event'. By 2004, the COP theatrical performance was a highlight of the WCC official opening ceremony. And nine other performances were also used in mainstream workshops, social events and special media performances. This is perhaps the strongest testimony of the ability of theatre to overcome cultural, technical and language barriers as a means to inform and raise awareness of complex issues.

Lessons learnt and ways forward

Perhaps the most valuable lessons have been the recognition that issues of resource management and sustainable use are cultural and political as well as economic and ecological. The use of theatre is highly appropriate for unpacking the complexity of these issues. It unearths the range and breadth of different perspectives, particularly of those who have long struggled to have their voices heard by policy makers. At village level across southern Africa, rich debate is taking place and effective solutions are being generated. Yet too often people lack appropriate communication channels and are ignored by decision makers. A repository of skilled actor-facilitators is now available. So is a comprehensive and dedicated network of institutions and individuals who are aware of how good theatre is at addressing this gap.

Entertaining, representative performances are not enough to ensure that community voices are heard. Equally important is having the capacity and strategies in place to ensure that decision makers are exposed to these voices. The

COP was successful in developing the skills for creating theatrical productions. But it has left behind a vacuum. There are currently no systematic means of effectively utilising the expertise and network. This has resulted in an ad-hoc and inconsistent approach. This situation is far from optimal. It fails to capitalise upon existing capacities and demand. The benefits inherent in the regional nature of the programme need to be reaped. The high international and national demand for services needs to be met. So some form of regional coordinating mechanism is necessary, as well as ongoing capacity building for the actor-facilitators.

Would be practitioners should also be aware of the potential pitfalls of this approach. Theatre, for all its power and vibrancy, can also be used irresponsibly. There is a risk that the community's 'voice' and message is distorted or misrepresented. Production directors may choose to sacrifice certain key messages by simplifying complex issues for the sake of clarity. Or they may stereotype certain stakeholders as 'villains' for the sake of dramatic effect. The opposite can also happen. A lack of imaginative portrayal of issues, or representing points of view 'to the letter' can squeeze out the drama and colour from a situation, creating stultifying 'talk' plays with no real grip on the audience.

A further clear lesson from the COP is that 'participation' and 'empowerment' are not just concepts to be applied at the village level. In the implementation process, a broad range of different implementing agencies must ensure effective participation and empowerment. This has proved to be a critical ingredient in ensuring the sustainability at all levels. Only by developing partnerships and ensuring genuine 'ownership' and pride in national level activities can the regional approach be assured of success.

Conclusions

Who creates the theatre production? Who is it speaking to? These factors determine how participatory a particular process might be – and what power dynamics are in play. There are multiple 'actors' in the process described here:

- community members who 'speak up' about issues affecting their lives and livelihoods;
- mediators or facilitators of the messages that are being communicated; and
- consumers, including policy makers.

The extent to which communities take ownership of the messages may vary. Theatre is often used as a top-down communications medium. Information is packaged in such a way that the end user or community is simply a passive recipient. At the other end of the scale, theatre can be fully

participatory. Communities interact with stories to identify problems, develop solutions, or use the medium to vocalise their concerns.

In the COP process, the research aspect of theatre was critical. Actor-facilitators validated the general principles of CBNRM through living and working in communities. The work of SEKA also emphasises community participation and ownership of issues. It applies tools and processes used in participatory performance practices and tools commonly used in Theatre for Development. However, what is unique about the use of theatre in these programmes is that they have gone beyond Theatre for Development. They use theatre professionals as an intermediary to repackaging the issues for specific audiences. In all cases, these 'theatre makers' have been well

versed in the technical aspects of CBNRM and environment/development issues in general. This has been a unique advantage. Village-level performances do not need to exist in isolation. They can be repackaged for a variety of different end-users, from policy makers to cash paying tourist audiences. The role of the actor-facilitator provides a great flexibility in how the community's voice can be channelled, and to whom. Theatre is both versatile and powerful in this regard. However the 'tool' is only as effective as the craftsman. Actor-facilitators need to be well skilled and responsible to the community they represent if they are to avoid distorting the messages they carry. Theatre can contextualise such messages with an energy and immediacy that paper or oral based communications fail to achieve.

CONTACT DETAILS

Tamara and Miranda Guhrs
SEKA, Box 41, Mfuwe, Zambia.
Email: tamara.guhrs@gmail.com

Liz Rihoy
PO Box 47074, Nairobi, Kenya.
Email: Liz.rihoy@gmail.com

Tamara and Miranda Guhrs are founders and directors of SEKA. Miranda was also one of the two Zambian actor/facilitators with the Community Outreach Programme (COP). Liz Rihoy was the director of the COP and continues to coordinate international theatrical activities for Resource Africa.

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general section

12

Inspire: a UK participatory public art evaluation

by CHRISTOPHER HARTWORTH and JOANNE HARTWORTH

Introduction

This article focuses on a participatory evaluation of the Inspire public art programme in South East Northumberland, UK. The evaluation was to determine whether several of its key objectives were achieved and raises a number of interesting issues about using participatory approaches in public art programmes.

South East Northumberland covers 56 square miles. It has

a population of 141,000 (see Figure 1). It was a prosperous area with successful fishing, coal mining and ship building industries. But between the 1980s and 2000, there was a significant decline. The area suffered from unemployment, lack of investment and a decline in public services such as health and education. It had socio-economic problems, poor infrastructure, and high levels of ill health, unemployment and poorly maintained housing. Many young people are now choosing to leave the area.

In response, in 1997 Northumberland County Council (the regional public administration) and other key partners from the public, private and voluntary sectors formed the Northumberland Strategic Partnership (NSP). The partnership was created to undertake a comprehensive regeneration of the county (Audit Commission, 1999).¹ Inspire is supported by the NSP, which also commissioned the Northumberland Public Art Plan (researched and written by Commissions North), which informs public art development throughout Northumberland.²

Figure 1: Location of the Inspire public art programme



¹ Regeneration means achieving economic, social and environmental development, including reducing unemployment, increasing investment and improving health care and education, across the entire region

² Commissions North was established within Arts Council England, North East in 1999 to support public art commissioning within capital and regeneration projects. See: www.publicartonline.org.uk/news/reports/inspire.html

“We wanted a bottom-up perspective on the role of art in the area’s regeneration; how the public had been involved; and how the art has affected people’s sense of place and belonging in South East Northumberland”

The Inspire Public Art Programme

The programme forms a significant contribution to the regeneration of South East Northumberland, by improving the environment through public art and good quality design. Inspire commissions artists to produce landmarks, gateway features, sculptures, artworks in buildings, and environmental enhancements (such as improvements in street and communal area designs) in the boroughs of Wansbeck and Blyth in South-east Northumberland.

One of our main objectives was to involve local communities in the development of the art projects. Inspire identifies the need for public art in a local area and, depending on circumstances, can involve communities in choosing an artist or commissioning the artist themselves. It can then involve communities in choosing or developing the individual art pieces. Some of Inspire’s objectives include:

- to identify and commission new artwork to improve the image of Blyth Valley and Wansbeck;
- to enable artists to work collaboratively with other design professionals and to become involved at the earliest stages; and
- to ensure that key stakeholders are appropriately engaged in public art and design development.

The evaluation of the Inspire Programme was commissioned to determine whether this had been achieved.

The evaluation process

After two years, an evaluation was commissioned to measure the Inspire Public Art Programme’s impact on local communities and the regeneration process.

Part of this evaluation took a participatory approach. We wanted a bottom-up perspective on the role of art in the area’s regeneration; how the public had been involved; and how the art has affected people’s sense of place and belonging in South East Northumberland. About 60 people in total were involved in the evaluation, including:

- members of the public who used the public spaces where the art was located;

Box 1: Focus group discussions

In focus group discussions, participants discussed:

- What makes a place good to live in?
- What does an attractive environment mean to you? Is what’s attractive to you attractive to someone else?
- What impact does increasing the attractiveness have? Does it make you want to stay in the area? Does it make you proud of the area? Does it lower crime? Does it make the area more prosperous? How?
- What do you think of the art project? What are the strengths and weaknesses? What would you change? How would you do it differently?
- Tell me about the process of your involvement in the project. How did you want to be involved? Do you think others wanted to be involved? Do you think it should be left to professionals? How would you change your involvement? More/less, earlier/later?
- Does your involvement in an art project make you feel you have more ownership of the art and the surroundings?
- Do you feel better about living in the area and your place within it as a result of your involvement with the art project?

- residents who lived where the art was to be located;
- residents’ association members involved in the art development planning process;
- residents who attended area committees where the art development took place;
- frontline community development professionals who had worked with local communities on other development projects;
- elected councillors who represented residents from areas where the art was located;
- young people who lived where the art was located; and
- community leaders e.g. Area Assembly representatives and Church leaders.

We wanted to create a process of critical appraisal and reflection amongst the participants. We talked to groups and individuals who had been most involved with the public art development, either by choosing the location of the art and artist, or being involved in decisions about the type of art. We held facilitated focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews in a series of convenient times and places, such as in local community centres, after community meetings, in public spaces such as the main street, and in areas where the art was located (Box 1).

Measuring Inspire’s impact: reflections on the approach

One of our objectives was to increase the attractiveness of the environment to local communities, local organisations, and to visitors. Our evaluation showed that local communi-

Box 2: Some Public Art examples

Newbiggin Sailing Club Wall before development. This is a public gathering place. Note how run-down and unattractive it looks



Photo: Richard Hollinshead, Public Art Officer, Wansbeck District Council

Sailing club members choosing which artist they would like to paint the installations for their wall.



Photo: Malcolm Muir (permission granted by the Newbiggin Hall Sailing Club)

The Sailing Club with the installed public art (three paintings on the wall).



Photo: Richard Hollinshead, Public Art Officer, Wansbeck District Council

The renovated building together with the public art, make the public space much brighter and more cheerful. Some comments from passers-by included:
It's quite relaxin' seeing that.
Hasn't it tidied the area up?
I expected them to be covered in spray paint, but they haven't been touched.
Everyone who's seen them has said they're wonderful.

ties and stakeholder organisations felt satisfied with the outcome and were supportive of the public art within their local environment. They felt that the Programme had increased the attractiveness of the environment (see Box 2). For example, one group of local residents said that they felt that the art and its development '...belongs to the Hirst Community'.

Another objective was to help make the environment more modern and distinctive. To judge whether this had

been achieved, we asked young adults (aged 16–24) living in the area what they thought. All the young people involved in the evaluation were very enthusiastic about the Inspire art and expressed considerable support for the modernity of the art. They recognised the importance of remembering local history and heritage – although, in their own words, 'not to live it'. They felt that public art gave an area a sense of identity; it encouraged other people to visit and had an influence on whether residents chose to leave

Box 3: Comments from young people

Two focus groups were held with young people aged between 12 and 18, from one rural and one urban setting. All members agreed that there was little for them to do in their areas:

... there's nowt for us to do ... the only good thing is the park.

...if it's good I'd stay, something to do, somewhere that looks good.

They wanted to see art combined with resources they could use, such as sculptures and art in a modern skate park, and street furniture:

...build wi' some benches 'cos we're sitting on the walls.

They also wanted to see a more attractive, modern and forward-looking environment, which would make them more inclined to stay:

...more people would come, less people would leave.

or stay in an area (see Box 3).

A main objective was to ensure that communities and stakeholders were properly engaged in public art development. For us, this meant providing satisfactory opportunities for people to get involved in the type of art selected. Our evaluation indicates that communities and stakeholders have been properly engaged (see Box 3). We also wanted to know if there was a link between feelings of public ownership of public art and the level of stakeholder involvement. Our evaluation found that the most important factor in public ownership is process. We found that attention to the consultation process is key to how confident community members felt in both choosing and feeling a sense of ownership of the art. The participatory evaluation showed that if stakeholders feel they have had sufficient opportunity to air their views, even (possibly particularly) their negative views, to discuss proposals and the art, then they feel a greater level of ownership and satisfaction (see Box 4).

We also wanted to see if there had been any change in people's sense of place in the case study examples, after being involved in the public art projects. Our evaluation indicated that after being involved, even in a consultative manner, people felt better about living in their local environment (see Box 4).

Lessons learnt and critical reflections

Our original research proposal laid out our participatory evaluation approach:

Participatory evaluation (PE) consists of community members or stakeholders evaluating a project that they have been involved in from the outset, i.e. in design, planning and implementation. Participatory evaluation is a process of critical appraisal and reflection by community members or stakeholders of the successes, failures, strengths and weaknesses of the project and often leads to planning of subsequent ventures in light of the evaluation.

Box 4: Comments about public involvement in the art development

One professional who worked with a community group said, 'a good relationship developed between the residents and the service providers'. And public meetings provided people with the necessary opportunity to discuss art project proposals with the Public Art Development Officer. One group said that

...people weren't scared of new ideas but wanted things talked about and explained

...it's about sharing information, [Inspire] has been good at doing that ... need a debate and discussion and they [Inspire] did that.

At one meeting, a critical discussion developed about the issues surrounding the art. The group leader said:

It was a good job there was a bar at the leisure centre, 'cos the discussions went over and over and things got heated at times.

At the end of the session, the members held a vote and an artist was chosen, with two-thirds of the members in favour. The group said that 'at the end we were all satisfied'.

This is how PE should work in an ideal world. But for the Inspire Programme, a number of factors influenced the application of PE. We found that:

- Public art initiatives are often part of wider regeneration processes, initiated by either administrative bodies or Council Officers and not by local communities themselves. This means that the 'public' are often involved at a relatively late stage in the project development process. Participation was only introduced later into the project development process. The community members did not decide 'I want a public art project here' so were not evaluating projects that they had initiated and implemented by themselves – as is the true nature of PE.
- Stakeholders have included senior managers in the NSP and local authorities, project officers, politicians and community members (many of whom were involved in this participatory evaluation). This involvement included discussions and decisions about the implementation of public art that cut across administrative and social boundaries in South East Northumberland.
- Public art is judged not only by those communities in which it is sited or who see it, but also by strategic art bodies such as Commissions North, the Arts Council, other artists, regeneration specialists, landscape designers and funders. They are removed from the PE process and have their own rationale for judging quality. However, the results from this PE will be fed back to them, for their information.
- Time is needed to evaluate the worth or value of a piece of public art. Perceptions of public art often change over a period of years. This makes participatory evaluation diffi-

Box 5: More Public Art examples

Example from an arts trail: *Footsteps in the Snow*. This piece is along a walkway. It is meant to make the trail more interesting and attract visitors to the area



Photo: Richard Hollinshead, Public Art Officer, Wansbeck District Council

Example from an arts trail: *Eating for England*. This will be on the same walkway as *Footsteps in the Snow*. This artwork is in development and will be installed soon.



Photo: Richard Hollinshead, Public Art Officer, Wansbeck District Council

cult in the short term and represents only one stage of a long PE exercise. Evaluations should be repeated every couple of years to see how people's reactions to the art develops and evolves. For example, Gateshead's *Angel of the North* created by Anthony Gormley, met with widespread resistance when it was built, but is now a symbol of the North of England.

- The definition of community is very complex in the evaluation of public art. For one project, the Klondyke Footbridge in South East Northumberland, the 'community' consists of local people who walk over the bridge, and the car and lorry drivers who pass under it whilst using the A189 road. This makes accessing 'community members' to carry out participatory evaluation difficult.

Issues of representation

The Inspire Programme made significant efforts to identify and consult with as many identified groups as possible, within the time and resources available. Our evaluation found that true community representation is difficult in public art projects, partly as there is a lack of mechanisms that allow access to different groups. Community fora are predominantly made up of older people, with often more men than women. The region has a history of male-dominated trade union public speaking and participation. So it was harder to consult with women or people from black and minority ethnic groups.

The public meetings organised by Inspire had a very low participation rate. This is often the case with more 'public' projects, whereas projects that affect a specific residential

community tend to have a committed and enthusiastic user group. However, those involved in the evaluation felt that the process Inspire provided gave people the opportunity to become involved if they wanted to. This issue was raised by one group who thought that 'only a minority [of people] want to be involved anyway ... the Church Council were impressed [with the proposals] although not many want to be involved but are for it'. Our evaluation supported this view.

Participatory evaluations are meant to gain a representative insight into how community members have been involved in something that directly impacts on them. These projects have an impact on many people, but those involved are often not representative of the wider community. However, we feel that the processes that Inspire has employed to engage with the public have been thorough and varied. And on reflection, the evaluation indicates that the process seems to be as – if not more – important than widespread community involvement.

Conclusions

Involving the community in the evaluation of public art projects is not as straightforward as it may be in other more 'traditional' development projects where PE is used. But we learnt many useful things by taking a participatory approach. People want the opportunity to become involved in public art development should they wish to. And a successful public art project should provide accessible opportunities for local people to voice their dissatisfaction or raise questions and discuss issues, even if they do not want to become directly

involved. We have also learnt that it is worth using participatory evaluation approaches in any project scenario, not just traditional 'development' projects.

For example, in area regeneration initiatives, we found that many people felt that art was lower down the list of socio-economic and environmental improvements in the areas where they lived. Yet its presence gave added value to those improvements. This notion of added value was a theme

throughout the evaluation. People were surprised to realise just how much positive impact the art had within an existing development; how it beautified an area and produced a focal point for discussion.

And finally, we learnt that it was the consultation process – allowing people to voice their opinions, hold discussions and meet artists – that was key to local ownership of public art.

CONTACT DETAILS

Christopher Hartworth and Joanne Hartworth
Barefoot Research and Evaluation
33 Forest Avenue
Forest Hall
Newcastle
NE12 7JY
Tel. +44 7813 789529
Email: barefoot@barefootresearch.org.uk
Website: www.barefootresearch.org.uk

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13

Piloting a methodology to investigate poverty dynamics

by TARIQ OMAR ALI, MEHNAZ RABBANI and MUNSHI SULAIMAN

Introduction

This article describes the process of refining a participatory method to investigate the poverty dynamics of the extreme poor in Bangladesh. Based on a baseline wealth ranking exercise conducted in three districts of Bangladesh in 2002, we wanted to do a repeat wealth ranking to identify the households that have moved up or down the ranks, and why.

Our initial methodology showed that, although some changes are apparent in the lives of the extreme poor, they had not moved up or down in the wealth ranks defined by the community. The refined method that we came up with is a modified change ranking exercise that captures reasons, indicators and degree of change in the lives of the extreme poor. We also report on the findings of a larger study which used our refined methodology.

Background

Brac, the largest NGO in Bangladesh, has been implementing a specially designed programme for the extreme poor called Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction/Targeting the Ultra Poor (CFPR/TUP). The programme works in rural Bangladesh, with support from donor funds. Its objective is to provide integrated support for the extreme poor to make

“The changes that we wished to capture were too small and too incremental to constitute a jump up or down the wealth rankings”

sustainable improvements in their livelihoods. The programme was designed as a response to the failure of micro-finance and other conventional development interventions to reach the poorest of the poor effectively.

The initial round of selection was completed in early 2002 in three of the poorest districts of Bangladesh. Programme participants were selected through a participatory wealth ranking (PWR) exercise. Community members defined the ranks and placed each household in a rank according to its socio-economic status. Participants identified as the ultra poor were then given a range of assistance, including productive assets, stipends, and health and education awareness over an 18-month period. A mid-term evaluation report showed significant improvements in objective indicators, and also improvements in self-perceptions of poverty.

To understand the changes better, we wanted to explore

Table 1: Repeat wealth ranking and poverty dynamics

	Previous Rank				
	1	2	3	4	
New Rank	1	2	-	-	-
	2	-	8	2	-
	3	-	20	-	-
	4	-	3	22	25

community perceptions of:

- household movements into and out of poverty; and
- causes/factors behind household movements.

Initial methodology

Repeat wealth ranking

In our pilot study, we decided to carry out a repeat wealth ranking which could be compared with the 2002 baseline wealth ranking to identify which households have moved up, down or stayed the same.

Contrary to the findings of the mid-term evaluation, the repeat wealth ranking showed that more than half the 82 households had moved deeper into poverty, whilst only 2 rose, from rank 3 to rank 2 (Table 1). There are two main explanations for these findings.

- Firstly, there were considerable biases and a tendency to deliberately rank households lower in the expectations of assistance. This was because after the first wealth ranking, bottom ranked households received assets and other forms of assistance from Brac.
- Secondly, some changes were too small to register as a jump between ranks, because the differences between the wealth ranks were so great. For example, six CFPR/TUP programme participants who had all received cows through the programme were no better off in the ranking, although said they were doing better. This suggested that, even without the bias issues, repeat wealth rankings would be a flawed exercise.

Change ranking exercise

We then decided to do a change ranking exercise (Box 1), which we hoped would capture the small, incremental changes that were not reflected in the repeat wealth ranking.

The main problem with the exercise was that villagers

Box 1: Change ranking method

We drew three boxes on the ground, one on top of the other. We then drew an up-arrow from the middle box to the top box, and a down-arrow to the bottom box. We placed a card indicating the household in the middle box and asked if that household was now better off or worse off or the same as when we conducted the last wealth ranking. Better-off households would be moved to the top box, and worse-off households would be moved to the bottom box. The change ranking exercise was restricted to households in the bottom two wealth categories, since we were interested in dynamics amongst the poorer households.

Box 2: Focus group discussion

We asked what factors result in households moving into and out of poverty, or staying the same. We wrote the factors on cards and asked participants to:

- divide the cards into household-level and community-level factors
- score the factors by importance; and
- identify factors which individually or jointly led to change in a household's situation.

seemed to compare between households, instead of across time. We would keep household cards that had already been ranked in the appropriate boxes, and the cards accumulated as we went along. As a result, community members compared households with the households that had already been placed in the boxes. 'He has done well, but not as well as that guy we have already ranked. Keep him in the middle box' was a comment often made by participants.

Focus group discussions

Finally, we carried out a focus group exercise to explore poverty dynamics, focusing on poorer households (Box 2).

Community perceptions of reasons behind ascent and descent are shown in Table 2. All the factors identified were household-level ones, perhaps because community-level factors were perceived to be the same for everyone.

The results of the scoring exercise are shown in Table 3. The scores for upward mobility emphasise the importance of initial conditions. Income from existing land and improvements to existing business is perceived to be the most important causes of upward mobility. Also important are household demographics (i.e., sons, no daughters and small families). The scores for downward mobility emphasise household demographics, marriage and dowry – the two '5+' scores are for marriageable daughters and large families.

The scoring exercise took place smoothly, but participants found it difficult to identify which combinations of

¹ See Participatory Learning and Action: A trainer's guide (Petty *et al*, 1995) for description of wealth ranking.

Table 2: Community perceptions of factors behind poverty dynamics

Reasons for upward mobility	Reasons for downward mobility
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Son works • Business profits • No daughter • Small household, high savings • Invested money from dowry • Did not get married – no mouths to feed • Earnings from land already owned • Works hard • Sons over 10 years old – high future income • NGO membership • Assets from BRAC CFPR/TUP programme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More mouths to feed • Daughters of marriageable age • Land sold to pay dowry • Old age • Cannot lease in land anymore • Had children at early age • Husband died • Sons moved out of household • Old husband, young children • Many daughters

Table 3: Scoring reasons for upward and downward mobility (out of five)

Reasons for upward mobility	Score	Reasons for downward mobility	Score
Has milk cow	3	Husband old, son still young	5
Wage rates have risen	1	Cannot lease land	3
Started a business with dowry money	1	Sold land to pay dowry	5
Has not married, income from land accumulating	5	Marriageable daughter	5+
Hard working	2	Too many mouths to feed	5++
Small family, fewer mouths to feed	4	Cannot work because too old, too sick	5
No daughters	3	Married at a young age	3
Business is doing well	5	Husband died	3
Son works	3	Sons live and eat separately	4
NGO association	3		
Harvest sizes have increased	4		
Is not wasteful	5		

factors would lead to upward or downward mobility. Without this, and an understanding of the interrelations between community-level and household-level causes of poverty dynamics, we felt that the scoring exercise did not reveal anything truly insightful.

Refining the methodology

From testing our initial methodology, we learnt the following important lessons:

- a repeat wealth ranking is problematic, even without biases, because the rungs between the ranks do not capture small incremental changes;
- change rankings need to be conducted in such a way to make it clear that we are comparing across time, and not between households;
- discussions of poverty dynamics do not capture community-level changes because they are perceived as a given for all households; and
- we need to understand the interlinkages between factors driving mobility.

After much discussion, we decided to scrap both the

Box 3: Change ranking methodology

Each card carrying the person’s name and original wealth rank was placed in the centre square. We then asked the participants if, compared to three to four years ago, this household is better off, worse off, a lot better off, a lot worse off, or just the same. We asked them to explain why this person was better off. In our note taking, we included the household’s original wealth rank, direction and degree of change, and the reasons offered by the community for this change. We, therefore, had simplified three exercises into one exercise, which would capture different degrees of change as well as community perceptions of the driving forces behind change.

wealth ranking and the focus group discussions and expand the change ranking exercise. Instead of just asking about improvement, deterioration or continuation, we would ask about degrees of improvement and deterioration (Figure 1 and Box 3). This would not give any insight into community level changes. However, we had concluded that a study of this would not be effectively conducted through PRA techniques focusing on poverty dynamics.

We piloted our new methodology in two communities. The pilots went smoothly. We did however find that the

Table 4: 'Why has this household changed?'

Big improvement	Little improvement	Little deterioration	Big deterioration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CFPR/TUP asset • Sons have grown up and earning a salary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vendor, and used to be day labourer • Micro-finance • Bought land • CFPR/TUP assets • Leasing-in land • Silver business, used to be vendor • Took dowry • There is a VGD card in his 'son's name' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Losses from business • Separated from father's household • 'Lazy' husband • Husband died • Daughters of marriageable age • Son has disappeared • Has to work in other people's homes currently • Children do not feed their parents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Daughters getting married • Poor health • Married daughter returning to father's home • Aging • 'Lazy and stupid' son • Son has left homestead • Prices rising faster than wage rate • Paying interests on loan from informal credit market

Figure 1: Change ranking PRA exercise

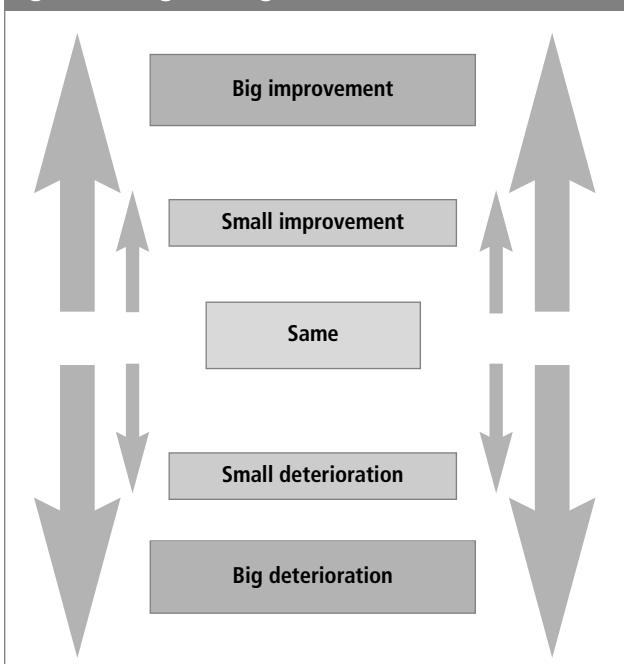
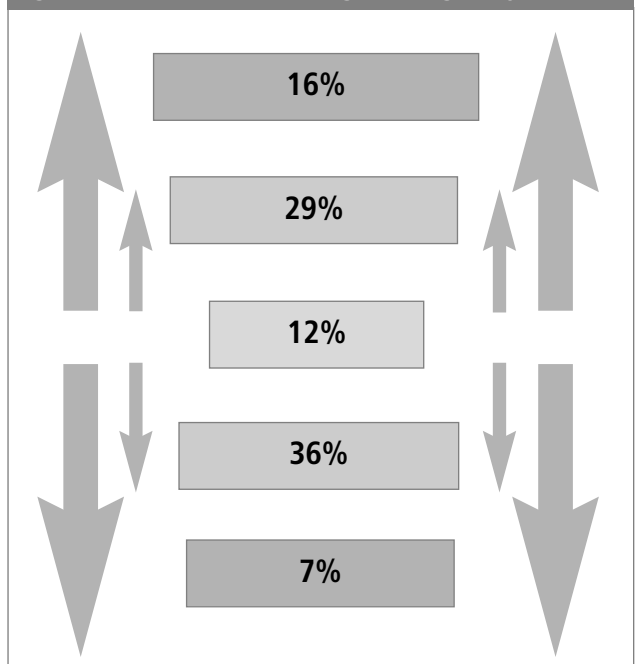


Figure 2: Results from the change ranking study



reasons for and indicators of change were mixed up in the responses. In Table 4, for example, 'lazy husband' is a reason for deterioration, but 'having to work in other people's homes' is a sign of that deterioration. In some cases, participants said that a household had improved a bit, but it will soon lose its gains because they have 'daughters of marriageable age', i.e. the change is not sustainable. Based on this, they would say that the household had moved down or stayed the same, whereas in the actual time span under consideration it had improved.

These confusions were the result of the way we phrased our questions. To prevent further ambiguities we decided to ask separate and clear questions:

- why do you say that this household has improved/deteriorated a lot/a little? (indicators of change);
- what are the reasons that this household has moved in this direction at this degree? (reasons of change); and
- are these changes permanent or reversible? (sustainability of change).

Table 5 shows the results of our change ranking exercise. The positive changes in the bottom wealth ranking are almost entirely due to Brac's CFPR/TUP programme. Without the programme, participants tend to either stay the same, or decline. Some had deteriorated significantly. It seems that, without assistance, communities perceive the poor staying poor, or getting poorer.

Table 5: Community perceptions of change amongst the poor

		Wealth Rank		
		4	5	
Change Rank			Non-selected	Selected
	Big improvement	-	-	1
	Little improvement	1	2	3
	No change	6	6	1
	Little deterioration	2	1	-
	Big deterioration	3	4	-
	Total	12	13	5

The results from this pilot study are an illustration of how we used the new methodology. The following section shows the results from a scaled-up study that followed.

Scaling up the methodology

The Research Unit at Brac used this new methodology in the three districts of Bangladesh (Rangpur, Nilphamari, Kurigram) where the CFPR/TUP programme was first implemented in 2002. The study was conducted between September and October 2005. The objective of the study was to understand better the poverty dynamics of the ultra poor.

Nearly 6000 households were selected from the 2002 baseline PWR data in 108 communities. The results from this data provide valuable insights into the changes in the lives of the ultra poor, and the nature and magnitude of the programme impact on participants. The findings will enable better interpretation of changes in objective measures revealed in quantitative impact assessments and also help in designing programmes in the future.

The main findings from the change ranking exercise are summarised in Figure 2.

Most of the households had changed slightly. The households ranked highest in the 2002 baseline PWR improved most, whilst the households ranked the worst in 2002, and not selected for the CFPR/TUP programme, have deteriorated. The CFPR/TUP participants, who were selected from the lowest ranks, show a reverse trend, which is good news for the programme.

The main indicators of improvement (i.e. the ones that are more visible to the community) are improved housing, increased access to land and increased productive assets. For the higher-ranked households, increase in assets is the most

common indicator, while for the lower-ranked households it was increase in food security. As expected, increase in productive assets was a major indicator of improvement for CFPR/TUP participants. It was also evident from the qualitative data that possession of assets (independent of income from assets) indicates improvement in social status in the community for these households.

The reasons for improvement also varied with the initial rank of households. For those who were better off in 2002 and had improved since then, engagement in new income-generating activities was the main driver of mobility. Households that started off poorer, however, have little opportunity to undertake new income-generating activities. The improvement of the initially poorer households was mostly attributed to hard work. For CFPR/TUP participants, the main drivers of improvement were the assets received from Brac.

The main indicators of deterioration for households were fall in food intake, sale of land and depletion of assets. Land depletion is a common indicator of descent for the higher-ranked households, while fall in food intake is more common for the lower-ranked households. The main reasons for descent were lifecycle factors such as old age, illness and marriage of daughters. (Marrying off daughters in rural Bangladesh involves paying a dowry, which translates into financial shocks for poorer households).

Once we related the change ranking data to our 2002 baseline PWR data, it was evident that initial conditions played a deciding role in determining the change in these households over the three years. Using the 2002 CFPR/TUP baseline survey, simple logistic regression analysis was used to investigate the initial conditions that led to different trajectories for households. The results show that households that started off with average characteristics, but no daughters of marriageable age, are most likely to improve.

The general trend is that of the rich getting richer and the poor getting poorer. However, among the poorest, the CFPR/TUP participants show significant improvements. The difference in the direction of change between the ultra poor selected by the programme and those not selected show that the programme was not only successful in preventing deterioration in the selected households, but also promoted improvement.

Conclusions

We had set out to devise a method that would effectively identify changes in the socio-economic status of the extreme poor and the reasons for change, particularly programme

“The general trend is that of the rich getting richer and the poor getting poorer. However, among the poorest, the CFPR/TUP participants show significant improvements”

intervention. Repeat wealth ranking exercises were unsuccessful in revealing the drivers of poverty dynamics of the poorest. Experimenting with participatory methods led us to developing the methodology described. The process of revising and refining the techniques used proved effective in producing a structure that captured the small changes we were looking for and understanding the reasons behind these changes.

Extensive structured note taking was especially useful in analysing our final data. Using this new methodology, we were able to show programme impact on beneficiaries, which supplements our quantitative impact assessment results.

Apart from the findings of the scaled-up study, developing the exercise in itself provided us with valuable information. The movements for the ultra poor are small, and are not revealed as jumps in wealth ranks. Although not captured by conventional quantitative and qualitative methods, the moves are important as the accumulation of small changes can potentially lead to bigger changes. Following up on these households in the future will reveal the sustainability of such improvements – and also identify if and how long it takes for interventions such as the CFPR/TUP to support participants to move out of extreme poverty.

Studies on poverty dynamics are beginning to use participatory tools in addition to surveys and objective indicators. Quantitative studies reveal the correlates of poverty dynamics, but do not say much about the mechanisms through which various household and community factors drive mobility into and out of poverty. We believe our attempts to develop and refine participatory methods for understanding poverty dynamics which can be scaled up form an important contribution towards current research on poverty dynamics.

CONTACT DETAILS

Tariq Omar Ali
Senior Research Associate
Email: backupBrac@yahoo.co.uk

Mehnaz Rabbani
Senior Research Associate
Email: mehnaz_rabbani@yahoo.com

Munshi Sulaiman
Staff Researcher
Email: munshi_sulaiman@yahoo.com

Brac, Research and Evaluation Division
Brac Centre
75 Mohakhali
Dhaka 1212
Bangladesh
Tel: + 880 2 9881265
Fax: + 880 2 8823614

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14

Using participatory video to develop youth leadership skills in Colombia

by HARRIET MENTER, MARIA CECILIA ROA, OMAR FELIPE BECCERA, CLARA ROA and WILSON CELEMIN

Introduction

This article describes how participatory video (PV) was used as a tool to help young people focus on their leadership skills. The young people were from a rural conflict zone in Colombia. Participants created a concrete product (a video to be shown to peers), which was completed by the end of the course. In a previous workshop, stand-alone activities were used to focus on different leadership skills. This second workshop offered the young people an opportunity to consolidate these skills by using them in a more realistic setting.

Facilitators of participatory processes often focus largely on the impact of the **process**, such as the skills that are learnt and the bonds of trust and communication (social capital) that are created. But this experience highlights the fact that the importance of the **product** for the participants themselves must not be forgotten. It is the product that makes the exercise of these skills important. It motivates the participants to apply these new skills to the highest possible level. This insight helps us to improve the process impacts of participatory experiences.

Background

This work was carried out by the Communities and Watersheds Team at an agricultural research centre in Colombia.

“This experience highlights the fact that the importance of the product for the participants themselves must not be forgotten. It is the product that makes the exercise of these skills important. It motivates the participants to apply these new skills to the highest possible level.”

The team was looking for rural partners to research ecosystems and their role in the long-term maintenance of environmental services. This led to us working with young people. Young people are the future managers and beneficiaries of natural resources in rural watersheds. We found that they had a natural interest in understanding and preserving the resources on which their livelihoods will depend in the medium and long term.

The first participatory diagnosis of research needs that we conducted with young people in rural areas resulted in a diversity of topics. These included:

- forest management for firewood production;
- watershed storage capacity for water availability;

Participant explaining how to use a video camera to one of the facilitators



Photo: CIAT

- water rights and distribution;
- food security practices for diet diversification; and
- forest characterisation and sustainable management for income generation.

We decided to strengthen the research projects with training in leadership skills. This would support the application of the findings and increase the impact of the young people's research. We started with the design and implementation of a series of leadership workshops. These were aimed at giving rural young people the tools to gain self-confidence, improve their communication skills, and work in teams.

Following Van Linden and Fertman (1998), we adopted a definition of youth leaders as individuals who:

- think for themselves;

- have the ability to use their personal strengths;
- can communicate their thoughts and feelings;
- can influence and motivate others for a common goal;
- work collectively to obtain results; and
- have high standards of achievement.

The idea was to develop a leadership skills programme where each component of this definition is practiced and assimilated by the young people with suitable exercises and activities. It is hoped that these components will then be applied and practiced in the research activities and in the dissemination and application of their results.

Participatory video

Participants learn how to use video equipment, using participatory video processes, exercises and games. They then use

**Course
participant
filming and
directing a
shot**

Photo: CIAT

this knowledge to make a video. Participatory video has been used in many different ways over the last 30 years: for community development, conflict resolution, sociological research, and to allow disempowered groups to make their voices heard and feed their views into policy-making processes. Shaw and Robertson (1997) list the benefits of PV as:

- participation (i.e. getting people actively involved in processes that affect them);
- individual development;
- communication;
- community development;
- critical awareness and consciousness raising;
- self advocacy and representation;
- capacity building and self reliance; and
- empowerment.

The underlying principle of participatory processes including PV is that it is participants themselves who are in control of the process. The extent of this decision-making power – and its balance with the decision-making power of the facilitator – will depend on the purpose of the process, the level of confidence and ability of the participants in that field, and the desired outcome. In some processes, the decision-making power will rest largely with the facilitators. Participants will only be consulted about key decisions. In others, the decision-making power may be shared between facilitators and participants, or the participants may have complete control of the process and refer to the facilitator for advice.

The different balances of decision-making power between participants and facilitators have been described as a 'participation ladder'. Participants with no decision-making

Participants
planning the
timeline



Photo: CIAT

power are shown at the bottom of the ladder. And participants who are completely in charge of the process are shown at the top (Arnstein 1969, DeNegri *et al* 1999). Roger Hart (1992) has adapted this idea. He has developed the Ladder of Youth Participation. This refers to the balance of power between young people and adults involved in a participatory process.

The impact of young people taking control of the process is considered as important as the impact of the final product (whether this be a video, an agricultural research investigation or a local development plan). Involvement in participatory processes can have many impacts on participants' social capital, such as:

- increased self awareness;
- increased self confidence;
- changing of power structures within groups; and
- creation of trust and communication channels.

The process becomes more important when the aim of the intervention is to create these process impacts. In this case, the specific aim of the process was the development of leadership skills. White suggests that when video is used to develop personal skills, it is the process that is of utmost importance. The video is 'not intended to have a life beyond the immediate context' (White 2003).

Using participatory video to develop leadership skills in Colombia

The participatory video process we used was the second stage of the programme focusing on the development of leadership skills for young people in rural areas. Forty young people attended a residential workshop. They were split into two groups. Those attending the leadership skills workshop for the first time (32 participants) did the stage one workshop. Those who had participated in a previous stage one

workshop (eight participants) took part in the stage two video workshop.

The stage one workshop consisted of a series of stand-alone activities. Each was followed by a discussion. These were designed to help young people practice and reflect upon the different components of leadership. For example, 'working collectively to obtain results' was explored using a series of activities. The group had to work together to overcome a physical challenge, such as crossing over an imaginary 'acid swamp' using ropes and planks of wood. In another activity, participants created a flag that represented them to present to the group, as a way of focusing on 'communicating their thoughts and feelings'.

The video process

The stage two participants took part in a two-day workshop. This was designed as a series of different video-based activities. Each focused on a different leadership quality. Each activity was followed by a plenary session to discuss the lessons that had been learnt through the activity. These included:

- technical points about using the camera, lighting, sound etc.;
- process points about making videos such as how it feels to be filmed and what can be done to put people at ease in front of the camera; and
- discussions and lessons learnt about leadership qualities.

For example, the first activity was a video version of the name game in which people presented themselves to the camera. Then they discussed how we present ourselves, and how we are perceived by others (communicating thoughts and feelings).

The activities each served to focus on and develop a different aspect of leadership, just as activities in the parallel level one workshop had done. For example, interview activities in the video workshop allowed the young people to focus on communication skills. Planning more complex scenes, and planning the final film provided a focus for influencing others and resolving conflicts within a group. Filming the sequences provided a space for examining working collectively, taking on different roles within a group and achieving high standards. After each activity, the group discussed their experiences and what they had learnt about the different leadership skills.

The video workshop differed from the level one workshop. Each activity was also designed as part of a sequence through which the young people worked towards a final outcome – the production of a video. This was to be shown to their peers on the last day of the workshop. By contrast,

“Planning more complex scenes, and planning the final film provided a focus for influencing others and resolving conflicts within a group. Filming the sequences provided a space for examining working collectively, taking on different roles within a group and achieving high standards.”

the level one workshop was a collection of stand-alone activities.

Using video as a way to develop leadership skills proved to be more expensive than the activities in the stage one workshop. This was due to the nature of the equipment required. However, we judged it to be a worthwhile tool. The young people had already demonstrated interest both in the research projects (being involved in research projects for more than two years) and in the development of leadership skills (had participated in the previous workshop). The benefit was twofold. The primary aim of this workshop was to develop leadership skills. But we hope that at a later stage, the young people will use their newly developed technical abilities alongside their leadership skills in their communities – as a way of facilitating discussions on the use of natural resources, and facilitating community planning and action. In the long run, this also allows the young researchers to reach bigger audiences of rural young people. At this initial stage, however, the video was being used by the participants themselves, and not as a tool to use within the wider community.

Like any other participatory tool, with PV the product impact is important (the impact the video has). But so is the process impact (the impact the process has on the participants). In this process, the space for the participants to make decisions themselves was limited, as both the medium (video) and the subject (leadership) had been chosen by the facilitators. But within these parameters, the facilitators tried to leave as much space as possible for the participants to make their own decisions. They were given space to decide what to film, how to film it, and what to put into the final video. Group decisions were taken using a range of participatory tools such as ranking, group brainstorming, spider diagrams and group discussions.¹

¹ See, for example, *A Trainer's Guide for Participatory Learning and Action* (Pretty et al., 1995).

Participants receiving certificates at the end of the course.



The young people learnt the basics of using the video equipment very quickly. The games at the start of the workshop focused on allowing the participants to learn through doing, and learn through making mistakes. The facilitators took a decision to intervene as little as possible when the participants were planning and filming their work. This was to allow them as much autonomy as possible in deciding what to film and how to film it. In practice, this sometimes meant compromising the quality of the final product (for example, allowing a participant to film a shot in a badly lit area, despite facilitators being aware that the lighting was poor). The facilitators agreed that the process and the participants' autonomy were more important than the quality of the final product. So it was necessary to compromise on the quality of the final product.

Results

The participants and the facilitators considered both the level one and level two workshops a success. Comments from participants of both workshops suggested that they perceived the video workshop to be 'the real thing' in terms of the young people exercising their leadership skills.

The difference that they perceived between the two workshops was that in the video process, there was an ultimate goal that had to be delivered. This meant that the young people were not just 'practicing' their skills but were using them in a real situation in which they had to deliver. Failing to deliver had a 'real' consequence. Compare the imaginary 'acid swamp' they would fall into if the groups had failed, with the failure to have a product ready at the end of the programme, or showing a badly made video to their peers and friends.

Box 1: The final product

The final film that the group showed was an exploration of the six different components of leadership they had explored. The group chose footage that exemplified each of these aspects. In some cases they used footage that had been filmed during the activities, for example interviewing each other on their leadership activities within their communities, or explaining their body maps to the camera. They also filmed new scenes to fill in gaps. For example, they filmed themselves building a human pyramid as an example of collective working. They developed a short drama about peer pressure to demonstrate the concept of people thinking for themselves. They also filmed each other directing shots as an example of influencing and motivating others for a common goal. The quality of the film was generally very high, although there were sections where sound quality or lighting could have been improved.

Decisions were taken as a group. They worked on a collective time-line and decided what to include or leave out through group discussion and group ranking. The exception to this was that footage of people could not be used without their explicit consent, resulting in some individuals vetoing certain clips.

The group 'topped and tailed' their film with a scripted introduction about what they had done, and their conclusions on the whole process and how they would use their skills. They gave their decisions to the facilitators who then took charge of the digital editing process. A rough version of the final product was shown to the group for any last changes, before being shown to peers. The end result was a very watchable, humorous and insightful film about leadership from these young people's point of view.

This division may seem contrived. Ultimately, both activities were run within the safe confines of a workshop. The worst consequence of failure in either activity is feeling embarrassed or inadequate. However, the difference proved to be very important for the young people themselves. This may be because making a video and using the equipment involved is perceived as a more serious activity than the games and arts-based activities that were used in the level one workshop.

Some of the level one workshop activities also had tangible product outputs, such as each person making a flag. However, each was a stand-alone activity. If a young person was uninterested, they could sit out that activity while still being included in the workshop as a whole. In the video process, participants have to remain involved throughout. They had to continue using their leadership skills even when the situation was challenging, as they had a product to deliver. Working collaboratively in a group of people with different ideas becomes more challenging when there is a deadline to meet and a product to deliver. The participants were putting into practice leadership skills in a more authentic situation.

"Working collaboratively in a group of people with different ideas becomes more challenging when there is a deadline to meet and a product to deliver. The participants were putting into practice leadership skills in a more authentic situation"

This proved to be a good test of leadership abilities.

In the participants' evaluation of the video workshop the activity they considered most effective was showing the video to the group. This suggests an important lesson about the way skills are taught through participatory processes. The practitioner may focus on the process. But creating a product is where the skills are practiced. Whether the product is 'real' or 'contrived', it provides a focus for participants, giving the sensation of achievement through practising these skills – as opposed to the skills being an end in themselves.

Our participants felt the facilitators should have intervened more to ensure the technical quality of the film was higher, and avoid some of the basic mistakes. This highlights the difference between the views of the facilitators and the young people regarding the relative importance of the process and the end product. For the facilitators, the process was more important, and technical glitches seen as less important than the participants' autonomy to make mistakes. But the participants placed more importance on the end product. In an ideal world, there would be time to train participants so that they could both work autonomously and avoid mistakes. However, often due to lack of time, decisions have to be taken about what to prioritise. Sometimes the priorities of the participants differ from those of the facilitators.

Conclusions

We think useful lessons can be learnt from this experience. Understanding the importance of the product for participants helps us as practitioners to improve the impact of the process. Making the end product as real and meaningful as possible, and giving it a high level of importance gives people more motivation to exercise the skills they are learning, and often pushes them to exercise those skills in a pressure situation. For example, a video 'premiere' can be organised, and invitations sent to relevant people outside of the process. This suggests that even when video is used to develop personal

skills the product is as important as the process, even if it does not have a life beyond the immediate context as White (2003) suggests.

Ensuring the end product has meaning for participants is also important. In this case, making the film had real meaning and relevance for the young people. It was a medium that engaged and enthused them instantly. It was something they were very familiar with through television. Yet having the power to control it was a new experience. The young people felt that expressing themselves on video gave their opinions and experiences gravitas, and made them more powerful, and more likely to be heard. This teaches us the importance of ensuring that participatory processes are working towards an end product that motivates its partici-

pants. In ideal circumstances, the participants themselves would choose the end product. However, in this case video proved to be a powerful tool for working with young people.

We realised that the product is important. These young people not only learnt, but also practiced their new skills within the process (the process impact). This has led us to reassess our assumption that the process is more important than the product. Without focusing on the product, facilitators may in fact diminish the participants' motivation to exercise their leadership skills. This can be true for other participatory process, especially those that focus on process impacts. It requires the facilitator to consider carefully the relative importance that is attributed to process impacts and product impacts.

CONTACT DETAILS

Harriet Menter
39 Sidney Grove
Newcastle
NE4 5PD
UK
Tel: 07738 016450
Email: harrietmenter@gmail.com

Maria Cecilia Roa, Omar Felipe Beccera, Clara Roa and Wilson Celemin
Communities and Watersheds Team
Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT)
A.A. 6713
Cali
Colombia

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Survey results: *PLA 54* Mapping for Change – practice, technologies and communications

by **HOLLY ASHLEY**

It may take more than a thorough read of this IIED/CTA co-publication to become an expert on PGIS – but there could be no better starting place (Critchley, 2006).

Introduction

In April 2006, IIED and CTA co-published a special issue of *Participatory Learning and Action* on participatory mapping and related technologies (issue 54). In August 2006, we invited our readers to participate in an online survey about the special issue – and 124 participants took part.¹

The articles in the special issue were based on a selection of papers presented at the Mapping for Change International Conference of Spatial Information Management and Communication, held in Nairobi, Kenya, in September 2005.

Our aim was for community mapping practitioners from around the world to share their experiences and learning with a wider audience. Working with an international team of guest editors and authors, we wanted this special issue to highlight and document a significant coming-of-age in Participatory Geographic Information Systems (PGIS) practice:

PGIS is an emergent practice in its own right. It is a result of a merger of Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) methods with geographic information technologies. PGIS practice is geared towards community empowerment through measured, demand-driven, user-friendly and integrated applications of geo-spatial technologies (Corbett et al, 2006b).

The survey questions reflected a number of issues. Broadly, we wanted to get an idea of:

- who our readers are;
- what readers thought of the articles;
- what experience our readers have in practicing PGIS; and
- how our readers might use the information from the special issue in the future.

The feedback from the survey has been very encouraging. It has given us an overview of a broad cross-section of our readership, and has revealed both criticism and praise. As promised, we are sharing the results with you here...

The participants and their backgrounds

First, we wanted to find out more about the survey participants:

- what kind of organisation did survey participants work for?
- how did they define their role in development? and;
- what area(s) of development did they work in?

Nearly half our survey respondents work for non-governmental organisations. Most participants are development

¹The participants represented just under 7% of people invited to participate.

Figure 1: What sort of organisation do you work for?

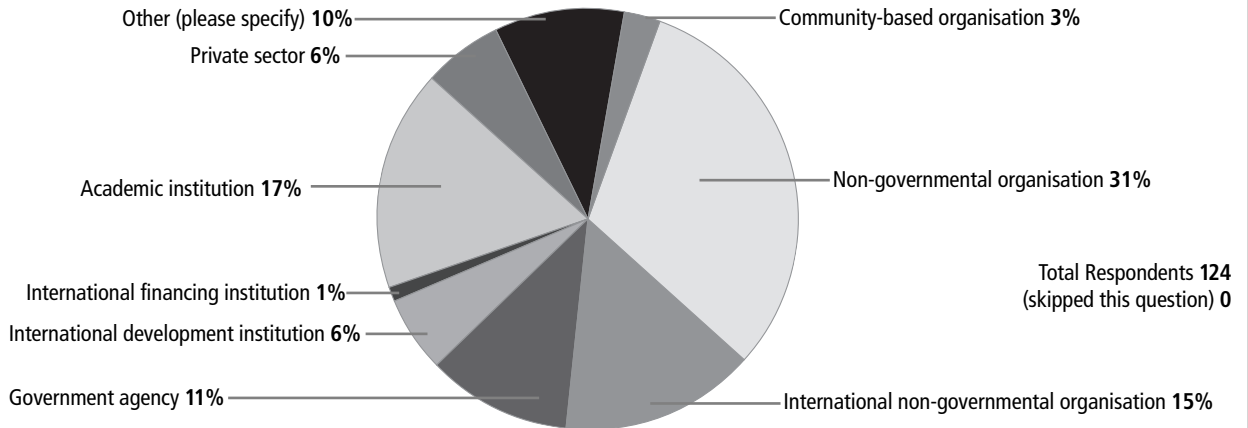


Figure 2: How would you define your role in development?

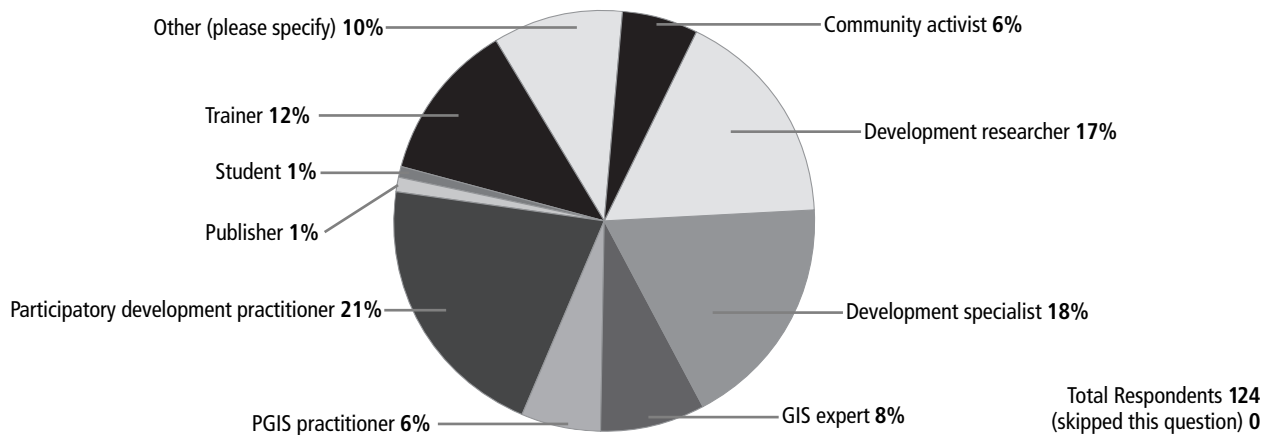
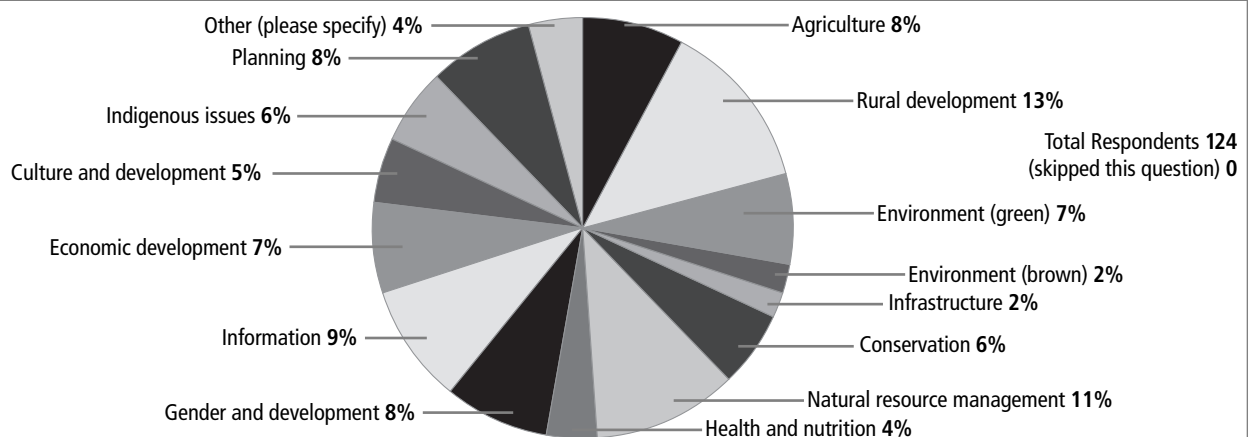


Figure 3: What area(s) of development do you work in?



practitioners, with 38.7% working as participatory development practitioners. After this, the next highest results were for the development researcher and development specialist categories. For the full results, see Figures 1, 2 and 3.

However, we had much lower results for the other organisation categories. The results show that we need to reach more community-based organisations, activists, and students. On the other hand, we also need to do more to reach government agencies and international development and financial institutions.

This could reflect on a number of issues. For example, a lack of online participation may be because, for many of our readers, online access is still an issue. It could also be because English is a less accessible language for community groups in the South. And we also need to make sure the series is more widely known about.

We are however making efforts to address these issues. This includes our forthcoming multi-lingual CD-ROM version of the special issue. In addition, we are hoping to put the whole issue online in the future. And we are looking at promoting both the series and the special issue more widely to higher education institutions.

We then asked in what areas of development our survey participants worked. The highest proportion work in rural development, closely followed by natural resource management. But as Figure 3 shows, our survey participants also work in a wide variety of development fields, from indigenous issues, to health and nutrition, and gender issues.

Your experiences of using PGIS

These answers tell us where people work and what they do.

But what previous experience did our survey participants have in practicing PGIS (see Figure 4)? Only 10% described themselves as experienced PGIS practitioners. Half (50%) indicated some experience of participatory mapping. And nearly a quarter of our participants described themselves as new to PGIS practice.

Language and content

The language and content section was presented as a table of statements. We asked participants whether they agreed with the statements made. The first three statements were about what positive impacts reading the special issue has had on survey participants. The next three were more specifically about language and content (see Table 1).

We know that the technical content and specialist terms used in PGIS can sometimes be hard for beginners to follow! This is especially true for readers for whom English is not their first language. So as editors, we worked very closely with the guest editors and the authors to try to make our articles easy for our readers to understand. We asked our survey participants whether:

- the articles were easy to understand; and if
- the articles clearly explained the processes and approaches used with the right amount of specialist/technical language and detail.

The results were positive (see Table 1). The highest-ranking result for each question was 'I agree' followed next by 'I strongly agree'. However, some participants did disagree with our statements. These results tell us that we may need to work harder to make our language and content easier to understand. This is particularly true if we want to reach a

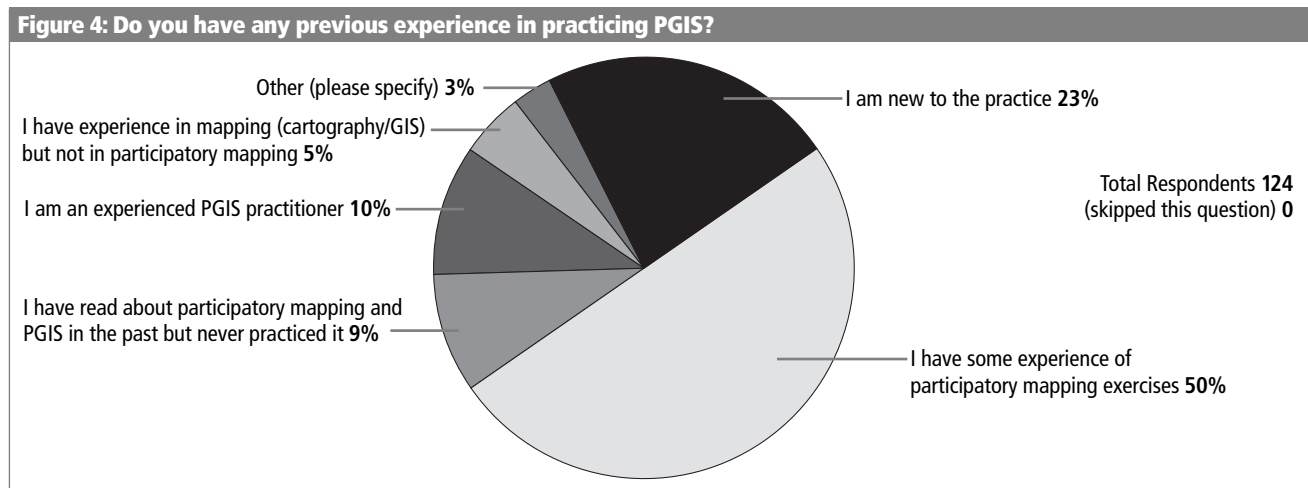


Table 1: Language and content

5. With respect to this special issue, please comment the following:						
	I agree strongly	I agree	I disagree	I strongly disagree	I do not know	Response Total
Reading this special issue provided me with new knowledge useful for carrying out my job more effectively	29% (32)	59% (65)	4% (4)	0% (0)	8% (9)	110
Reading this special issue provided me with new contacts and links	28% (30)	59% (64)	6% (6)	1% (1)	7% (8)	109
Reading this special issue has expanded my thinking about the topic	46% (50)	49% (53)	1% (1)	0% (0)	5% (5)	109
The articles were easy to understand	35% (38)	53% (58)	6% (7)	0% (0)	6% (6)	109
The articles clearly explained the processes and approaches used with the right amount of specialist/technical language and detail	28% (31)	59% (64)	6% (7)	0% (0)	6% (7)	109
The articles gave sufficient space to critical reflections and ideas for ways forward	23% (25)	63% (69)	6% (7)	1% (1)	6% (7)	109
Total Respondents						110
(skipped this question)						14

Box 1: What participants thought of the language and content: learning from feedback

The following is a selection of comments from our participants:

The language used is too technical and difficult to understand taking my background not in research but in livestock production and animal health into consideration.

The length is too long for some articles.

The simplicity lies in the practical and illustrative works of the PLA issue.

Very good idea and very well thought out and presented. If only more workshop reports were presented in such a user-friendly manner.

I appreciate the practical format of this issue. The glossary and introduction, the case studies and conclusion were a great tool for my research.

Exemplary issue. A great contribution to the field. The way it was organised and edited was excellent.

This is one of the best special issues of PLA. It is a reader friendly document, especially for community workers.

Excellent, very useful for academics and practitioners.

wider range of readers. Some additional comments from the survey are in Box 1.

Critical reflections and ideas for ways forward

Our aim is to help widen people's thinking around new topics, by sharing learning from practice. We asked participants whether they agreed with the following statements:

- reading this special issue provided me with new knowledge useful for carrying out my job more effectively;
- reading this special issue provided me with new contacts and links;
- reading this special issue has expanded my thinking about the topic; and
- the articles gave sufficient space to critical reflections and ideas for ways forward.

Encouragingly, most of you agreed with these statements. Very few of you disagreed with them (see Table 1). Twice as many people only 'agreed' with the statements as 'strongly agreed' with them. Perhaps the articles could have been of better quality, containing more useful information. However, the results from these questions show that the special issue generally – and overall – has had a positive impact. For example, when asked whether they agreed with the statement 'Reading this special issue has expanded my thinking about the topic', 109 participants responded – 95% of participants agreed with the statement, and only one person (1%) disagreed.

Table 2: Future directions

9. After reading this special issue, in which areas of work do you see yourself putting your acquired knowledge and contacts into practice?							
	Certainly	Likely	Possibly	Unlikely	No	I do not know	Response Total
Supporting collaborative planning and management of terrestrial, coastal and marine natural resources	37% (25)	20% (19)	23% (21)	15% (14)	6% (8)	9% (8)	93
Asserting ancestral land and resource rights and entitlements	34% (23)	22% (21)	18% (17)	15% (14)	11% (10)	10% (9)	94
Networking and communication	44% (41)	23% (21)	24% (22)	2% (2)	4% (4)	3% (3)	93
Conducting collaborative research	29% (27)	30% (28)	28% (26)	9% (8)	1% (1)	3% (3)	93
Managing and ameliorating conflicts amongst and between local community groups, and between communities and higher-level authorities or economic forces	30% (28)	27% (25)	26% (24)	7% (7)	4% (4)	6% (6)	94
Supporting cultural heritage preservation and identity building among indigenous peoples and rural communities	30% (28)	20% (19)	20% (19)	13% (12)	9% (8)	8% (7)	93
Risk management	18% (17)	32% (30)	24% (23)	10% (9)	9% (8)	7% (7)	94
Supporting collaborative planning and management of social services (education, water, sanitation, health, communication, transport, etc.) and neighbourhood development	52% (48)	17% (16)	23% (21)	3% (3)	2% (2)	3% (3)	93
Total Respondents							94
(skipped this question)							30

Two comments were:

This topic is new for our country and on the basis of this information we were able to conduct participatory mapping activities. And we believe that it was mapping for positive change.

I think it is a good starting point for a PGIS community. But more has to be done within the regional networks to take this work forward.

In relation to the geographical spread of articles, one respondent also said:

This was a very informative and relevant issue. Kudos to the PLA team. There were large number of articles from African countries but I feel it would have been good if there were articles also from Asian countries (like India) where lot is happening in participatory mapping and PGIS.

We do try to publish articles that are representative of as many regions as possible, but sometimes this is not always possible. Given the limited space, we had to make the decision to focus instead on articles that covered a wide range of tools, issues and theory and reflections on practice.

Putting PGIS into practice

We were interested to know what future PGIS projects our participants might get involved in – and whether PLA 54 would have an impact on that work. To explore this, we asked:

After reading this special issue, in which areas of work do you see yourself putting your acquired knowledge and contacts into practice?

We provided a list of different areas of development work and asked survey participants to indicate which areas they would find PLA 54 useful for in their future work (see Table 2).

Out of a total of 124 survey participants, 93 people responded to this section. For most categories, people ranked ‘certainly’ as their highest answer. For the area of development that was ranked highest overall, more than a third of the overall survey participants (48 people) said that they would ‘certainly’ put their newly acquired knowledge and contacts into practice in this specific area.

We added up the total responses where participants said they would ‘certainly’ put their acquired knowledge and contacts into practice. And it seems that potentially, PLA 54 could have a positive impact on as many as 237 PGIS-related projects!

Box 2: Other areas of work for putting acquired knowledge and contacts into practice

The following is a small selection of responses, listing other areas of work where participants are likely to use PGIS:

- Supporting women livestock groups in identifying resources for livestock rearing activities
- Development planning in post war/conflict regions
- Participatory animal disease mapping
- Participatory mapping for the disabled
- Researching endangered languages
- Transparent financial management of local (indigenous) development projects
- Community-based adaptation to extreme events such as storms, floods and droughts
- Identifying risk and hazardous environments for children

We are sure there are many examples where people are using PGIS in areas of development that other readers might not be familiar with.

Perhaps you have a story to share?

Remember, most participants **do not** consider themselves to be experienced PGIS practitioners, although half indicated some experience of participatory mapping. But these results indicate to us that many of our readers may already be involved in – or are planning to start – participatory mapping or PGIS projects in one of these development areas.

Fifty-six survey participants also listed other areas of work where they were likely to put their knowledge and contacts into practice. Again, the scope of answers demonstrates how widely PGIS can – and is – being applied. You can read a selection of these in Box 2.

Which theme articles would you recommend to others?

Overall, your responses show that you considered all the articles important enough to share with a wider audience. The three articles that ranked the highest were the overview, followed next by the article on community information systems and local knowledge, and then practical ethics for PGIS practitioners. Table 3 shows the proportion of survey participants who would recommend articles to others.

How many people will read your copy of this special issue?

We wanted to know who else might be reading the special issue. Ninety-four people responded to this question (see Figure 5). And based on their answers, we estimate that as many as 1,900 other readers could have access to those 94 copies of the special issue. Over 3,500 copies were distributed. So if these responses are indicative, that could amount to as many as 70,000 extra readers!

Some issues raised in the general comments

Our survey participants provided us with some very thought provoking additional reflections. Several of you also indicated that you would write a review about the special issue in your own newsletters or magazines. Some comments we would like to highlight here:

This is more than a special issue, it is working tool that can help in communication, planning, coordination and sustainable development.

This special issue [...] helps the reader and development practitioner to cite different examples and gives confidence to use

Figure 5: How many people will read your copy of this special issue? (94 responses)

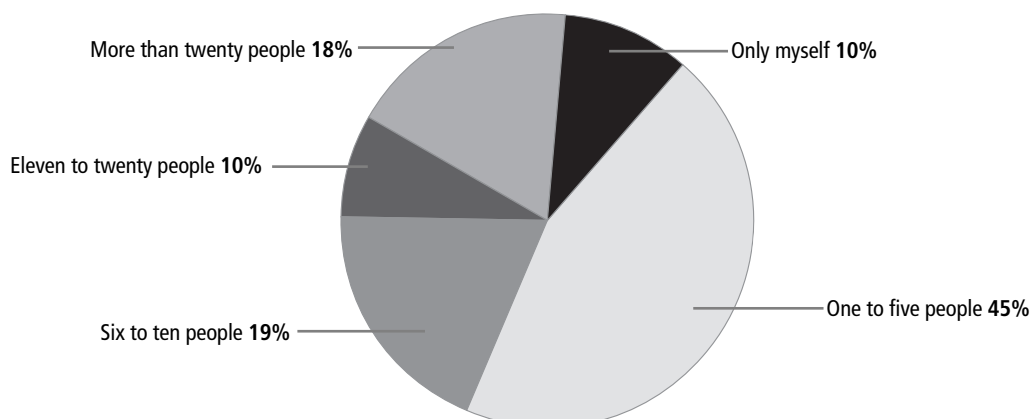


Table 3: Which theme articles would you recommend to others?

6. Which theme articles would you recommend to others?		Response Percent	Response Total
1. Overview: Mapping for Change – the emergence of a new practice		68.1%	64
2. Using Community Information Systems to express traditional knowledge embedded in the landscape		63.8%	60
3. Resource use, development planning, and safeguarding intangible cultural heritage: lessons from Fiji Islands		38.3%	36
4. Finding common ground in land use conflicts using PGIS: lessons from Ghana		35.1%	33
5. Is there life after tenure mapping?		21.3%	20
6. PGIS as a sustained (and sustainable?) practice: First Nation experiences in Treaty 8 BC, Canada		23.4%	22
7. A participatory approach to monitoring slum conditions: an example from Ethiopia		37.2%	35
8. Capacity development and PGIS for land demarcation: innovations from Nicaragua		29.8%	28
9. The power of maps: cartography with indigenous people in the Brazilian Amazon		28.7%	27
10. Land and natural resource mapping by San communities and NGOs: experiences from Namibia		35.1%	33
11. Participatory GIS and local knowledge enhancement for community carbon forestry planning: an example from Cameroon		38.3%	36
12. Mapping projects: identifying obstacles, finding solutions		40.4%	38
13. Mapping power: ironic effects of spatial information technology		31.9%	30
14. Practical ethics for PGIS practitioners, facilitators, technology intermediaries, and researchers		51.1%	48
15. Precision for whom? Mapping ambiguity and certainty in (Participatory) GIS		42.6%	40
Total Respondents			94
(skipped this question)			30

or adapt in the local context. But [...] there will be other social factors influencing the success or failure of the tools and procedures. The context is the most important factor.

In the article on practical ethics for PGIS practitioners, the authors and guest editors examined some potential dangers of mapping, in particular concerning the ‘overarching issues about empowerment, ownership and potential exploitation’ (Rambaldi et al, 2006a). One of our respondents provided us with an additional and critical reflection on ethics:

I was looking for perspectives on the ethical use of GIS in

public health mapping which has troubled me deeply in my work, but the journal appeared to assume that public health mapping using GIS had no ethical grey areas (there were several transferable principles but not a comprehensive review). Perhaps a future single article on the subject could usefully add to the PGIS literature... I have seen practitioners discussing covert logging of GPS coordinates whilst visiting the homes of people with a history of leprosy, again without telling them what they are doing, all in the name of ‘public health’ which label appears to legitimise or normalise what such practitioners do (as might arguably be implied by PLA 54).

Participants at a workshop session during the Mapping for Change conference, Nairobi 2005



Photo: Johan Minnie

Jon Corbett presenting Community Information Systems to participants at the Mapping for Change conference, Nairobi 2005



Photo: Jeroen Verplank

To respond to this comment, yes – we would be interested in publishing a single article on practical ethics for public health mapping! However, we feel it is important to emphasise that we felt that this was an example of an extractive, unethical practice where surveyors – far from using a participatory approach – gather sensitive data without prior informed consent from those concerned. It is not an example of what is considered to be **PGIS** practice. To read about an example of what may be considered as good PGIS practice in public health, please visit: www.red-road.org/map/index.html.²

One other participant also highlighted that practitioners should be aware of the need to monitor and evaluate PGIS work:

Mostly, once a project has ended, there is no follow-up to see how the knowledge is helping the community. I would suggest that a follow-up team be created to assist the community put the knowledge to meaningful use. Remember it [PGIS] uses new technologies which we need to help many people put into practice.

This makes two important points:

- the need to embed PGIS components into long-lasting interventions to ensure that new realities emerging from the process are addressed; and
- the need to build capacity among technology intermediaries working with communities and helping these in practising PGIS.

² The website of the Red Road HIV/AIDS Network (RRHAN) in British Columbia, Canada. The purpose of the Network is to:

- reduce or prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS;
- improve the health and wellness of Aboriginal people living with HIV/AIDS; and
- increase awareness about HIV/AIDS and establish a network which supports the development and delivery of culturally appropriate, innovative, coordinated, accessible, inclusive and accountable HIV/AIDS programmes and services.

Both these points are discussed in detail in several of the articles in *PLA 54*. In relation to both the above comments, we do want to stress two things:

- **PGIS is neither a technology, nor a tool. PGIS is a *practice*** that combines participatory learning and action approaches with geographic information technologies; and
- **Using GIS in development is not the same as practicing PGIS.**

Finally, we felt this next comment reinforced this message, which is also one of the main aims of this special issue:

This issue is special indeed in that it highlights the missing link between GIS/mapping and participatory process. For a long time, GIS specialists did not use participatory processes in their work, while those who were involved with community/participatory mapping did not see the value of GIS in their work. This issue brings on board the best of two worlds.

Mapping for Change: one-year post conference impact assessment survey results

In September 2006, CTA administered a one-year post-conference impact assessment survey among those who attended the Mapping for Change event. This provided another avenue for feedback for *PLA*. The response rate to CTA's post conference impact assessment survey has been close to 50%, testifying a lot of commitment from those who attended the conference. In the survey, participants were asked to comment on CTA-supported, PGIS-related initiatives, which included *PLA 54*:

The PLA 54 is such a useful resource and I have been able to refer many people to it.

PLA 54 was a great forum for sharing the experiences of those who spoke at the event.

PLA 54 was self explanatory and quite inspiring. A person who did not attend the conference would find it quite useful.

Mapping for change and PLA 54 are great for getting PGIS more into the public sphere! This has helped greatly to expose new practitioners to the opportunities (and challenges) of PGIS and has stimulated some donors to take PGIS more seriously as a tool for participatory development practice.

Getting the issue out there....

There were a few comments related to access and distribution:

This issue is not available on Internet – that limits access.

Make it available on line ASAP for downloading, in order to ease the sharing of its contents.

I hope it is widely read by those who would find it useful. There is a question about promoting its distribution, and whether this can be very proactive.

You can already read some of the key articles online, but not the whole issue. We're working on it! However, the new multi-lingual, multi-media CD-ROM version will be sent out to all subscribers to the series in 2007.

Conclusions?

Our participants have been generous enough to share their feedback and comments with us. As always, there is room for improvement. But the results show that our aim of sharing learning about PGIS practice should become a positive influence on the future work of other participatory development practitioners.

As PGIS practice becomes more widespread, there will constantly be new lessons learnt, and new experiences to share. So we'd like to finish on this note. At the end of their article, Giacomo Rambaldi *et al* (2006b) said,

'Conclusions' are never 'real conclusions' – and this is the beauty of innovation.

We hope that one day there will be a new special issue of *Participatory Learning and Action* on mapping practice, technologies and communications. And we hope that it will provide a platform for sharing new experiences and innovations.

CONTACT DETAILS

Holly Ashley
Co-editor, *Participatory Learning and Action*
Sustainable Agriculture, Biodiversity and
Livelihoods Programme
IIED
3 Endsleigh Street
London WC1H 0DD
Email: holly.ashley@iied.org

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NOTES

The full results can be read online here: www.surveymonkey.com/DisplaySummary.asp?SID=2196590&U=219659015421

Tips for trainers

Participatory quota setting

The Tips for Trainers for this issue are taken from a publication called *District Quota Setting Toolbox*, part of the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Wildlife Management Series. The toolbox was developed under WWF's Support to CAMPFIRE (SupCamp) project in Zimbabwe (see overview and many articles in this issue).¹ It describes a set of activities for participatory quota setting at the district level, providing detailed instructions on the methods and activities that can be used by a facilitator at a district-level quota setting workshop.



quota setting provides the rationale for their other wildlife management activities such as ground counts and the enforcement of local-level rules and regulations. But wildlife management in the communal lands often involves more stakeholders than just the 'producer community'. Both the process of quota setting – and the final quota – are improved if all the major stakeholders are participants in the workshops.

Arrangement of the quota setting toolbox

The toolbox is divided into sections, covering:

- key steps upon which participatory quota setting depends;
- planning and organisation of a typical district quota setting workshop;
- activities which can be used for a quota setting workshop; and
- information and checklists.

These extracts are taken from the quota setting workshop activities section, as follows:

- Topic one: Counting animals – drawing up a resource abundance matrix (pp.21-23)
- Topic two: Use of the quota – examining the use of the quota (pp.28-29)
- Topic three: Monitoring and evaluation – measuring and calculating trophy size (pp.30-33).

Topic one: Drawing up a resource abundance matrix

Time required: 30 minutes

The purpose of this activity is to:

- allow participants to visualise their understanding of changes in their environment; and
- allow participants to discuss the reasons for these changes.

Resources required:

- flip chart/brown paper;
- counters such as beans, seeds or stones; and
- marker pens.

Introduction

A resource abundance matrix is a visual representation of the changes in natural resources over time. The horizontal or x-axis usually represents time and the vertical or y-axis represents the number or status of the resource.

It can be helpful in analysing the current status of species (including domestic livestock, human populations and other resources) within a certain area. The matrix can be used at the district, ward or village level. This activity is optional and can be used:

- when the number of participants is large; and
- as 're-enforcement' if there is an indication that participants are experiencing difficulties in interpreting trends on graphs.

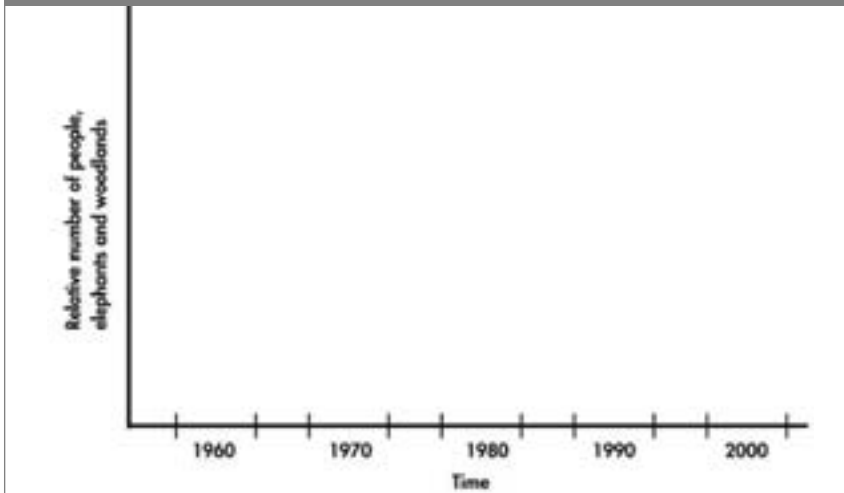
Advantages

The activity will:

- present a clear picture of how the

¹ Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources

Figure 1: A sample resource abundance matrix



participants perceive the numbers of key species to be changing; and

- provide a very useful forum for discussing the reasons for the observed changes.

Disadvantages

- The activity is based on peoples' perception rather than systematically collected data.
- It is often difficult to get consistency between the estimates for different years.

Facilitator's hint

It is important to ensure that the participants are using a constant and well-defined area for each estimate.

Training method

Step one: Drawing the matrix

Decide on which resources are going to be represented in the matrix. Draw the matrix on brown paper or on the ground (Figure 1). Agree with the participants on how far back they would like to show change in the status of these resources. On the horizontal axis, write the years, for example

1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, present (e.g. 2006) and the future (e.g. 2010).

Step two: completing the matrix

Provide counters such as beans, seeds or stones with which to visualise the status and changes of the chosen

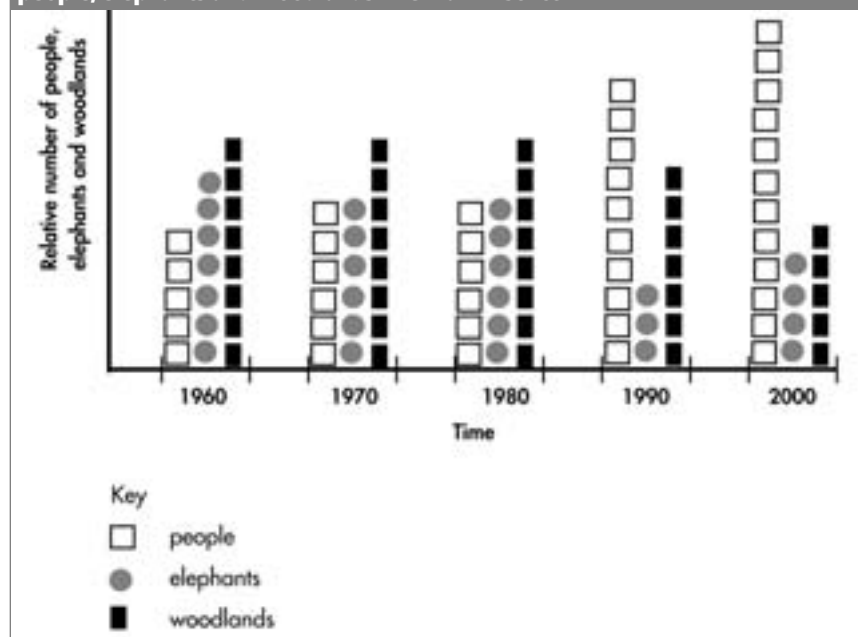
species or resources over time. The logic of the matrix is that fewer counters mean lower numbers or availability of the resource. Ask participants to use a scale of 0-20 beans to represent the availability or status of the resource for each time period, with 20 as the maximum. Each time period should be completed before moving onto the next time period.

Facilitator's hint

Remind participants to be consistent when deciding on the number of counters. For example: 20 beans are used to represent the number of animals which were believed to have been present in 1970 and 10 represent the number present in 1980. This means that there are only half the number of animals in 1980 compared with 1970.

When the matrix has been completed, it can be recorded on flipchart paper, or the number of

Figure 2: A sample resource abundance matrix showing the relative numbers of people, elephants and woodlands in Chilazi District



beans can be counted in each cell and the total written in. Record the names of the participants and the date on the matrix for reference purposes (see Figure 2).

Summary

An important part of the activity is the discussion of the changes and trends represented by the matrices. For example, participants may find it interesting to draw up a matrix showing the trends in human and domestic animals in their area and to compare this with the matrix for wildlife populations. This comparison often livens up the discussion as it shows the relationship between human population increase and the decrease in wildlife numbers due to settlement and the loss of wildlife habitat. Conversely the adoption of CAMPFIRE might have resulted in an increase in certain wildlife species.

Topic two: Examining the use of the quota

Time required: 40-50 minutes

The purpose of this activity is to:

- introduce participants to the quota;
- show how the quota has been allocated between sport hunting, problem animal control (PAC) and cropping (if appropriate);
- show the success rate of the safari operator; and
- show changes in the use of the quota which have occurred over time.

Resources required:

- completed hunt return forms for the previous four years;
- quotas from the previous four years;
- a flip chart;
- marker pens.

Introduction

This activity introduces quotas to the

participants. It does not need detailed information and provides important trend information for the triangulation activity. If the safari operator is present he can give first-hand explanations to questions that arise.

Advantages

- It provides an opportunity to discuss the quota and how it is being used.
- It illustrates the importance of keeping accurate up-to-date records.

Disadvantage

- It may become boring if the data used is not restricted to key species and a few years.

Training method

Step one: the quota and its allocation for one year

Participants draw-up and complete the table below on a flip chart (Table 1). They will use the quota for the current year. The first step is important for stimulating discussion about the quota. The facilitator of the activity should refer to the *Quota*

Setting Manual (also published in the WWF Wildlife Management Series) for discussion about the quota, why it is necessary and how it has been set.

Step two: the use of the quota

The next step is to compare the number of animals used with the quota and its allocations. For this step the hunt return forms or a hunting summary for the appropriate year are required. The same chart can be used and the figure for the number of animals used should be inserted before the quota and separated by an oblique line (see Table 2).

Facilitator's hint

If there are four working groups and four years of data available, then each group can do one year. This will give four years' historical data on the use of the quota. If there is time it might be useful to plot graphs of the use of key species (for example elephant, buffalo) over the four years.

Step three: discussion and analysis of the use of the quota

It is very important that some discussion is developed around this activity. Participants must question:

Table 1: The total quota and its allocation between different uses

Species	Total quota	Sport hunting	PAC	Cropping
Elephant	12	9	2	1
Buffalo	18	15	0	3
Leopard	4	4	0	0
Impala	22	21	0	1
Sable	3	3	0	0

Table 2: The total quota, its use and allocation

Species	Total quota	Sport hunting	PAC	Cropping
Elephant	12/12	7/9	2/2	1/1
Buffalo	18/18	15/15	0	3/3
Leopard	3/4	3/4	0	0
Impala	16/22	15/21	0	1/1
Sable	1/3	1/3	0	0

- why were there changes in the quota (e.g. 'why has the number of sable on quota declined?');
- why were there changes in the way the quota was allocated (e.g. 'why has an elephant been allocated to the cropping quota rather than the sport hunting quota?'); and
- what are the implications for income (e.g. 'why has the total value of the quota declined over four years?').

Summary

At the end of this activity the participants should understand:

- how the previous quotas issued by the Department for National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWLM) have been used by the safari operator and the district;
- why the quotas have been used in these ways; and
- how the number and species on the quota affects the income earned by the safari operator, the district and the community.

Topic three: Monitoring and evaluation: measuring and calculating trophy size

Time required: 30-45 minutes

The purpose of this activity is to:

- demonstrate how to measure sport-hunted trophies and the importance of doing this for quota setting;
- enable participants to calculate and analyse changes in trophy quality for key species over time; and
- prepare graphs for triangulation of data for setting the quota.²

Resources required:

- horns for kudu, buffalo and one other horned antelope;
- the skin or skull of a leopard or lion;
- a pair of elephant tusks (where possible);
- steel tape, a scale, and steel cable (for measuring horns such as kudu);
- set of wooden boards or inside and outside callipers;
- copy of Rowland Ward measurement instructions (see Figure 3);
- pencil, marker pens, wooden metre ruler, hand calculator;
- notebook and graph paper or flip chart paper with a suitable axis and scale prepared by yourself;
- hunt return measurements for the species in the area being reviewed over three to five years (compiled from the hunt return forms);

² See p.34 of the manual on how to triangulate data for setting the quota.

- calculated annual average trophy quality by species;
- ideally a safari operator or professional hunter should be involved in this activity to provide advice.

Introduction

This is often a favourite activity for participants at a quota setting workshop. It allows them to handle and examine trophies as well as learn about sport hunting. It should be done at every workshop.

Advantages

It provides practice in measuring trophy quality, determining average trophy sizes and examining trend data and the implication for the quota. It allows participants to discuss the 'mystique' of trophy hunting with a professional hunter and measure trophies.

Disadvantages

The activity requires that at least some members of each group are numerate and understand how to calculate simple averages.

Facilitator's hint

This can be a difficult exercise to facili-

Figure 3: The difference between the two trophy measurement recording systems using waterbuck as an example

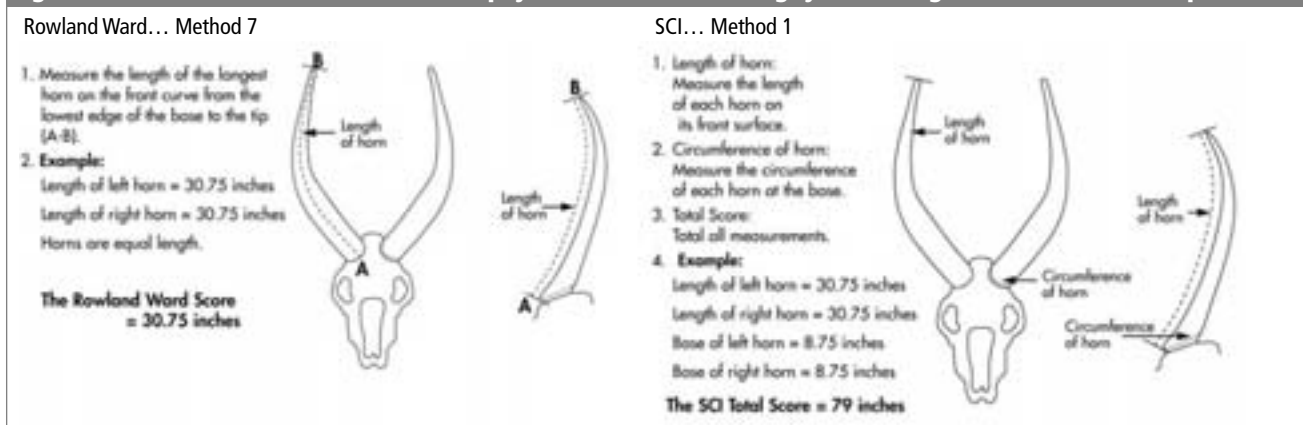


Table 3: The presentation of measurements and averages calculated from sample trophies

Trophy number	Impala	Sable	Buffalo
1	22	41	38
2	23	39	47
3	19	40	42
4	15	43	41
5	17	38	42
Average	19.2	40.2	40

tate in a large workshop. The facilitator should use assistants from within the workshop to help. A good person to use is the safari operator and/or the professional hunter.

Training method

Background

This activity must begin with a discussion of the objectives of sport hunting; why people hunt, what they want to hunt and the importance of trophy quality (see *Quota Setting Manual*). The facilitator should then introduce the participants to trophy measurement techniques as given in Figure 3 (Section Five, Appendix Two of the toolbox). This should include a demonstration.

Step one – comparing individual trophy measurements

Number three to five trophies of the selected species (impala, sable, buffalo). Arrange the trophies by species on separate tables. Divide the participants into small groups. Each group should select one trophy, which is then measured by all the members of that group. Participants should compare their measurements and discuss how and why the differences might have arisen. The correct method should be agreed on and understood. The measurements can be recorded in a table, if this will assist the discussion.

Step two – measuring a range of trophies

The next step is for the group to measure and record all the trophies for a given species and calculate the average trophy quality for the sample. These results should be summarised as in the table above (Table 3).

Throughout the activity the facilitator should emphasise:

- why trophy quality is a good index of the status of the population of trophy animals;
- the importance of standardising the methods of measurement;
- the importance of accurate measurements;
- who should be making these measurements; and
- who should be keeping a record of the measurements.

Table 5: Average Trophy Quality for Impala Pamberi District 1993-1997

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Impala	21 inches	20 inches	19 inches	22 inches	20.5 inches
5 year average 20.5 inches					

Figure 4: Impala Trophy Quality Trends Pamberi District 1993-1997

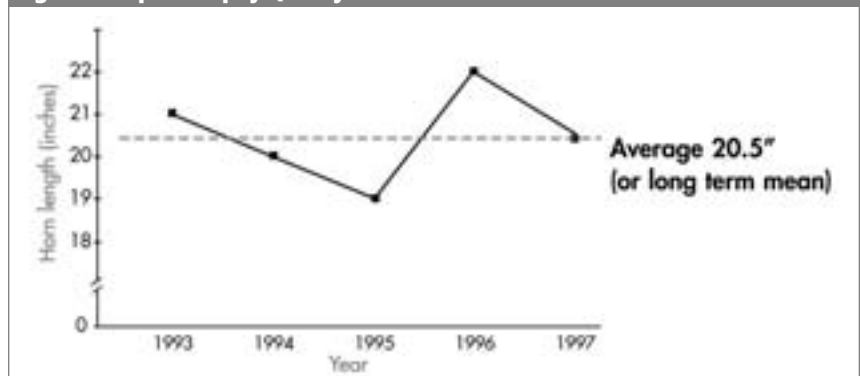


Table 4: 1997 Pamberi District impala trophy quality

22 inches
20 inches
19 inches
23 inches
21 inches
18 inches
Total 123 inches
Average 20.5 inches

Step three – calculating mean trophy quality values

Provide each group with a set of actual data that has been previously compiled for each species using the information from the hunt return forms. Each group should then calculate the average trophy size by year for the given species. The time series should be as long as possible.

Facilitator's hint

You should have previously calculated these average trophy sizes so that you can easily spot mistakes made by the participants (see Table 4).

Step four – graph trends in trophy quality

Assist each group to graph the average trophy quality by year. It should be either a bar or line graph. The years should be on the horizontal axis and the average trophy size on the vertical axis (see Table 5 and Figure 4).

Facilitator's hints

Remember the importance of scale when assisting the participants to produce their graphs. All graphs should be clearly labeled. To make the activity easier and to save time, the facilitator can prepare blank graphs for the participants to plot their results on.

When finished, each group should discuss their graph amongst

themselves. They should focus on the analysis of the information by asking the question: what is this graph telling us about the status of this population?

At the conclusion of the activity, stress that accurate measurements and reliable monitoring of trophy quality are essential to quota setting. With appropriate trophy monitoring and quota setting systems in place, Zimbabwe and CAMPFIRE districts are more likely to maintain an attractive and competitive sport-hunting industry.

Summary

By the end of this activity, participants should be able to:

- measure and monitor trophy quality and understand its importance as a monitoring tool;

- calculate the average trophy quality for at least one key species over a period of five years based on actual records from the area; and
- plot the changes in trophy quality on a graph which later will be used for triangulating data for setting the quota.

Source *District Quota Setting Toolbox* (2000), published by World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Southern African Regional Programme Office (SARPO), Zimbabwe Trust and Safari Club International in the WWF Wildlife Management series.

The full toolkit, together with other publications in the WWF Wildlife Management series (including the *Quota Setting Manual* referred to in the text), can be downloaded from: www.policy-powertools.org/related/campfire.html

in touch



Welcome to the In Touch section of *Participatory Learning and Action*. Through these pages we hope to create a more participatory resource for the *Participatory Learning and Action* audience, to put you, as a reader, in touch with other readers. We want this section to be a key source of up-to-date information on training, publications, and networks. Your help is vital in keeping us all in touch about:

- **Networks.** Do you have links with recognised local, national or international networks for practitioners of participatory learning? If so, what does this network provide – training? newsletters? resource material/library? a forum for sharing experiences? Please tell us about the network and provide contact details for other readers.
- **Training.** Do you know of any forthcoming training events or courses in participatory

methodologies? Are you a trainer yourself? Are you aware of any key training materials that you would like to share with other trainers?

- **Publications.** Do you know of any key publications on participatory methodologies and their use? Have you (or has your organisation) produced any books, reports, or videos that you would like other readers to know about?
- **Electronic information.** Do you know of any electronic conferences or pages on the Internet which exchange or provide information on participatory methodologies?
- **Other information.** Perhaps you have ideas about other types of information that would be useful for this section. If so, please let us know.

Please send your responses to:
Participatory Learning and Action,
IIED, 3 Endsleigh Street, London
WC1H 0DD, UK.
Fax: + 44 20 7388 2826;
Email: pla.notes@iied.org

Book reviews



Relationships for Aid

● Edited by
Rosalind Eyben
Earthscan, 2006
ISBN: 1-84407-280-0

We urgently need to move beyond mud-slinging at development agencies for not being downwardly accountable in how they spend their money and look at ways of improving practice. Though there is an impressive Internet resource on a similar topic at www.ngopractice.org, *Relationships for Aid* is the first book I've seen that attempts to unpick contradictions and challenges involved in building 'the quality of relationships that can make aid succeed or fail'. The product of a collaboration between four of the most powerful institutions in the aid business, this edited volume is refreshing. Rather than being yet another compendium of why a particular project succeeded or failed, or a catalogue of principles to be followed by practitioners, it tries to reveal the power relationships between, and sometimes within, two government aid agencies – the Department for International Development (DFID), UK and the Swedish International Development Agency (Sida), a private development institute (Institute for Development Studies – IDS) and the UK's second largest development NGO (ActionAid).

As a former consultant to ActionAid who has observed some of the agency's attempts to make aid accountable at first hand, I found David, Mancini and Guijt's chapter

particularly fascinating. Like anyone describing a powerful, yet flawed organisation, the authors have the choice of using diplomacy or direct criticism about its shortcomings. Understandably they opt for the less confrontational approach. However, this does enable them to make important points that those within development NGOs will hopefully choose to take on board rather than becoming defensive.

Readers will notice a vivid contrast in organisational cultures between Sida and DFID. While Sida's staff allow themselves to be led into what the authors describe as a 'daring, cheeky and unique' encounter with different ideas about power and participation in an underground sports hall, the book's editor reveals that she dared not ask her DFID employers for permission to attend a workshop a few years earlier because 'power' was in the subtitle. My only disappointment was that the fascinating analysis of ActionAid, Sida and DFID did not seem to be matched by reflexivity from those of the book's contributors at IDS about how the book's themes related to their own organisation.

Overall, the book is a fascinating read and an important contribution to understanding why, to take an example the authors use, the number of rock stars and politicians strutting the stage of G8 meetings or Live 8 concerts matters far less than the ability of bureaucrats to listen to those with less power than themselves. If the four institutions studied in the book have not already invited its authors to run workshops exploring the implications, I hope they soon will.

Tom Wakeford, Newcastle University and Visiting Fellow, IIED

■ Available from Earthscan, 8-12 Camden High Street, London NW1 0JH, UK.
Email: earthinfo@earthscan.co.uk Website: www.earthscan.co.uk



Insights into Participatory Video: A Handbook for the Field

● Nick and Chris Lunch
Insight, 2006
ISBN: 0-9552456-0-5

Participatory Video (PV) can be a highly effective tool to engage and mobilise marginalised people and help them implement their own forms of sustainable development based on local needs. Unlike conventional filmmaking the subjects make their own film in which they can shape issues according to their own sense of what is important and decide on how to present them.

This handbook is a practical guide to setting up and running PV projects worldwide. Drawing on their experience of using PV for almost two decades in different parts of the world, the authors share case studies and useful anecdotes, as well as responses to their work from diverse sources.

This book is organised in five parts and appendices. Parts one and two discuss the nuts and bolts of PV – what it is, the history of PV, the rationale behind using it, how to set up and run a project from the start, games and activities that can be used, and a brief guide to editing footage. Part three offers insights for the facilitator of PV into vital elements of the process and the participatory ethos. Technical tips and a list of equipment requirements are given in part four.

Part five shares the authors' experiments of applying PV with a diverse range of goals. The appendices present personal accounts of PV which illustrate how it works on the ground. For those who want to find out more about PV, the reference section provides links to books, websites and articles.

Illustrations, cartoons and photographs are used throughout the book to highlight the key messages. A selection of participatory videos and a training film are included on the accompanying CD-ROM.

Girija Godbole, Commonwealth Professional Fellow, IIED

■ Available from: Insight UK Office 3 Maidcroft Road, Oxford, OX4 3EN UK
Tel: +44 (0) 7766 178533, Email: nlunch@insightshare.org
Insight French Office Les Illes, 11220 Montlaur France
Tel: +33 (0) 468 249627
Email: clunch@insightshare.org

ICT Update

● CTA

ICT Update is a bimonthly printed bulletin and web magazine focusing on the use of information and communication technologies in agriculture in developing countries.

Digital video empowers communities in the South



It is published in English and French, by CTA (Technical Centre for Agricultural and Rural Cooperation) in Wageningen in the Netherlands. Each issue focuses on a specific theme.

This theme of the November issue (no 54) is **Film-making farmers** and it looks at the uses of digital video – participatory and otherwise – in agriculture and rural development. The lead article describes how farmers and fishers in the Niger Delta are using an innovative combination of participatory video, mobile-to-web messaging and online video sharing to take on the oil companies that are polluting their lands and waters. There is also an article on a project in Ghana where cocoa growers are producing videos that teach improved cocoa cultivation principles to their fellow farmers. While HIV/Aids continues to imperil the agricultural workforce across Africa, an Aids support group in Malawi is using participatory video to boost their self-esteem and to encourage others to get themselves tested. The Question & Answer section includes an interview with Jamaica-based participatory video expert Maria Protz on the role of gender in participatory video. The issue also includes an equipment inventory and example budget for any readers who want to start up their own participatory video project.

■ Available to download at <http://ictupdate.cta.int>

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Subscribe to CTA's electronic newsletters at www.cta.int/about/newsletter.htm



CAMPFIRE and payments for environmental services. Markets for Environmental Services Series no. 9

● Peter G.H. Frost and Ivan Bond

IIED, 2006
ISBN 978-1-84369-627-8 (formerly 1-84369-627-4)

There has been increasing support in recent years for the use of payments for environmental services (PES) as a means to advance the goals of both poverty reduction and conservation. Payments for environmental services are compensation mechanisms that reward people for managing ecosystems and providing environmental services, and are based on the premise that positive incentives can lead to changes in land-use practices. The Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) is a longstanding initiative that shares many of the features of PES. CAMPFIRE began in the late 1980s in Zimbabwe and has been widely emulated in southern and eastern Africa. Under this programme, communities using land under communal tenure have been granted authority to market the wildlife in their area to safari operators. The revenue and other benefits received on behalf of the communities is paid out to them according to an agreed formula. This paper describes the evolution of the CAMPFIRE programme and explores some of the lessons learnt about implementation, performance, outcomes and possible adaptations

that may help in the development of PES programmes.

■ Available from Earthprint Ltd, PO Box 119, Stevenage, Hertfordshire, SG1 4TP, UK Tel: +44 1438 748111, Fax: +44 1438 748844
Email: customerservices@earthprint.com
Website: www.earthprint.com
Order No. 15503IIED. Price USD 18.00 or downloadable from www.iied.org/pubs/pdf/full/15503IIED.pdf



Local action, global aspirations: the role of community conservation in achieving international goals for environment and development

● Dilys Roe, Brian Jones, Ivan Bond and Seema Bhatt
IIED, 2006

ISBN 978-1-84369-634-6
(formerly 1-84369-634-7)

The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment emphasises the inter-relationship between ecosystem health and human well-being. Most ecosystems are severely degraded and the services that they provide to society are diminishing. As a result, important targets for biodiversity and development are unlikely to be met. Community conservation processes are often isolated and marginalised from mainstream conservation efforts. This review documents how community conservation can contribute to human well-being and the preservation of natural resources in southern Africa. Additional examples and experience are drawn from India, South East Asia and Central America. The report concludes with eight recommendations to further advance community conservation processes.

■ Available from Earthprint Ltd, PO Box 119,

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 downloadable from www.iied.org/pubs/pdf/full/13534IIED.pdf



People & Participation: how to put citizens at the heart of decision making

● Involve, 2005

Although participation has become an essential ingredient in public policy decision making and delivery, the potential and pitfalls of participation in practice are not widely understood. This book is a thoughtful exploration of the issues facing participatory practice in the UK today, outlining in particular the challenges and opportunities of introducing participatory approaches into institutions and organisations. It aims to:

- increase the effectiveness of practice through greater understanding of the processes and methods involved;
- contribute to institutional change by helping practitioners build their capacity; and
- increase understanding of the links between 'neutral' participatory processes and the shifts of power and resources which lead to significant political change.

The book provides much needed practical detail, drawing on the experiences of practitioners working to involve the public in issues ranging from local planning to nanotechnology. It shows that greater public involvement can greatly help in

addressing some of our most pressing problems, and countering the risks of distrust and alienation. But it also warns that too much participation today is superficial, an exercise in ticking boxes as opposed to good democratic governance, or using public consultation to justify decisions that have already been made. The priority now is to build on experience and to build confidence that public involvement can lead to better, and more legitimate, decisions.

Local authorities, government departments and other agencies commissioning participatory processes, as well as those in the voluntary sector, and potential participants wanting to know just what is involved in participatory processes, will find this book of interest.

■ Available from Involve, 212 High Holborn, London WC1V 7BF, UK. Email publications@involving.org. Price £20 + p&p. Free download from www.involving.org.



People's participation in development (Bengali PRA manual) – Second edition

● Enamul Huda 2005

This book was first published in 1999 with the funding support of the Institute of Development Studies (IDS), UK. The objective was to support grassroots level organisations and development organisations working to promote the participation of people who had no access to books written in English or other languages due to the language barrier. Written in the Bengali language, this book describes

the concept of development and participation, the role of stakeholders in development, the means and ways to ensure and promote people's participation, the application of PRA tools in PM&E and includes references to resources centres in Bangladesh and outside.

All case studies presented in the book are based on the practical experience of the author while working with different organisations.

■ Available from PRA Promoters' Society – Bangladesh House # 8/A/8, Road – 14 (New), Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka-1207, Bangladesh. Price US\$10. Email: pps-bd@agni.com. Website: www.pps-bd.com



Participatory monitoring and evaluation (Bengali), first edition

● Enamul Huda 2006

Many organisations in Bangladesh are using participatory approaches, having received basic PRA training, but are facing difficulties in applying the tools and techniques in planning, monitoring and evaluation. This book, written in the Bengali language is the outcome of the request of NGOs.

The application of PRA tools and the facilitation process in developing PM&E systems are explained in very simple language with examples. Anyone with minimum knowledge on development will be able to use this book.

Available from PRA Promoters' Society – Bangladesh House # 8/A/8, Road – 14 (New), Dhanmondi R/A, Dhaka-1207, Bangladesh. Price US\$ 5.
 E-mail: pps-bd@agni.com.
 Website: www.pps-bd.com

Events and training

Courses from PEANuT (Participatory Evaluation and Appraisal in Newcastle upon Tyne)

PEANuT project aims are:

- to support those using participatory appraisal and develop a sustainable PA network in the north-east of England;
- to raise the profile of PA in NE England;
- to provide a range of training courses in PA; and
- to become a regional focus-point for participatory research and consultation initiatives.

■ Full details available via the PEANuT website (including the booking forms): www.northumbria.ac.uk/peanut

PEANuT Introduction to Participatory Appraisal 1 (IPA1)

- 22nd–26th January 2007
 - 16th–20th April 2007
- Newcastle-upon-Tyne, UK

PEANuT Introduction to Participatory Appraisal 2 (IPA2)

- 24th–26th January 2007
- 18th–20th April 2007

Newcastle-upon-Tyne, UK

IPA2 moves beyond the focus of 'doing' PA (IPA1), and considers the use of PA through the entire project cycle. Course participants should have previously participated in the PEANuT IPA1 course (or equivalent), or have practical experience in the use of PA (if the latter, please get in touch prior to booking). The course is run over 3 full days.

The course will cover:

- how to plan and develop PA based projects;

- how to record and collate PA 'data';
- how to organise effective verification events;
- how to write PA reports; and
- how to evaluate and monitor a project.

It will also allow you to:

- share new tools and experiences with other PA practitioners;
- become more aware of power issues within PA at all stages of the project cycle;
- better understand how to work with stakeholders/communities and manage expectations;
- think and reflect upon your use of PA;
- develop informal support networks, and shared experiences with other PA practitioners; and
- be more aware of how to use PA to effect meaningful change.

Cost: £400 excluding accommodation and travel. Places are strictly limited so please book early. If you have difficulties in meeting the full course costs, please contact PEANuT.

Booking form:

www.northumbria.ac.uk/peanut

■ For more information contact: Dr Duncan Fuller, Senior Lecturer/Programme Leader, BA Geography, Division of Geography, Ellison Building D Block, Northumbria University, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE1 8ST, UK.

Tel: +44 191 227 3753 or + 191 227 3428;

Fax: +44 191 227 3519;

Email: ge.peanut@northumbria.ac.uk

Courses from IMA International Monitoring and evaluation in development

- 5th–16th February 2007

Dubai, United Arab Emirates

12th–23rd March 2007

Pretoria, South Africa

This intensive and practical two-week course focuses on designing and implementing a monitoring and

evaluation (M&E) system for use in the workplace and on projects.

Includes:

- the role of M&E as the key to continuous sustained development and improved decision-making; and
- a logical approach to integrating M&E with planning and project management.

This course is aimed at both managers and staff who have an active responsibility for M&E within their organisation.

People skills for development managers

- 5th–9th February 2007

Dubai, United Arab Emirates

7th–11th May 2007

Budapest, Hungary

This one-week course provides insight into how to manage people more effectively. It introduces participants to a wide range of people management concepts and tools together with practical personal skills, which can be used in the workplace to build and manage effective teams and organisations. It includes teambuilding, facilitation and presentation skills, leadership in a cross-cultural environment, decision-making, managing change and conflict.

This course is designed for professionals in development who have both management and technical responsibilities and wish to enhance their people management skills.

People skills workshop for experienced development managers

- 12th–14th February 2007

Dubai, United Arab Emirates

14th–16th May 2007

Budapest, Hungary

This three-day workshop focuses on specific people skills to enhance and

sustain performance in teams and organisations. Themes will include the role of leaders in effective change, coaching and learning, motivation and managing across diverse perspectives. It will involve analysis of specific scenarios to enable in depth understanding.

This workshop is designed for managers in all areas of development with a minimum of five years experience in managing teams of people.

■ For more information, please contact: Course Coordinator, IMA International, Randolphs Farm, Brighton Road, Hurstpierpoint, West Sussex, United Kingdom, BN6 9EL. Tel: +44 1273 833 030; Fax: +44 1273 833 230; Email: Naomi@imainternational.com; Website: www.imainternational.com

MA Participation, power and social change

● October 2007

Institute of Development Studies, UK

This Master's degree aims to deepen knowledge, innovation and practice of participatory approaches for engaging people in decision-making and citizenship in diverse contexts.

Designed to meet learning needs of practitioners with at least three years experience in the use of participatory approaches, the programme combines intensive coursework with work-based learning, action research and processes of critical reflection and analysis.

Applicants need an acceptable first

degree or equivalent academic qualification, and at least three years experience of using participatory approaches in development-related work. The minimum acceptable level of English language competence is grade 7 in each section of the IELTS test (or equivalent).

For entry in October 2007, fees are £11,000 for all students. A limited number of IDS scholarships are available – please contact the Programme Administrator.

■ For further information contact: Julia Brown, Programme Administrator, Postgraduate Admissions, Sussex House, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9RE, UK. Tel: + 44 1273 678869.

Email: teaching@ids.ac.uk or pg.admissions@sussex.ac.uk; Website: www.ids.ac.uk/ids/teach/index.html or www.sussex.ac.uk/pgapplication (to download University's postgraduate prospectus and application form).

Courses from Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Unit for Environmental Communication, Department of Urban and Rural Development

Integrated Water Resource Management

● September 2007, two-years international master programme

Application: before February 1st, 2007

This masters programme focuses on Integrated Water Resource

Management (IWRM). IWRM seeks to combine technologies, institutional strategies and processes needed for facilitation of sustainable management of watersheds, basins, rivers and coastal waters in the face of conflicting interests. Using action learning principals, the course participants will undertake a journey of iterations between concepts, case studies, methods and thesis work.

■ For more information contact: Neil Powell +46 18 671965 or Kevin Bishop +46 18 673131; Email: IWRM@sol.slu.se; Website: www.sol.slu.se/environ/edu

Environmental Communication and Management

● September 2007, one-year international master programme

Application: before February 1st, 2007

Often projects in natural resource management fail. One reason is that people and their different perspectives and interests are not taken into account. When working practically with environmental issues you work with a variety of people and organisations. How can we organise effective projects in these socially complex conditions? This programme prepares you to work in a critical and independent way with facilitation, communication and organisation.

■ For more information contact: Lars Hallgren +46 18 672584; Email: Mk@sol.slu.se; Website: www.sol.slu.se/environ/edu/



e-participation

Collaborative NR management in Zimbabwe

www.policy-powertools.org/related/campfire.html

Some of the articles in this special issue are based on processes and tools developed under the CAMPFIRE programme. WWF-SARPO supported this work through the SupCamp project, and has published a series of manuals and toolboxes to guide users through the tools in its Wildlife Management Series. Whilst the authors of the articles in this issue reflect critically on the tools and their use, and consider how far they helped communities to empower themselves, the manuals provide practical how-to-do it information.

Most of the wildlife management series are guideline manuals that explain how to perform a particular task, for example counting wildlife. In addition there are several toolboxes that are designed to guide a facilitator through a process, for example setting hunting quotas. SupCamp also developed the CAMPFIRE game, which is a participatory training tool for financial management.

The wildlife management series and the CAMPFIRE game can be downloaded in PDF format (see below).

Wildlife management series manuals

- Quota setting:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/quota_setting.pdf (1187K)
- Counting Wildlife:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/counting_wildlife.pdf (1622K)
- District Toolbox:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/district_toolbox.pdf (944K)
- Electric Fencing:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/electric_fencing.pdf (1497K)
- Financial Management:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/

docs/financial_management.pdf (4060K)

- Fire Management:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/fire_management.pdf (2556K)
- Maintaining Electric Fencing:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/maintaining_electric_fencing.pdf (903K)
- Marketing Wildlife:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/marketing_wildlife.pdf (1585K)
- Problem Animal Reporting:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/problem_animal_reporting.pdf (2483K)
- Project Planning:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/project_planning.pdf (2030K)
- Safari Hunting:
www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/safari_hunting.pdf (725K)

CAMPFIRE game

- Board:
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www.policy-powertools.org/related/docs/financial_management_toolbox.pdf (1365K)

Legal Assistance Centre, Namibia (land issues)

www.lac.org.na

The Legal Assistance Centre is a public interest law centre. LAC strives to make the law accessible to those with the least access, through education, law reform, research, litigation, legal advice, representation and lobbying, with the ultimate aim of creating and maintaining a human rights culture in Namibia. The LAC's main objective is to protect the human rights of all Namibians. You can also find out

about LAC's current projects, and download for free various documents and publications related to LAC's work: www.lac.org.na/publications/default.htm

Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation Namibia

www.irdnc.org.na

IRDNC Trust strives to improve the lives of rural people by diversifying the socio-economy in Namibia's communal areas to include wildlife and other valuable natural resources. This website includes information about IRDNC's ongoing projects and programmes, a selection of discussion papers, and information and resources related to conservancies. There is also Working with communities and communal area conservancies, a facilitator's toolbox. Each section is available to download separately in PDF format.

Namibia Nature Foundation

www.nnf.org.na

The Namibia Nature Foundation (NNF) is a not-for-profit, non-governmental organisation. NNF's primary aims are to promote sustainable development, the conservation of biological diversity and natural ecosystems, and the wise and ethical use of natural resources for the benefit of all Namibians. The website lists NNF's recent publications. Many of these are freely available from the offices of NNF, and some are available to download for free. NNF also has an extensive library of over 150 environmental and conservation videos and DVDs, which are available to borrow. For a list of videos and DVDs, visit: www.nnf.org.na/NNF_docs/Video_Film_list.pdf (1,175kb). You can also find information about how to join NNF's film library.

Source

www.asksource.info/res_library/participatory.htm

Source is an international information support centre designed to strengthen the management, use and impact of information on health and disability. Browse reviewed lists of key resources on participatory communication topics, or view the latest resources to be added to Source. Topics include theatre for development, communicating for advocacy, communication for social change and participatory evaluation. Source welcomes details of additional resources and accounts of how they are useful – please email these to: source@ich.ucl.ac.uk.

Poverty and Conservation Learning Group (PCLG)

www.povertyandconservation.info

PCLG is a forum for facilitating mutual learning between key stakeholders, from a range of backgrounds, on conservation-poverty linkages. The learning group has two major – but different – functions:

- promoting good practice through information provision and dissemination; and
- influencing policy change through provision of a programme of 'learning activities' to organisations actively working on conservation-poverty linkages.

The website is PCLG's key

mechanism for sharing and dissemination of information and experience on conservation-poverty linkages. The site includes fully searchable databases:

- a bibliographic database, providing details of the literature on conservation-poverty linkages;
- an organisations database, highlighting the range of organisations working on conservation-poverty linkages; and
- an initiatives database, describing significant international initiatives designed to explore the links between conservation and poverty reduction, from broad poverty-environment programmes to focused single-issue agendas.

RCPLA Network

In this section, we update readers on activities of the **Resource Centres for Participatory Learning and Action Network (RCPLA) Network** (www.rcpla.org) and its members. RCPLA is a diverse, international network of national-level organisations, which brings together development practitioners from around the globe. It was formally established in 1997 to promote the use of participatory approaches to development. The network is dedicated to capturing and disseminating development perspectives from the South. For more information please contact the RCPLA Network Steering Group:

RCPLA Coordination and North Africa & Middle East Region:

Ali Mokhtar, Near East Foundation – Middle East Region, Center for Development Services (CDS), 4 Ahmed Pasha Street, 10th Floor, Garden City, Cairo, Egypt.

Tel: +20 2 795 7558; Fax: +20 2 794 7278;

Email: cds.prog@neareast.org; amokhtar@nefdev.org;

Website: www.neareast.org/main/cds/default.aspx

Asia Region: Tom Thomas, Director, Institute for Participatory Practices (Praxis), S-75 South Extension, Part II, New Delhi, India 110 049. Tel/Fax: +91 11 5164 2348 to 51;

Email: tomt@praxisindia.org; www.praxisindia.org

Jayatissa Samaranayake, Institute for Participatory Interaction in Development (IPID), 591 Havelock Road, Colombo 06, Sri Lanka. Tel: +94 1 555521;

News from the RCPLA Network Coordinator

RCPLA activities for year 2007-2008 are designed to disseminate global participatory initiatives providing members with opportunities to learn about individual and institutional work implemented internationally, as well as sharing the knowledge and experience gained. The network coordinator is currently working on identifying the theme focus for the coming two years and building the relevant activities around it. The choice of the theme and activities will be based on RCPLA members' needs and interests and at the same time reflecting the network's main objectives:

- help maintain the integrity of participatory learning and action principles;
- encourage the allocation of

resources to make information management a priority in project planning;

- focus on the generation and distribution of appropriate research and development approaches regarding policy change and institutional capacity building;
- encourage the creation and production of grassroots documentation;
- encourage the creation of language and non-text accessible documentation and communication to record the experience of local people;
- create a culture of sharing information;
- encourage a non-exploitative ethic on research and documentation.

New members

Over the last few months, many

Tel/Fax: +94 1 587361; Email: ipidc@panlanka.net

West Africa Region: Awa Faly Ba, IIED-Afrique, B.P. 5579, Dakar, Sénégal. Tel: +221 867 10 58; Fax: +221 867 10 59; Email: iedafrique.org

European Region: Jane Stevens, Participation, Power and Social Change Group, Institute of Development Studies (IDS), University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9RE, UK.

Tel: + 44 1273 678690; Fax: + 44 1273 21202;

Email: participation@ids.ac.uk; Website:

www.ids.ac.uk/ids/particip

Participatory Learning and Action Editorial Team, International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), 3 Endsleigh Street, London WC1H 0DD, UK. Tel:

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Southern and Eastern Africa Region: Eliud Wakwabubi, Participatory Methodologies Forum of Kenya (PAMFORK), Jabavu Road, PCEA Jitegemea Flats, Flat No. D3, PO Box 2645, KNH Post Office, Nairobi, Kenya. Tel/Fax: +254 2 716609; Email: pamfork@nbnet.co.ke

organisations have shown interest in joining RCPLA. We have the pleasure to welcome on board Stairway Management, Nepal; CARAVAN, Pakistan; Swat Participatory Council, Pakistan; and Soba Sri Environmental Forum (SOSED), Sri Lanka.

Stairway Management was established in 1994 with the mission of catalysing a shift in the way organisations are developed; designing and implementing more effective and innovative coaching, and consulting programmes for development practitioners in private and public organisations; enhancing the skills of consultants, coaches, mentors, and facilitators; and finally promoting participatory learning and action in development sectors. Currently this institution is one of most professional leadership

development institutes in Nepal and is considered the centre for understanding and expanding the leadership capabilities of individual and organisations from across the public, private, and civil sectors through a participatory approach.

CARAVAN is a sub-national NGO, with headquarters in Swat District of the Northwest Frontier Province (NWFP) Pakistan. It was established by social workers and development professionals from NWFP in 1998. Its mission is to contribute to poverty reduction by supporting local communities. It helps them to harness their potential and capabilities. This is done by helping them organise themselves into village and supra village level self-managed, self-reliant and sustainable institutions. They should be capable of taking the development agenda into their own hands through active participation at the local level. To do this, the NGO approach is based on proved and tested models of participatory philosophy of development, through effective partnership between all the development actors in an organised manner. To find out more about CARAVAN please visit www.caravan-swat.org.

Swat Participatory Council is a regional network of 32 community based and development organisations. SPC was established in 2001. Its mission is to enhance the capacity of local communities, especially marginalised groups through promoting education, dialogues and information dissemination. It contributes to participatory development processes at different levels through advocacy and network development while utilising potentials of the devolved system to realise positive change.

Also, SPC establishes coordination mechanisms with government line agencies to institutionalise citizen's participation for ensuring good governance practices in transitional tribal environment.

Soba Sri Environmental Forum is an alliance of organisations which have come together to conserve the region's environment through designing awareness and advocacy campaigns, conducting research and developing networking among different stakeholders. SOSEF was established in 2001 with the aim of empowering disadvantaged communities, especially women, who live in environmentally sensitive areas, to participate in the protection of the environment through making use of traditional knowledge and the inherited culture. To learn more about Soba Sri Environmental Forum, please visit www.geocities.com/sosefsl/

News from the Asian Regional Coordinator



Praxis Institute for Participatory Practices

We believe that money alone will not eradicate poverty. Inclusion of the poor in the development process will. As an Institute for Participatory Practices, we at Praxis, take as well as create opportunities to spread the concept of **Participatory Development**.

The Praxis International Thematic PRA Training Workshop, an annual event, is one such proactive effort. It is bookmarked by all those who are interested in the concept of participatory development. In

September this year, the 10th workshop was held at the National Institute of Small Industry Extension and Training (NISJET), Yusufguda, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh. This year the event had about a 100 participants from over 13 countries. The workshop was very well received; the participants took back with them clear ideas on how to include the voice of the excluded in the mainstream. As part of the opening session, an International Symposium on Three decades of PRA took place at the same venue. For more information on the workshop, visit the Praxis website at www.praxisindia.org

Another area that we at Praxis are keen to explore is the promotion of **Immersion**. Inadequate knowledge of communities often results in policies that are neither sympathetic nor relevant. Staying with intended beneficiaries sensitises the development worker to the ground realities and puts them within earshot of what the poor actually have to say. We are initially looking at creating a platform that will enable all those who have undergone **Immersion** to interact and share their experiences.

By helping this positive trend gain momentum, we hope to bring those at the helm of affairs closer to the ground and therefore to the idea of participatory development.

News from the Institute of Development Studies (IDS)

Participation at IDS
The Participation, Power and Social Change Group at IDS has been furthering its work on a number of fronts. In the spring of this year an international workshop took place on **Learning for Social Change**, as part of our Learning and Teaching for

Transformation (LTT) initiative. Involving a diverse group of activists, researchers and organisational leaders from around the world, it looked at how those of us engaged in social change processes can develop our capacities in ways that enable us to be more reflective, innovative and adaptive. We have now produced a report from this workshop entitled **Learning for Social Change: concepts, methods and practice** (download at www.ids.ac.uk/ids/particip/home/new.html)

Continuing our work on deepening our understanding of the complex web of inter-relationships within the aid world we published **Relationships for Aid**, edited by Rosalind Eyben, earlier in the year. Looking at how the top-down international aid system is failing to respond to the needs of the very people it purports to help, the authors call on all aid agencies to reorient their priorities and learn how to build lasting relationships that transfer power to the powerless. See the **In Touch** section for a review of this publication.

Learning about, and encouraging the use of, popular communications continues to be an important part of our teams work. In September, The Development Research Centre (DRC) on Citizenship, Participation and Accountability ran a two week participatory video training with Insight. Taking place in Nigeria, it involved researchers from Jamaica, Bangladesh, Angola, Brazil, Mexico and Nigeria. More information is available from Alison Dunn (email A.Dunn@ids.ac.uk).

Further recent publications include **Poverty Unperceived: Traps, Biases and Agenda** by Robert Chambers which aims to illuminate

some of the problems of bias in the perception of poverty, which often results in inappropriate decisions being made. It goes on to explore new approaches for experiential direct learning, which are enabling organisations to better understand and be more in touch with the changing realities of people living in poverty. Two additional IDS Working Papers are: **Civil Society Participation in Trade Policy-making in Latin America: Reflections and Lessons** by Diana Tussie and Peter Newell, which explores the question of civil society engagement with trade policy in Latin America; and **Triumph, Deficit or Contestation? Deepening the 'Deepening Democracy' Debate** by John Gaventa. This focuses on emerging debates within the 'deepening democracy' field. A number of other publications are due out soon, including an IDS Bulletin **Exploring Power for Change**, and two books, **Springs of Participation** and **The Power of Labelling: How people are categorized and why it matters**.

For more details of the above publications, email participation@ids.ac.uk or visit our website at www.ids.ac.uk/ids/particip/

News from IIED

We were sorry to say farewell to **Nazneen Kanji**, fellow member of the *Sustainable Agriculture, Biodiversity and Livelihoods Programme* of the Natural Resources Group at IIED, who moved to the Aga Khan Development Network (AKDN) in October this year. Fortunately, Nazneen will continue to be a member of the *PLA* Strategic Editorial Board.

Nazneen is heading a programme to assess the impact of AKDN's efforts to improve the 'quality of life',

in the geographical areas where it works, i.e. South and Central Asia and Africa. AKDN consists of seven different organisations addressing rural development, culture, economic promotion, health and education, including the Aga Khan Foundation itself, which is a key member of the network. Nazneen's new role combines methodological development, team building and policy/programme influence with close links to the ground. Her country focus will initially be Mozambique, Mali, Tajikistan, Afghanistan and Syria, but she is still based in London. We wish her every success.

The unspoken dilemmas of participation: forthcoming December 2007

This special issue of *PLA* will be guest edited by Tom Wakeford and others. Its aim is to reflect critically on processes which set out to be participatory, but which further disempower those with least power. Problems may be political, for example, when the outputs threaten to undermine a pre-conceived institutional objective. They may also be methodological, for example, organisers are often not aware that oppressed groups, such as women or the disabled, have been further marginalised by the way in which the process was facilitated. We are looking for contributions to this issue that will deepen our understanding of participation, and also suggest ways to improve practices and policies. If you have an idea for a possible contribution, please send a short outline of your article to pla.notes@iied.org.



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- **Feedback:** letters to the editor, or longer pieces (max. 1500 words) which respond in more detail to articles.
- **Tips for trainers:** training exercises, tips on running workshops, reflections on behaviour and attitudes in training, etc., max. 1000 words.
- **In Touch:** short pieces on forthcoming workshops and events, publications, and online resources.

We welcome accounts of recent experiences in the field (or in workshops) and current thinking around participation, and particularly encourage contributions from practitioners in the South. Articles should be co-authored by all those engaged in the research, project, or programme.

In an era in which participatory approaches have often been viewed as a panacea to development problems or where acquiring funds for projects has depended on the use of such methodologies, it is vital to pay attention to the quality of the methods and process of participation. Whilst we will continue to publish experiences of innovation in the field, we would like to emphasise the need to analyse the limitations as well as the successes of participation. *Participatory Learning and Action* is still a series whose focus is methodological, but it is important to give more importance to issues of power in the process and to the impact of participation, asking ourselves who sets the agenda for participatory practice. It is only with critical analysis that we can further develop our thinking around participatory learning and action.

We particularly favour articles which contain one or more of the following elements:

- an **innovative** angle to the concepts of participatory approaches or their application;
- **critical reflections** on the lessons learnt from the author's experiences;
- an attempt to develop **new methods**, or innovative adaptations of existing ones;
- consideration of **the processes**

- involved in participatory approaches;
- an assessment of the **impacts** of a participatory process;
- potentials and limitations of **scaling up and institutionalising participatory approaches**; and,
- potentials and limitations of **participatory policy-making processes**.

Language and style

Please try to keep contributions clear and accessible. Sentences should be short and simple. Avoid jargon, theoretical terminology, and overly academic language. Explain any specialist terms that you do use and spell out acronyms in full.

Abstracts

Please include a brief abstract with your article (circa. 150-200 words).

References

If references are mentioned, please include details. *Participatory Learning and Action* is intended to be informal, rather than academic, so references should be kept to a minimum.

Photographs and drawings

These should have captions and the name(s) of the author(s)/photographer clearly written on the back. If you are sending electronic files, please make sure that the photos/drawings are scanned at a high enough resolution for print (300 dpi) and include a short caption and credit(s).

Format

We accept handwritten articles but please write legibly. Typed articles should be double-spaced. Please keep formatting as simple as possible. Avoid embedded codes (e.g. footnotes/endnotes, page justification, page numbering).

Submitting your contribution

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Resource Centres for Participatory Learning and Action (RCPLA) Network

Since June 2002, the IIED Resource Centre for Participatory Learning and Action has

now housed by the Institute of Development Studies, UK. Practical information and support on participation in development is also available from the various members of the RCPLA Network.

This initiative is a global network of resource centres for participatory learning and action, which brings together 15 organisations from Africa, Asia, South America, and Europe. The RCPLA Network is committed to information sharing and networking on participatory approaches.

Each member is itself at the centre of a regional or national network. Members share information about activities in their respective countries, such as training programmes, workshops and key events, as well as providing PLA information focused on the particular fields in which they operate.

More information, including regular updates on RCPLA activities, can be found in the In Touch section of *Participatory Learning and Action*, or by visiting www.rcpla.org, or contacting the network coordinator: Ali Mokhtar, CDS, Near East Foundation, 4 Ahmed Pasha Street, 10th Floor, Garden City, Cairo, Egypt. Tel: +20 2 795 7558; Fax: +2 2 794 7278; Email: amokhtar@nefdev.org

Participation at IDS

Participatory approaches and methodologies are also a focus for the Participation, Power and Social Change Group at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, UK. This group of researchers and practitioners is involved in sharing knowledge, in strengthening capacity to support quality participatory approaches, and in deepening understanding of participatory methods, principles, and ethics. It focuses on South-South sharing, exchange visits, information exchange, action research projects, writing, and training. Services include a Participation Resource Centre (open weekdays) with an online database detailing materials held. The Group also produces a newsletter and operates an email distribution list.

For further information please contact: Jane Stevens, IDS, University of Sussex, Brighton BN1 9RE, UK.
Tel: +44 1273 678690;
Fax: +44 1273 621202;
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Participatory Learning and Action is the world's leading informal journal on participatory approaches and methods. It draws on the expertise of guest editors to provide up-to-the minute accounts of the development and use of participatory methods in specific fields. Since its first issue in 1987, *Participatory Learning and Action* has provided a forum for those engaged in participatory work – community workers, activists, and researchers – to share their experiences, conceptual reflections and methodological innovations with others, providing a genuine 'voice from the field'. It is a vital resource for those working to enhance the participation of ordinary people in local, regional, national, and international decision-making, in both South and North.

ISBN: 1-84369-641-X 978-1-84369-641-4

**International Institute
for Environment
and Development (IIED)**
3 Endsleigh Street
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