NATURAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT PROJECT:
COMMUNITY BASED RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
AND UTILIZATION

COMMUNITY VARIABLES IN NATURAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT: WORKSHOP PROCEEDINGS

JULY 28 - JULY 30, 1992

UNITED STATES AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Community Variables in Natural Resources Management
Regional NRM Project Conference
July 28 - July 30, 1992

Proceedings

WELCOME

Mr. K.C.M. Hove. Warden, Hwange National Park

I would like to welcome the delegates from Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe to the Natural Resources Management Project conference on community variables.

The Natural Resources Management Project is a SADCC project which emphasizes community based management and utilization of wildlife and natural resources. In Zimbabwe the project operates under the CAMPFIRE umbrella. I have worked with CAMPFIRE since it's inception and have seen demonstrated the success of this approach.

Although national situations and contexts are different, there are many areas in which we share common concerns and interests. To assist in exchange of information and lessons learned in this new approach to conservation, Malawi is responsible for regional coordination under it's role as SADCC coordinator for wildlife. Regional activities and conferences are determined by a Project Coordinating Committee with representatives from each participating country.

At the annual conference last February, participants and the Coordinating Committee determined a need for information on strategies to reach different groups within a community. This conference on community variables was scheduled to meet those needs.

I would like to wish you not only a pleasant stay in Victoria Falls, but a fruitful and beneficial meeting, and declare the conference Community Variables in Natural Resources Management open.

REVIEW OF THE CONFERENCE AGENDA

Elsie Alexander, Conference Facilitator and Lyn Robinson, Project Specialist/ Malawi

The workshop is designed as an opportunity for NRM project implementors to exchange ideas, methodologies, and lessons learned about working with communities. A community is not a homogenous entity, but is composed of a wide variety of groups - community **variables**. In targeting communities in sustainable natural resource management project activities, it is important to recognize **who** the community is, **who** uses resources, **how** resources are used, and **what** the desires of these various groups are in order to adapt the project to meet specific community.

A failure to know and understand a targeted community is a failure on the part of designers, planners and implementors to consider those who will ultimately be affected by the project and who will ultimately determine the success or failure of the project. To target activities at only the highly visible, powerful groups allows implementors to reach only a small portion of a community. This fails to generate a broad based support for sustainable practices introduced by the project.

The workshop isn't designed to provide answers. Only time spent in the field can do this. It's designed to raise awareness, to share ideas and experiences, and to propose strategies to reach a larger proportion of NRM Project community members. This is the reason the room is divided into small working tables rather than one large, plenary conference setting. The speakers will provide information on specific areas and suggest issues, but the significant outputs will come from the participants themselves.

This workshop is held at the suggestion of regional implementors. Every attempt will be made to keep the focus demand driven and relevant. We will define participant's expectations from the conference and will re-structure the agenda throughout the meeting as necessary. Following this, the groups will identify those groups, or variables, that might be found in NRM communities. We will discuss principles of community development, different means to assess community needs, and skills beneficial in facilitating community meetings.

One of the variables all communities have in common is gender. It is essential for project planners and implementors to be aware of the different roles of men and women, especially in relation to resource management and use. Because women's roles are less visible and because there are usually more constraints to participation of women in project activities, some time will be spent discussing ways they can be effectively involved.

In introducing new activities to a community, the result is often a shift of power as various sectors become involved. We will discuss the significance of possible power shifts in view of whether and how they can be facilitated by the NRM Project.

Time has been allocated on the last day to discuss issues raised during the workshop.

Community Variables in the Natural Resources Management Project

Keynote Address

Professor Leslie A. King
Center for Applied Social Sciences
University of Zimbabwe

Welcome to Zimbabwe. I'm awed by the scale and significance of this topic, since the community is where our project happens. Also any discussion of communities, natural resources, and benefits takes on urgency in this year of drought and suffering in our region.

Everyone in this room lives and works in particular communities and knows more about the dynamics of those communities than I ever will. I hope at this workshop we can share that knowledge with one another and strategise about how to tap into the knowledge of the people living in the communities affected by our projects.

I. BACKGROUND

A.) Malawi Regional Meeting (February, 1992)

The first annual Natural Resources Management (NRM) Project regional conference, held in Malawi, had presentations from the countries involved and then broke into small working groups to discuss issues raised in the plenary sessions, in the presentations and questions and discussions. The three working groups discussed four topics related to the project:

i. Institutional Roles and Responsibilities
ii. The Project
iii. Community Variables and
iv. Resource Issues.

Working groups identified issues they felt needed clarification, input, discussion, and change. These issues and the recommendations of the working groups were discussed (as potential topics for focussed workshops) by the regional Project Coordinating Committee (PCC) which met following the workshop. Let me summarize that discussion as relates to the topic and evolution of this workshop:

1. Under "COMMUNITY VARIABLES", the working group that dealt with this topic identified four pressing issues arising from the plenary sessions:

i. COMMUNITY FOCUS
ii. PARTICIPATION
iii. GENDER, and
iv. SUSTAINABILITY

The group decided that "the practice of the project does not adequately reflect a community-based approach to natural resource management." They recommended that the project reorient to the community and "tap into local skills, knowledge, and information". The group stressed that the concept of participation needed clarification, and raised the issue that the "project was 2-3 decades behind as regards current issues of WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT", that "project activities were largely by men and for men", that "wildlife was highly male-biased but women play a major role in resource management." The working

group recommended research and strategising to involve women in the project. All three groups identified a need for more discussion of gender issues in the project.

In a planning meeting following the conference, the PCC decided that community variables other than gender -- such as class or ethnicity, should also be the focus of a workshop and therefore the idea of a "community variables" conference was born.
Other groups which were seen as "issues" in the NRM project include the poor, interest groups, cattle owners, wildlife utilizers, and others.

Other issues arising out of the Malawi meeting included decentralization, community based resource management, poverty, and others, about which I should like to make a few comments of relevance to our discussions here:
First is the danger of viewing the community as monolithic entity or of seeing only one community of interest - not addressing differing interests within the community, inequities, inequalities, and power differences, nor different viewpoints within the project.

I should like to add that we are also dealing with a community of project implementors: social scientists, ecologists, government bureaucrats, academics, and civil servants are involved in the NRM project. Different political and ideological orientations, different organizational goals and objectives, cultures, different loyalties, priorities, histories, career goals and paths, reward structures, national and international contexts are all involved.

2. Issues of DECENTRALISATION. Who are the proprietors, or stewards, of natural resources? To what extent have we been successful in decentralizing management of natural resources down to the community, grass roots level or to what extent is the project still emanating from bureacratic offices and administrative levels well above the local level? Who is responsible or accountable? How does national legislation promote or obstruct decentralisation?

3. The role of social sciences in the project. The project is essentially about people, about human relationships, human institutions, and human relationships with natural resources- about people who live and interact with resources and with each other. Those people are not in office blocks in Harare, Gaberone, Lusaka, Windhoek, or Lilongwe, but in local communities, households and ecosystems. They have been interacting with those resources for centuries. We in this project need desperately to understand the human, cultural, social, economic variables affecting those relationships at that level --that level of contact with the resources--the local or community level. We need an integrated investigation and understanding of all of these perspectives.

Since I now know most of you, I know that I don't have to preach to you about the need for an integrated perspective and approach to natural resource problems and projects- a perspective that trancends disciplinary boundaries, that reflects the interconnectedness, and interdependencies of the ecosystems in which we are working. An approach that integrates the social and natural sciences is particulary important in this project which seeks to recognise the role of humans in ecosystems as opposed to banishing them in the traditional colonial national parks approach.

I would only like to caution you here about the need not just to <u>include</u> the social science in your project but to <u>integrate</u> this component not as a necessary added on evil, but as an integral and citical, central aspect of the project. In this project we are dealing with people, their perceptions, attitudes, relationships, beliefs, needs, and knowledge. We have to learn from them and to understand the social, economic, cultural forces acting on them. Additionally we have to base our project action on that learning or we will fail as so many have before.

This project gives new meaning to social science action research. The researcher is an active participant in the project and is as concerned with developing the capacity of the community to manage its own resources and to analyse and solve its own problems as they are with creating new knowledge in their

academic fields.

4. Exchange of information and lessons learned. All the groups at the Malawi meeting reccommended more exchange among the countries involved in the NRM project. As a follow up to this, I am happy to say we had a very rewarding visit from the Botswana project implementers to Zimbabwe in March.

B. The Project Document

When I first came nearly a year ago I was very confused and bemused by the frequency with which participants in the project invoked the project document, the green book or bible of the project. It may have been the only certainty to which we could cling, the only shared reality, in the confusing, shifting world of the NRMP. I have since looked into it and found myself more confused rather than less. Perhaps instead we should be looking to that elusive community - the supposed beneficiaries, protagonists, participants, managers of the resources in the NRM Project.

What does the project document have to say about the variables with which we are concerned here? From Vol. II: Country-Specific Project Descriptions we read that " A central underlying principle of community - based resource utilization is that communities receive the economic returns derived from the resource base. When the link between sustainable use of the resources and continued economic return is made, these revenues can act as an incentive for more efficient management and conservation. To form these links, communities must participate in decision-making concerning resource management and the distribution of benefits. For community resource managemnt actions to directly result in increased benefits to that community, the resource base must be defined as a community asset, rather than as an individual or national one. Communities must also have assured, long-term rights to those resources so that long-term conservation and management decisions will be seen as justifiable based on expectations of future benefits."

We also read that "The general purpose of the project is to improve the social and economic well-being of residents of rural communities by implementing sustainable community - based wildlife conservation and utilisation programs. Participation of women in resource managemnt programs will increase at the village, ward, and potentially, district levels. The role of women in the economy and their access to income will be expanded through income-generating activities that use the natural resourcebase in a sustainable manner."

The community is where this project happens -or is supposed to happen!

II. THREE POINTS

1. What is a community? Who defines community in this project?
2. What different groups exist within the community and how do those difference affect use, management, access to, and distribution of the benefits of natural resources?
3. With whom outside the community do individuals and groups in the community interact? What forces outside the community affect Natural resource use, management etc.?

1. What is a Commmunity ? Who defines community? Only the specific community can make this definition. Therefore, we, the project implementors, can't define the needs and aspirations of invented communites, can't have preset, quantifiable objectives that apply to all of the thousands of communities affected by this project. We must rather involve each community in designing its own projects, with objectives and outcomes relevant to this unique needs. We can't plan <u>for</u> the community, the community can only plan for itself.

In this workshop, we'll be looking at several factors, including the diversity <u>of</u> communities and the diversity <u>within</u> communities. This encompasses the concept of "community variables" - those things that change from community to community; that make each community unique. This variety makes a "blueprint" approach doomed to failure.

There are things within the community that affect individual and community behavior and processes-such as production systems, resource management, distribution or benefits, decision-making, and institution buiding. Those variables include gender, class, wealth, power and a variety of others.

There are also a number of things outside the community which affect individual and community behavior and processes- eg the national context, politics, policies, legislation, the institutional/administrative context, international and national economy, and markets.

As far as who defines a community, it is realistic to assume that only the specific community can define itself. A classic example is Beitbridge, Zimbabwe. Before distribution of revenues from wildlife in the CAMPFIRE program the leaders of the community (men) created a list of beneficiaries - the community - which included no female headed households. The women rebelled and succeeded in redefining the community to include divorced women and other female headed households.

If we can't define the community from a distance then it follows that we can't decide what is good for a given community. We can't design a project that will work in every community. The community alone knows its needs and aspirations and we must enlist them to design and redesign the project as it goes along - to achieve an increasingly close fit between the objectives of the project and the objectives of the communities it is designed to support.

A community is not a thing but a process. There are different processes of community formation. I'll differentiate three major forces or definers of community, although there are many others.

1. The community as a unique geographical, physical entity. This geographically defined community, or bioregionalism, is perhaps more appropriate to our concerns than the entities we are actually dealing with: administratively defined communities.

2. The community as an administrative, political entity, with administrative boundaries. An example of this would be the adminstratively, politically defined communities such as VIDCO, Ward, District, or Province in Zimbabwe.

3. Project defined / created communities such as women, children, the poor, farmers, etc. which are specified by the project paper. There are also self defining groups within those communities, including kinship, professional, vocational, class, gender, position in life, and communities of interest such as cattle owners, and wildife utilisers.

I would submit the following proposition: we can't define the community and we can't define the project for the community. Each community defines itself and must define and redefine the project for itself. It is essential to adaptively manage the project -that is surely what the project is all about.

Critical to this project is the question: What do we mean by "community based natural resource management"? I refer you here to Marshall Murphree's paper: "Communities as Institutions for Resource Management", as an excellent initial attempt to define some of the criteria for effective community based natural resource management. We must become clearer about our meaning of this goal of the project.

A community is not a homogeneous, monolithic entity within which individuals and groups have identical interests, concerns, and goals. Communities are differentiated. We must define what divisions, groups, interests within the community concern us as a project. We must consider a variety of factors. Who has the power? Who makes the decisions? Who uses which resources? Who gains and who loses from resource use and changes in resource use and management? What is the impact of the project on those different groups? Should we become advocates for the voiceless and the powerless in our communities?

One of the critical areas of scholarship and action is the need to recognize and address the linkage between gender and environment. "Gender is a dynamic, historically and culturally determined social

construct created by men and women to define their relationships with each other and with the environment. This includes access to and control of resources, a social not simply an economic process." (Berry et al 1989.) Gender refers to socially determined characteristics, roles, relationships as opposed to biologically determined roles.

Gender relationships are dynamic and vary from culture to culture and even from community to community. Wildlife - the original focus of the NRM project - may be or have been a male preserve, but when assessing potential for extending the project to other natural resources, we immediately discover that women are primary users, managers, and custodians. We can't separate gender from resource issues.

Some questions or hypotheses we may wish to pose concerning gender issues in the NRM project may include the following. These are empirical questions and not statements of opinion:

NRM was not designed with women in mind.
NRM benefits go disproportionately to men.
NRM discriminates against women and the poor and powerless.
Institution building has to date focussed predominantly on men (reflecting current community leadership patterns.)
Costs of environmental degradation are born disproportionately by women.
Decision-making power, access to and control over resources are held disproportionaletly by men.
Resources under the purview of the project are primarily men's resources; those excluded are women's resources (ie the exclusion of resources other than wildlife from the project discriminates against women.)
Women are the primary point of contact with the environment and natural resources.

The following questions could lead to a better understanding of the link between gender and the environment:
What do men and women do in the communities throughout a typical day, week, or season?
How do women and men use and manage resources?
Who makes decisions regarding the use, disposal, mangement, access to, and conservation of resources?
Who benefits from the use of different resources?
Who decides how income is used?
What is the nature of tenure or control over resources within the household?

Another significant link is that between poverty and the environment. The Rio in June illustrates the failure to address poverty environment connections and split the North and South yet again. The reason for this failure among others may be the global scale. Questions of environment and poverty are perhaps more effectively addressed at the local level. I would argue that perhaps this is only level at which the connections can be addressed.

It is critical, though, to recognize the infamous spiral - environmental degradation causes poverty and poverty causes environmental degradation. " Most of the rural poor live directly off of the soils, forests, waters and wildlife whose deterioration has caused so much concern among wealthy first worlders. Many are forced by circumstance to destroy the very resources from which they must scrape their living" (Durning 1989).

There is an emerging, alternate view that rural peoples are in close touch with resources. They have been managing them for centuries, and we can learn from their local conservation and management regimes and from their intimate indigenous knowledge of their resources, ecosystem, and environment. But too often the poor are blamed for environmental destruction, blaming the victim, when the real forces are international markets, land tenure, discriminatory policies, disastrous urban subsidies and the like.

There are close connections among increasing poverty in rural areas, the feminisation of poverty and resource use, and ecological decline. These connections among environment, poverty, and gender are the critical reasons why we must concern ourselves with and advocate for the poor and the voiceless.

In discussing wildlife management, we are discussing essentially managing humans. A "discourse about wildlife is essentially about human relations"(S.A.Marks, Southern Hunting p268.) So whether we like it or not we are forced to consider gender, power, wealth difference and the impact they have on resource use. We must consider the community. Therefore women and poor are two groups within the community important to our concerns, but there are others as well. Many we cannot know about until we hear from them ourselves, such as cattle owners, hunters, and other resource users, users of small mammals, trees, mopane worms, and thatching grass.

Related issues include a knowledge of how conflicts among these groups are resolved. Conflict is healthy. Both conflict and cooperation exist within these communities. We should analyze how the benefits of both can be harnessed.

Should we be advocating or empowering one or other groups within the community? Yes - for the reasons stated above. Additionally, we are already being selective in CAMPFIRE by focussing on four districts of Matebeleland North, the primary producer communities.
We need to identify the powerful and the powerless. We need to identify groups left out of the decision-making process, to listen to their needs and goals and ensure through strategies of training, education, institutional development, and community develment, that benefits, skills, and a voice can reach that group.

But we can't talk about distribution of benefits before we are sure benefits are even being generated. A word about ADVOCACY and EMPOWERMENT-- if we were designing a national aid or development project, we would try to ensure that the benefits did not remain with a small power elite in the country, following the discredited trickle down theory of development, but were more widely distributed. Perhaps we would target a group of disadvantaged, disempowered or even a group critical to the sustainability of the project such as small scale or subsistence farmers or small business entrepreneurs.

Communities don't exist in a vacuum. There is a diversity of communities with links to other entities. Communities grow, change and exist in a constantly shifting political, economic, ecological environment. We need to identify the forces acting on communities - those forces that affect the sustainable utilisation of coummunity resources for better or for worse. We need to identify opportunities to influence those forces to benefit the community. We must consider the extent that the project is a bandaid for gross national and international inequities in the distribution and access to natural resources. We need to develop linkage strategies and communication networks among the individuals, institutions and government departments critical to community based natural resource managemnt.

There are several factors to consider in assessing sustainability. SUSTAINABILITY HAS MANY DIFFERENT COMPONENTS-SOCIAL, CULTURAL, ECONOMIC, ORGANISATIONAL and ECOLOGICAL SUSTAINABILTY. A project cannot be sustainable over time if is is not sustainable in all of these ways. Sustainability is a fugitive concept. It is not conducive as a project objective to judging success or providing a guide to action. The components of sustainability or criteria for measuring sustainability at the local or community level can be divided into the following overlapping categories:

1. Social sustainability: It is hypothesized that social sustainability may be determined by such factors as participation, decision-making, education or awareness of the project goals and objectives, acceptance of the project by those affected, commitment to goals of the project, and gender-sensitivity.

2. Cultural sustainability: The extent to which the project is either in conflict with or reinforces cultural norms and values.

3. Economic sustainabilty: Economic sustainabilty will be determined by the development potential of the project in the rural/ communal lands. It will include the profitability of natural resource utilisation, the degree to which benefits outweigh costs, and the equitable distribution of benefits to those affected by and participating in the project.

4. Organizational or institutional sustainability: This is dependent on institutional capacity and institution building at the local level and at all levels. It encompasses the extent to which the project is able to build effective organizations that are able to cooperate with all the actors to manage the project and the natural resources.

5. Ecological Sustainability: The potential of community based natural resource management efforts to restore the ecosystem or to avoid further degradation of an already seriously degraded ecosystem is central. A hypothesis is that community based natural resource management in our region is ecologically sustainable because it replaces destructive land uses with land uses that are better suited to and more profitable in the ecosystems of those lands.

6. Political sustainabilty: The interaction of political entities, and associated conflicts such as budgetary, support for the project etc. as well as inter-national conservation politics such as the CITES convention will affect long term sustainability.

III. STRATEGY

This is our conference. We must decide what we want to get out of it, what we want to take home what will help us implement the project in our countries and communities.

My hopes for the outcome of this workshop include development of strategies for involving communities, self defined voluntary participants in the design and planning of the project, and research and monitoring. The methods for doing this are important and should include participative approaches such as PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal). The project must provide benefits for the community as they see it. It must view community members as protagonists rather than passive recipients. To be sustainable the project must build long term skills, confidence, self reliance, and robust strategies for resource utilisation and mangement. Therefore we are dependent on those communities. We must look to their knowledge and wisdom . If they don't see this project as being in their self interest we should be taking a careful look and enlisting their aid to redesign the project into something that is meaningful and sustainable over the long run. There is no substitute for going to and listening to the community. The project should be supporting their efforts not imposing benefits.

A practical outcome of the conference would be identification of certain issues and aspects:
What variables should we be identifying as relevant to the project?
What should we be trying to decide or do about those variable?
What dilemmas do those variables pose for the project?
What strategies can we devise to attend to those variables?

Allow me to try to frame this as related to what I've said above. To reflect my concerns; What will be the outcome of our interventions? There are a variety of possibilities:
Greater community cohesion?
Greater understanding of, and control over, the forces which affect their lives on the part of all sectors of the community?
Strenghthened communication and relationships with other forces, affecting their well being?

These questions fall into the three categories or statements I made at the beginning and I would add a fourth consideration which cuts across all of the three. It is what we have been calling outcomes but that smacks of a static input / output log frame analysis. I would term it the legacy of the project. Will it be dependency, destruction of self confidence and self reliance, erosion of faith in traditional ecological knowledge and sprirtual norms taboos? Possibly. But hopefully it will be an enhanced confidence and skills to adapt to changing circumstances and to solve problems as they arise.

We should be seeking not just an increase in well-being, but an increased ability for them to go on increasing that well-being.

So here are three sets of questions we may wish to ask about community variables at this workshop as we strategise - you will no doubt have others:

1. What are the structure, dynamics, composition of our communites? How can we get the communities to define themselves, the project and the desirable outcomes and benefits. What do we mean by development in community development and what do we mean by community -based natural resource management? How can we learn from communities about current resource management? How can we work with those self-defined entitites?

2. How can we identify the interests within those communities? What is the current power structure? Who participates and who makes decisions? What are the forces maintaining the current power structure? Can or should they be changed? How? How can existing institutions be strenghthened and made more reperesentative?

3. With whom outside the community do community members interact? With whom should they be interacting? What linkages exist among organisations? How can they be strenghthened? What external variable and forces are acting on our communities and affecting their use and management of natural resources?

4. LEGACY:
How can we leave decision making problem solving skills behind? What will be the results of our research and actions? Will we leave the community and individuals and sectors within the community better off and better able to adapt and address future problems as they arise? How welcome, acceptable, and endogenous are our interventions? How SUSTAINABLE is the project?

All of these will depend ultimately exclusively on communities and the sectors, or variables, within those communities. We must recognize members of the communities as the protagonists. We are merely the mechanics - greasing the wheels. At this point, we have a lot to learn about how to grease which wheels. These are things we can only learn from the community. Our challenge is to get out there fast and start learning!

Participant's Expectations and Needs from the Community Variables Conference

The following were identified as needs and expectations from the meeting:

* Share experiences, techniques, and methodologies with regional project implementors
* Develop strategies for community involvement
* Determine the appropriateness of project structures in line with objectives. Does a hierarchical institution make a bottom up approach difficult?
* Discuss flexibility and appropriateness of NRM Project objectives
* Review expectations of the mid-term review
* Gain a better understanding of project design and implementation and discuss the importance of adaptive mangement

Identification of Community Variables

A community is not a homogeneous entity. It is made up of a variety of people with different needs, interests, and concerns. It is important to recognize this number of different interests in a community, that community development and interaction requires a considerable amount of input in terms of time and effort, and that different interest groups or sectors are often competing.

In order to gain a broad based community support for sustainable natural resource management practices and activities, it is essential to know who the community is. What different ethnic, special interest, geographical, occupational etc. groups are considered as part of the community? Based on this information, it is possible to target project activities to benefit as many different sectors of a community as possible.

Participants at the conference identified the following variables that might be relevant within a given community:

wealth	head of household
poverty	time
education	health
power	attitudes
household income	inter-household relationships
property rights	technology
cultural variation	settlement
social institutions	food security
religion	skills
leadership	disabled

resources
age
political influence
occupational status
participation
historical background
survival strategies
gender
totem
ethnicity
valus and traditions
marital status
mortality
employment
geographical location
stress
agricultural production
cultural norms and mores
access to interventions
land tenure

Central to the definition of a community is that a community must define itself. Only the community can specify it's different sectors, interests and variables. They cannot be defined by the project or in this exercise. The workshop can raise awareness by implementors of the complexities within a community.

General Principles in Community Development

Carol Culler
AF WID Advisor

Definition of Community

The concept of community is more than geographical. It extends to a variety of groups and settings. A community is where we live, and a community is where work. Community development focuses on intervention in a community to help members do something better. Community development has been defined as actions to:

* find effective ways of stimulating, helping, and teaching people to adopt new methods and learn new skills (Batten)

* assist communities to gain control over local aspects of a changing world (Biddle)

Batten proposed several **Principles of Community Development:**

1. Established friendly, trustful relations with people whom you hope to influence.

2. Reach an agreement on what the change should be. Several parameters should be considered here.

    * The project should not be imposed from outside
    * What works in one community may not work in another
    * Those you intend to help must perceive their "problem"

3. Demonstrate that the suggested change is safe.

    * It must eliminate the risk of participants exposing their ignorance or being ridiculed
    * It must take into account traditions and superstitions

4. Exhibit interest in working with groups.

    * Groups are linked by friendship or common purpose
    * Members know and trust each other
    * Groups can discuss new ideas and form opinions
    * Action can be carried out

Based on this, roles of a community developer include those of:

1. Encourager, friend
2. Objective observer, analyst
3. Participant in discussions
4. Participant in some actions
5. Process expert, advisor
6. Flexible adjuster to varying needs

Additional NRM Project roles would add:

7. Technical assistant
8. Government Representative
9. Donor Representative

Biddle has outlined several **Phases in Community Development:**

1. Exploratory Phase
    * Introduction to chiefs and leaders
    * Introduction to people

2. Organizational Phase
    * Outline current problem for action
    * Informal meetings
    * Adopt structure (committees)

3. Discussion Phase
    * Talk, talk, talk
    * Outline problems and alternatives
    * Get all opinions
    * Meet separately if necessary
    * Decision finally made

4. Action Phase
    * Make and carry out plan

5. New Project Phase
    * As one project starts, new ideas arise
    * When project is finished, new projects are generated

6. Continuation Phase
    * Long term process

Working Group Discussions

This topic generated considerable discussion within and among the working groups. There was agreement that community development is difficult to define, but that the definitions proposed were condescending, misleading, and outdated. This type interventionist model doesn't allow for community determinants. Several alternative definitions for community development were proposed, including

"A process of change within a society which results in an improvement of the same society's well being"

"An effective way of stimulating and assisting people to adopt new methods and learn new skills"

"Assistance to communities to gain control over a local environment in order to improve livelihood"

"A process whereby an external agent facilitates the implementation of a community's agenda"

Working groups felt that the stated roles of the community developer, which portray the facilitator or community developer as a teacher, reflect a top down philosophy. The facilitator's role should be as a learner and researcher. The community has a great deal to teach in terms of traditional and prevailing practices and beliefs. All of these will influence the ultimate outcome of the project. The maintainance of traditional values and roles is important to a comunity in the face of change, al though values and traditions can and will change if necessary.

Assumptions made in Batten's Principles of Community were also challenged.

* Community members may know each other, but they do not necessarily trust each other.
* The set of principles should include:
    1. Establish a working relationship as a learning process
    2. Agree on parameters
    3. Data collection, baseline studies, and resource inventory
    4. Adaptive management

The Phases in Development (Biddle) were considered incomplete. Additions / changes included:

* actions and implementation should be based on the long term effect rather than the project cycle
* a continuous dialogue throughout
* needs identification by a community
* awareness raising
* group formation and organization
* community planning and land use planning
* an implementation phase
* monitoring and evaluation - by implementors and by and of the community
* adaptive management and flexibility
* decision makers eg political and religious leaders should be included
* phases are out of sequence. Phase 3 should be the first because the comunity identifies the problem. The community should seek assistance and introduce the agent of change.
* an "alien", or outside, non participatory project will follow Biddle's original sequence
* a need to integrate the power sources such as chiefs and government

An additional critique was Biddle's linear design. Contemporary community development follows a different approach which allows for changing modules between communities. Rather than a shopping list or ad hoc project activities, a holistic approach would contribute more to a long term solution. This solution need not be based on technical inputs but can follow traditional methods. Example: look at food security, why current methods aren't sufficient and what influences this vs project activities such as building a maize mill.

IDEA ADOPTION

TYPES	CHARACTERISTICS	NEEDS	APPLICATION TO NRMS PROJECT
Innovators	Will try anything new. Are risk takers. Have abundant resources. Base of previous experiences. Are willing to experiment. Have status in community.	Need to be recognized as risk taker. Recognition for success. Needs "face saving" strategy if project fails.	High input to identify and initiate project. May need additional inputs/TA to make project successful.
Enterprisers	Learn from other's experience. Opportunistic. Have resources and uses them wisely. Quick learners. Progressive. Highly skilled.	Need to see first results/ products. Will join in with little effort.	Medium input to identify and initiate project. Expect changes to occur in project.
Followers	Needs to see documented success. Will adopt a good idea.	Need a couple of years to be convinced of benefits. May need persuading.	Be available when they are ready to go. Every step should be well defined.
Laggers	Not willing to try something new. Have few resources.	Need encouragement to try something different. Leave alone.	Include but don't push. Continue pointing out benefits.

RAPID RURAL APPRAISAL AND PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL: Potential Uses for Community Based Conservation Programmes

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Objective.

This paper aims to present a general over view of Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) methodologies and how they could be of benefit to community based conservation programmes (CBCP). It does not present these methodologies as the answer or panacea for all the challenges CBCP face, but instead seeks to highlight some of the issues the use of these tools raise and identify how they may compliment existing survey and community development techniques, programmes are already using. The paper also briefly examines some implications, if programmes want to try out and actively utilise these relatively new techniques.

Introduction.

Conservation projects in Africa which have been based on enforced protection have largely failed. The dramatic decline in the numbers of large mammals and the high rates of deforestation are testaments to this fact. The reasons for these failures are many. It has been argued that one main reason was the removal of resource ownership and control away from communities to the state. The result was that local people no longer had an incentive to conserve and protect those resources on a sustainable basis. Another reason has been the prohibitatively high costs of traditional approaches which most African governments cannot afford.

CBCP in comparison are usually characterised by two core elements. One is a stated objective, be it rhetorical or real, to solicit the active participation of communities in the assessment and management of natural resources. The second element is the understanding that unless communities have a tangible vested economic base in wildlife and other resources, they will have little interest in protecting and utilising them on a sustainable basis. Conservation organisations have therefore moved away from the role of policing per se to attempts to become partners in resource management.

The original research for the ADMADE programme identified the reasons for the failure of much wildlife protection in Zambia as being similar to those outlined above. To redress the balance it established an institutional framework completely different to that which previously existed. The two central components of the ADMADE structure have been the establishment

of community based decision making authorities and the direct repatriation of revenues form the sale of game licenses back to communities. These radical changes in the way NPWS perceives the management of wildlife and other resources should not be underestimated. However, if the programme is to build on these positive institutional changes it has to recognise that this shift in perceptions also brings new needs and demands. For example, how can the knowledge that communities have about their environment be gathered and effectively utilised? How will communities monitor and exploit the natural resource base they have on a sustainable basis? What methodologies can be used that allow this process to happen? What new skills and training do project staff require to implement this new approach?

In responding to these new needs, ADMADE has made some progress. It is attempting to understand more about local knowledge and how this can be incorporated in, for example land use maps and decisions concerning resource management. Another initiative is to hold traditional leaders workshops where Chiefs are able to contribute their understandings and concerns into the management process. It is reorientating the training it provides to project personnel such as Village Scouts, Wildlife Biologists, Unit Leaders, and Wildlife Wardens, away from just protection to a more holistic approach to resource management. It has employed and is intending to employ staff with community development expertise. Community facilitators will, for example build the capacity of groups within the GMAs to identify and assess community needs and assist communities to manage revenues generated from the sale of game licenses.

In summary, ADMADE has made much progress in recognising some of the complex array of variables affecting resource management. These include social, (gender, generational, status, etc,), cultural, political, economic, and institutional. It has established an institutional framework which not only recognises the vital role communities will have to play in their own resource management, but has established decision making processes and financial mechanisms which it is hoped will make this process possible.

However, despite these changes ADMADE also recognises that there is much to do to achieve the objectives of participatory resource management. It is for this reason it has examined the techniques it currently uses is and is endeavouring to explore new ideas which will improve it's effectiveness.

Old and new survey techniques.

Conservation programmes will always require powerful formal survey tools which generate accurate information to enable decisions to be made about resource management. For example, animal numbers need to determined before quotas on offtake can be established. For this reason the project and NPWS continues to attempt to strengthen its ability in the use of traditional formal survey techniques. However, in order to respond to new participatory approaches, projects need new tools and survey techniques. CBCP can learn from the lessons of mainstream development projects: there has been a move away from top-down project planning and implementation to a "bottom-up approach". This change has come about through a realisation that many of the failures in development programmes can be related to communities not being fully involved in all aspects of the project process. This change in attitude has also led to a committment to experiment and test tools and methods which would lead to an improved "dialogue" between projects and their partners. Many of these methods have developed out of a recognition of the limitations of existing survey techniques. Traditional formal survey techniques do have limitations in their ability to enable communities to participate. These limitations include;

1) the time lag required to produce results,

2) the high cost of administering the survey,
3) low levels of data reliability due to interview-bias and questionnaire design-based errors, and
4) the irrelevance of many of the questions for specific implementation purposes.[1]

What are RRA and PRA?

RRA and PRA are not just methods for data gathering. They are a creative, structured use of a particular set of investigative tools for assessing a situation, topic, problem, or sector. They are rapid learning processes that creatively utilise social science tools for gathering and analyzing information that can be more accurate and cost effective than other methodologies. It is argued they enable a more participatory assessment of natural resource management practices and issues regarding their improvement than more conventional investigative methods. One of the distinctions of RRA/PRA techniques is that they attempt to establish a dialogue with the project beneficiaries, allowing the respondent to lead the questioning as well as the interviewer. This is important as it is conducive to the collective of data relating to community variables, opinions, objectives, and indigenous technical knowledge, as well as natural resource data.

Both RRA and PRA have developed from different disciplines and field experiences in different parts of the world, and are continually being adapted and improved to fit new situations. RRA originated from the need of development planners to obtain accurate information quickly and cost effectively on which to base project decisions. It was therefore still essentially extractive. In an extreme example although the survey process may have been more participatory in its approach, it was still essentially outsiders acquiring information which they took back to headquarters, analyzed, and made decisions for the "good" of the beneficiaries. PRA developed partly as a recognition of these contradictions. It has therefore sought to develop techniques which not only allow communities to analyze their own environment and situation, but develop and implement plans for their improvements. The outsiders involved in PRA see their role more as catalysts or facilitators in achieving these objectives.

RRA and PRA both share important principles. These include;

1) Learning by doing.
A dynamic process whereby data is continually assessed face-to face on site as it is collected enabling a growing of the understanding of problems.
2) Indigenous knowledge.
RRA/PRA attempts to understand problems and resources and the priority of their importance as perceived by the local community. It emphasises the importance and contribution of local knowledge.

3) Iterative.
It is a process that encourages a changing of hypotheses as new information becomes available.
4) Flexibility.
Although a clear concept is required of what the objectives of the participatory process are, the approach must be flexible to adapt to any situation which may arise.
5) Interactive.
The techniques encourage and promotes interaction between researchers of diverse

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[1] Community Forestry Rapid Appraisal Augusta Molnar Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, Rome, 1989. P3

disciplines as well as between those researchers and the local community.

PRA though sharing the above stresses additional principles.

1) Participation.
As much as possible PRA facilitators are encourage to view their informants not just as objects of study, but as participants in the research process. They do it; analysis, presentation and learning by rural people themselves, so that they present their own outcomes, and also learn.
2) Self critical awareness and responsibility.
Facilitators should continuously examine their behaviour and striving to improve. Error is seen as an opportunity to learn to better. It emphasises personnel responsibility rather removing it to a manual or a set of rigid rules.
3) Sharing.
Not just between rural people and facilitators but between rural people, villages, organisations, etc.

Underpinning these concepts in both RRA and PRA is the concept of triangulation. By only looking at something from one perspective introduces serious bias into the analysis. By introducing two, three, or more points of view a more complete and accurate picture develops of the dynamics of a given situation. RRA attempts to triangulate three different aspects of the study.

The tools RRA and PRA use.

RRA in the early days has been described as the application of common sense. However during the 1980's RRA and PRA has created, developed, adapted a extensive array of techniques. These tools are constantly being refined and changed and highlights the point that CBCP must adapt and develop methods and tools to meet their own specific needs. Some of the tools which have proved effective in RRA/PRA are:

1) Semi-structured interviews.
This means not only having a mental or written check list, but being open-ended and following up on the unexpected.
2) Maps, diagrams, transects, and models.
Communities use the materials (e.g. sticks, stones) they have available and are familiar with to present information pictorially or in a form they can mostly readily identify with.
3) Do-it-yourself.
Asking to be taught to perform village tasks such as farming, thatching, collecting water, etc.
4) Historical profiles.
Determining usually in a pictorial fashion what the community understand to be the most important historical, seasonal events.
5) Ranking techniques.
Communities rank their environment or concerns in order of importance.
6) Games and stories.
Imaginatively using games or stories as shared learning exercises about problems that the community wants to highlight.
7) Secondary sources.
Including reports, maps, aerial photographs, articles and books.
8) Key probes.
The use of questions that lead directly to key issues. For example, "What vegetable, tree, crop, type of animal, tool, would you like to try out".
9) Report writing.

This is done at once on site with all team members before returning to the office or headquarters. Much information and analysis developed through PRAs is a result of the intensive interaction between team members and the community, which needs to be recorded before it is lost.

To more effectively illustrate these techniques and the approach of PRA in particular I would like to now show a short video. It is entitled Garunda Kempanahallii, PRA. It is an account of a PRA exercise carried out in Southern India. It highlights many of the tools outlined above and demonstrates the approach of PRA. I would then like to conclude by examining what changes programmes such as ADMADE would have to make if they wanted to utilise PRA techniques.

Conclusions and Implications for CBCP.

In the past, conservation organisations have used survey techniques to extract information in order to make management decisions. The partnership with local communities was unequal and through enforced protection of resources has even become hostile. If communities are to believe that they are now equal partners in resource management, projects need to establish a new relationship. This new relationship, it is hoped will move away from expert and amateur to mutual respect of the understanding and knowledge each can contribute. In order to build this new relationship, the first need is to establish a dialogue. RRA and PRA methodologies may be able to assist in developing such an effective dialogue. However, it can not assist unless attitudes to idigenous community knowledge and respect changes.

New training programmes will need to be established if project staff are to learn skills related to informal survey techniques. There will need to be a change in attitude that elevates the status of those who have these skills to the same level as for example, wildlife specialists. In addition, projects need to be open to new ideas and solicit the support and active involvement of development organisation.

In attempting to establish a new dialogue projects have to examine their own internal structures for how decisions are made. Participatory approaches to resource management have by implication a decentralised philosophy. Organisations will have to examine their existing structures to determine if they are able to incorporate or adapt to these new needs. For example, in the ADMADE programme how can communities be represented and have a role to play in the functions of the Directorate? RRA and PRA are in keeping with these ideas of community involvement. They promote the philosophy of decentralisation, democracy, and diversity and are opposed to centralisation, authoritarianism, and homogenisation. Furthermore, they promote rapid learning that is able to address issues and problems quickly. Finally, they do it in a way that enables people better to identify and express their priorities.

Working group discussions

A variety of different methods and experiences in reaching communities were discussed in addition to potential use of a PRA or RRA approach. Ways and methods to reach communities and assess community needs included:

* Extension agents or individuals working with wards over a period of years gain insight into community needs through record keeping
* Area managers gain this information through village meetings over time
* Surveys
* Involve local leaders eg chiefs and village headmen at meetings

* Obtain views of minorities in a community (women, ethnic minorities). Use separate meetings if necessary.
* Educational campaigns using a variety of media
* Establish a two way dialogue where the community is a participant rather than a recipient
* A review of existing literature

A primary obstacle to reaching communities was identified as a lack of information. Targeted communities must be given enough time to understand program.

Considerations in reaching communities effectively:

* A community is custodian of it's natural resources. Competetiveness is created by lack of ownership on communal lands
* Support from local government is essential
* The chain of authority can transfer responsibility
* It is important that the poeple elect a spokesman, who must in turn report to the community
* Traditional laws and rules need to be formalized so that distributions of benefits are fair and just

PRA potential in the NRM Project

* Helpful as a "political" action, since it can promote a sense of proprietorship in a community
* Timing is important. Using PRA as an assessment tool could have profited the NRM Project in initial assessments
* It can enhance existing methods of reaching communities and determining needs
* It is less costly and time consuming than other methods
* It is an opportunities for communities to voice their concerns and issues
* It enables the community to learn about itself
* Builds confidence of the community
* It can focus on different target groups
* Provides a self-correcting process in information collection
* Introduces good dialogue between facilitator and community
* Offers insights since it depends on local communities priorities, skills, experiences, knowledge, and resources

Potential disadvantages of the PRA Approach

* Requires a level of training and expertise not only for facilitator but for community leaders
* Community members may find the techniques too primary and insulting
* Would work best for non-indigenous facilitators. Local implementors would have been raised under similar conditions and could find the approach embarrassing
* It's value depends on the strategy used by facilitators to identify the various interest groups
* Participation in PRA exercises could be dominated by the powerful

The discussion of which approach would work was well summed up by one of the participants. Key principles in reaching communities effectively include:

establishing a dialogue
listening
establishing trust
identifying groups
establishing community priorities and needs

If a methodology does this, it will work. If it works - use it.

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WOMEN AS CATALYSTS

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In environmental activities, like the SADCC USAID funded Natural Resources Management Project, there is a growing recognition of the importance of considering community and people level factors. These are the factors that ultimately influence the control, utilization, and protection of natural resources. One of the key factors is gender.

The concept of gender encompasses the behavioral differences between men and women. Gender roles are learned rather than physical. Research and project analysis over the last two decades have shown that failure to incorporate gender considerations in project design and implementation have often resulted in failure of the project. Occasionally it has even had a negative impact on the socio-economic situation of intended beneficiary communities.

Alternatively, experience has shown that recognition of the different actions traditionally and culturally assigned to men and women - gender roles - can assist in the achievement of project outputs. It is equally important to recognize that gender roles are dynamic. As they are cultural rather than physical they can and do change over short periods of time.

Through recognizing gender roles, the part women play in resource management is more readily understood. There is a stereotypic concept in project design and implementation that women are not directly linked to or involved in resource activities. Women's primary purpose is to sustain live at the family level. To achieve this goal, women in the developing world manage and use a range of natural resources on a daily basis including agriculture, forests, fisheries, and wildlife products.

The role of women as farmers is visible and well documented, but women are also collectors of fuelwood. They gather indigenous plants and animals for food and medicines, they are involved in processing and marketing natural products, and they draw and carry water. Women have a direct link with natural resources and a personal interest in a healthy resource base since it affects their daily lives. Since they are so closely tied to the environment, adverse changes such as loss of forest cover, pollution of drinking water, and erosion, affect women and sometimes children disproportionately.

In addition to the linkage between women and resources, it is important to recognize another link, and that is the strong link between poverty and environmental degradation. The very poor must use whatever resources are available in their daily struggle to survive. This struggle is so overwhelming that they can't consider the future consequences of over use and non-sustainable management of resources.

In marginal rural lands, female headed households make up as much as 60% of the community. These are usually the poorest households, and those who must use resources in any manner possible to survive.

Several issues make this link between women and conservation so significant to environmental projects today. A primary factor is that political and ecological changes have made environmental protection a central theme both domestically and internationally. Key issues such as acid rain, the hole in the ozone layer, and protection of endangered species are global rather than local in scope. Increased international cooperation is required to address them. Support for this global concern is shown by the increasing number of international negotiations and conferences have been held to work out common solutions.

A controversial example of this is the CITES ban on ivory sales. Although experts agree that nations in southern Africa have ready supplies of this marketable resource, the international community has banned trade in an attempt to protect the elephant throughout it's range.

Another example of the growing awareness of global problems is the Amazon rain forest. Intensive cutting there has already begun to affect the climate of most of the surrounding nations and caused flooding and siltation to communities downstream. It has reduced the earth's ability to absorb CO2 in the future and contributed to a significant loss of global biodiversity.

It is the global implication of local actions that is focusing world wide attention on environmental concerns. Within the donor community, including USAID, natural resource and environmental projects are becoming increasingly important focal areas. Encompassed in this environmental focus is the importance of understanding gender roles and the design of project activities to be compatible. Within a context of worldwide population growth and the resultant agricultural clearing, loss of forests, soil erosion, siltation of water sources, and desertification, it is essential to involve as many resource users as possible in project planning and implementation.

A second significant link between women and the environment is that women are primary resource users and implicitly resource managers. As such, women are those most often and directly affected by environmental degradation. Traditional gender roles make them particularly vulnerable.

Over Africa, as much as 85% of the farm labor force is women. Besides working in the family's fields, women usually have their own separate crops and gardens. Because of land tenure systems, these are usually on the least desirable agricultural lands and are particularly susceptible to erosion and drought.

Providing fuelwood is one of women's major responsibilities. As deforestation increases, this resource is constantly retreating. In some areas in southern Africa, women spend as much as 5 hours in the collection of fuelwood, and in extreme circumstances women spend much of their waking hours in the collection of fuel for cooking. This is an incredible burden combined with their other responsibilities.

The growing and sale of small livestock - chickens, goats and pigs - is often women's only source of income. As pastures are damaged and overgrazed and the carrying capacity decreases, women are unable to obtain feed for their stock, forced to decrease the size of their herds, or give them up altogether. In doing this, they may lose their one reliable source of income.

Gathering water for drinking, washing, and cooking is traditionally a task for women and girls. As water supplies become affected by erosion and siltation, they must walk greater distances to find safe water and carry back heavy loads for family use.

The linkages between women and wildlife are less visible, but must be recognized. Women are affected both negatively and positively by a change in wildlife populations. In projects seeking to increase wildlife numbers, consideration must be given to the potential affect on women's gardens and fields. Crop damage incidents are likely to increase. Additionally, an increase in wildlife numbers creates a problem for women when they are unable to move freely to collect fuelwood or water for fear of attack. In the SADCC region, electric fences designed to prevent wildlife from entering village areas have also blocked women's access to sources of fuel and water. In one instance, they must walk an extra eight kilometers to go around the fence.

Alternatively, women do receive a positive benefit from increased wildlife numbers. They are involved in processing and marketing animal products, they are involved in beekeeping and in the collection of wildlife such as caterpillars or termites, in some instances women hunt reptiles and birds, and in certain areas women have successfully hunted antelope.

On one hand, women are disproportionately affected by environmental problems, but on the other, they are also potential key contributors to sustainable practices at the local level. This is the another reason to understand the links between women and natural resources and to include gender issues in project design.

Studies indicate that the majority of information is not shared between men and women. Women share information with each other. They transmit values and practices among themselves through formal or informal settings. More important, they instil values in another important group of resource users. Mother's teachings and actions become their children's way of acting. While experts, such as extension agents and conservation authorities, play a major role in the introduction of new practices, women are responsible for the training and educating of children. Their promotion and practice of sustainable practices, can result in these becoming a part of the social structure.

Experience has shown that the success or failure of natural resource projects can be largely dependent on considering the roles that both men and women play in the management of natural resources. Environmental projects increasingly involve both men and women in project design and implementation, taking advantage of pre-existing women's organizations to mobilize community actions, and considering their traditional role in teaching resource values and practices to future generations.

There are a number of case studies illustrating how including or exclusing gender issues has impacted the success of projects. Access to fuelwood is one of women's primary concerns. Growing more trees would seem a simple solution. A major problem in the establishment of firewood plantations arises, though, due to land tenure systems. Because women do not usually have control of the land. For them to plant trees on the land would imply a level of "ownership" not culturally acknowledged. A recent reforestation project in Kenya failed when men refused to allow women to plant trees on communal land.

Other obstacles occur when women have no control of the resource. Traditional gender roles assign planting and care of seedlings to women. However, trees planted by women for fuelwood and cared for by women, are often harvested by men for construction. In many instances, tree species in forestry projects are not fuelwood species. They will provide no benefit to women, but it is assumed in project design that women will provide care. When

gender roles aren't understood and women receive no benefits from a project, they are unwilling to increase their number of responsibilities in order to participate. A common project conceptual failure is the failure to realize that participation does not equal benefits.

In a forestry project in Senegal, both men and women in some villages were involved in choosing tree species. Women chose a mixture of shade species to be planted with the income producing species favored by men. Tree survival for those villages was very h1igh, and the project was a success. Women were willing to assume extra responsibilities if they received a benefit - in this case a fuelwood supply.

Reaching women in projects is not difficult, but does require some planning and thought. For example, women often don't speak at meetings attended by men and may not express their needs and desires from the project. One approach to reach women through networking is the use of women extension agents. In Botswana, female extension agents have used traditional village meetings, or kgotlas, to teach women how to build and use energy efficient cookers. By actually building her own cooker, each woman was able to teach these skills to others.

Using women extension agents isn't the only way to reach women, though. Gender roles and social customs are involved in how women are targeted, and these can and do change. In Malawi, where women constitute a large majority of the agricultural labor force, the Ministry of Agriculture found that they weren't being reached by the agricultural extension. There are few female agents, and the male agents worked most often with groups of men. As a result, 70% of the country's farmers weren't being reached by extension services.

The Ministry of Agriculture instructed male agents to specially target women and gave them extensive training in gender issues and constraints to women's participation. The result has been a successful program in which female farmers are effectively reached through male extension workers. This has further evolved to include the successful use, in Malawi, of female extension workers teaching male farmers - an even further departure from traditional gender roles.

An environmental focus, the importance of gender issues, and the linkage between gender and the environment are now considered central to development activities. The failure by project planners to analyze the different roles played by men and women is a failure to consult with those who ultimately will be affected by the project.

Gender is only one of many factors in the new development paradigm. Local participation, income generation, the environment, privatization and policy reform are all considered. But it is an equally significant factor.

Through recognition of gender roles comes the realization that both women and men do play a central part in resource management and utilization. Involving women and their concerns in the planning and implementation of community based projects allows the project to reach a larger proportion of the community population, allows women the opportunity to fully contribute to sound environmental management, and allows future resource users to grow and learn in a culture where sustainable natural resources values and practices are an integral part of the social structure.

Approaches to Facilitate the Participation of Women in the Development Process

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In looking at gender and gender issues, the terminology is sometimes confusing. Gender is not the same as women. It is not the same as WID - Women in Development, and it is not the same as feminism.

There are many definitions of feminism. Feminism is an ideal. It seeks equality of opportunity between men and women. It questions the laws and conditions in society that reinforce male superiority and female subordination.

WID activities focus primarily on women and don't necessarily look at comparisons to men. WID has been emphasized over the last two decades, and there have been two approaches to including women in project activities:

1) women-specific projects and
2) women's components as a sub-section within a larger project.

There are several disadvantages to both of these. Most of them focus on women's traditional social roles, domestic sciences and health, with a minor emphasis on small scale income generating activities. These approaches tend to keep women on the sidelines - to marginalize them - rather than make them a part of mainstream development.

A third method looks at women as a part of their society. This integrated approach addresses gender issues rather than only women. In southern Africa, both men and women play a central role in natural resource use and management. Because of this, gender is probably more relevant than a WID or feminist approach in project activities.

Gender focuses on social roles. A gender analysis looks at the behavioural differences rather than the physical differences between men and women. For example, in Malawi women gather thatching grass and men perform actual thatching duties. Both men and women are physically and intellectually capable of gathering grass, and both men and women are physically and intellectually capable of thatching a roof. The different activities they perform are gender roles. They are determined by the social and cultural setting. In other countries, men may gather the grass and women may do the thatching.

Another example from Malawi is our group of women conservation officers. This will be discussed in more detail later, but briefly, there has been a stereotype that women are not able to do law enforcement or anti poaching. Because of traditional gender roles, men were enforcement officers. However, since 1989 women scouts with the Department of National Parks have been very effective in enforcement activities.

Unlike physical characteristics, gender roles can and do change over time. Women are now accepted as conservation officers. Possibly in the future men will gather grass and women will do the thatching in Malawi. An understanding of the different actions of men and women in relation to the environment will help in planning NRM project activities that will benefit both.

The extent of women's activities in relation to their environment is just now beginning to be understood. The significance of their impact on natural resources is one of the reasons that women are specially targeted in the the NRM Project.

Women make up more than half of the resource users in southern Africa. They provide as much as 80% of agricultural labor. They farm and make farm decisions. They also collect fuelwood, draw water, and gather natural plants and herbs for food and medicine. One interaction that isn't so easily seen is women's association with wildlife. They gather caterpillars and insects for food, they prepare meat, they process skins, and they are active in fisheries.

Because women's daily routine depends on the use of resources - in agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and wildlife - they are particularly affected by deforestation, loss of watershed, erosion and other environmental problems. Also because their daily routine depends on the resource base, it is important that they are informed on sustainable resource management techniques. Once women can see a benefit from sustainable practices, they can include these practices in their daily resource use. This is especially important because women have an influence on their environment not only today but in the future. It is women who teach attitudes and practices to their children - future resource users. So the inclusion of women in natural resource projects can work towards sustainable resource management and utilization becoming a normal part of a community's attitudes, traditions and practices.

Discussion following presentation:

At a UNICEF conference on Women's Empowerment held in Gaboronne, Sara Hlupekile Longwe presented a conceptual framework with which to view women's involvement in development projects. Use of this framework is applicable as a basis for improving women's involvement in donor projects as well as for analyzing projects across sectors and/or donors.

Five historical types of projects involving women were outlined:

* The Welfare Project: Women as passive recipients
* The Economic Self-Reliance Project: Income generating projects for women
* The Efficiency Project: Increasing women's incomes by increasing their efficiency and productivity in traditional tasks.
* The Equality Project: An introduction of equal treatment and equal opportunity as project objectives. Descriptive vocabulary is expanded from "women" to "gender", with recognition that women's constraints are often socially constructed.
* The Empowerment Project: Equality of opportunity can not be given, but must be taken. This type project involves women's collective mobilization around an activity to ensure they exert control to guarantee that they are treated equally as participants and beneficiaries.

These five types of projects illustrate not only that development concerns increased income and welfare, but the process by which these outcomes are obtained. Although most development agencies endorse the inclusion of women as equal participants and beneficiaires, project implementation does not always result in the equal treatment of women. For true equality in the development process, women's empowerment is a means to overcome obstacles in a patriarchal society.

Longwe outlines five "levels of equality" which include empowerment as a necessary component of the development process at each level: control, participation, awarenes, access and welfare. She suggests that these levels are in hierarchical relationship, so that equlity of control is more important than equality of participation.

Level one: Welfare. Women are passive recipients of benefits. This is the zero level of empowerment, since women's action to improve their own welfare would involve the higher levels of equality.

Level two: Access. Women's unequal socio-economic situation arises from inequality of access. Their lower level of productivity arises from restricted access to the factors of production; land, labor and capital. Equality at this level requires equality of access to resources within and outside the household.

Level three: Awareness. Women realize that their problems do not derive from personal inadequacies, but from social systems. This involves an understanding of gender roles and their changing nature.

Level four: Participation. Women's equal participation in the decision making process. In development, this would include women in needs assessment, project management and implementation, and in evaluation. This level of equality is not easy to obtain and requires affirmative action.

Level five: Control. Women's increased control over the factors of production and equal access to resources and to the distribution of benefits. Neither men nor women are in a position of dominance.

Summary:
This approach offers an opportunity for project implementors to analyze the level at which they are operating. At another level, donor agencies can use this framework to analyze their programs across sectors. At both levels, once gaps are identified, strategies can be put in place to increase the level of equality appropriate to the specific project. The application is based on the premise that empowerment is necessary for women to control their own involvement in opportunities to participate in and benefit from development programs.

Strategies to Involve Women in NRM Programmes

By

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A. BACKGROUND

The Natural Resources Management (NRM) Project Paper has stated the following objectives for targeting women in NRM project activities:

a) Increasing women's participation at the village, ward, and district level
b) Expanding women's participation in the economy through income generating activities that use the natural resource base in a sustainable manner, and
c) Increasing social and rural welfare through increased income, access to protein, community development and the expanded participation of women in the economy and the development process.

It is helpful to examine the above objectives against the global policy approaches (handout) which have impacted women in the Third World to determine linkages.

B. THE NRMP EXPERIENCE (PLUMTREE)

Accessing Women:
There were few or no women in the main stream development or traditional institution's power centres, and I was referred to the "Women's Clubs" through the Village or Ward community worker of the Ministry of Co-operatives. The following channel was tried with these results:

I met few women called "Club Members". This was accepted as such by men and women, and members were used extensively as cooks at meetings, workshops, etc. They also loved this identity and status.

I discussed CAMPFIRE with them and converted a handful, but as per their NGO objectives, their shopping list was for machines and training in sewing and cooking.

Fought for Co-option / election of women to CAMPFIRE committees:
This was easily achieved. The result, though, was that the old, illiterate, and available women attended. I then started to organise meet the "Women in Committees: workshops across the wards through Councillors. Without invitation, men in the committees came in both Huwana and Madlambudzi Wards.
Content of the workshops included the following:

* CAMPFIRE - the concept
* Review of development strategies globally and their impact on men and women / both negative and positive.
* Nutrition and a focus on food security.
* Current environmental and development debate.

Men organise women:
Following these sessions, the men at the workshops became disciples for women's training for development and began openly criticising the stereotype "clubs". It was agreed to take training to the villages, and when I went to confirm the arrangements, I found that the men had invited the women, arranged the venue, wood and water, and were going to participate with more male leaders.

This worked wonders for the two wards in question. When Madlambudzi elected a Ward Committee, several women were elected including two to the positions of Secretary and Treasurer. When CAMPFIRE dividends were paid to the Wards, women's concerns won the day in Huwana, even though it was PreSchools they fought for.

LESSONS TO BE LEARNT

* Women are still subordinate to men and may or may not be allowed to participate in anything that men do not understand or value.

* Women in Plumtree are care-taker heads of households and need male permission to be relayed from across the borders before they can leave their homes to attend meetings / training or to accept positions in committees.

* Stereotype thinking of women and their role and status in society and development exists among both men and women. It is not only a men's or women's problem.

* Women's situation which shapes the women and their perceptions of their role, status and capabilities varies greatly, even at the Ward level. This is very true of Plumtree. The seven Wards are not uniform, and ways must be found to deal with the women and men that live under the influence of the privileged cattle barons.

* Change cannot be imposed, but dialogue on relevant issues of poverty, environment and development etc. should be initiated using acceptable channels. Otherwise, men and women are so accepting of the status quo that nothing will happen.

DIFFERENT POLICY APPROACHES TO THIRD WORLD WOMEN

POLICIES	WELFARE	EQUITY	ANTI-POVERTY	EFFICIENCY	EMPOWERMENT
Origins	Earliest approach: - residual model of social welfare under colonial administration - modernization/ accelerated growth economic development model.	Original WID approach - failure of modernization development policy - influence of Boserup and First World feminists - declaration of UN Decade For Women.	Second WID approach - toned down equity because of criticism - linked to Redistribution with Growth and Basic Needs	3rd and now predominant WID approach deterioration in world economy - policy stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development.	Most recent approach: - arose out of failure of equity approach - Third World Women's feminist writing and grassroot organisations.
Period most popular	1950-70: but still widely used.	1975-85: attempts to adopt it during and since Women,s Decade.	1970s onwards: still limited popularity.	Post 1980s: now most popular approach.	1975 onwards: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity.
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development.	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development.	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as problem of under-development not of subordination.	To ensure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity.	To empower women through greater self-reliance women's subordination seen not only as problem of men but also of colonial and neo-colonial oppression.
Needs of women met and roles recog-nised	To meet PGN* in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and	To meet SGN** in terms of triple role - directly through state top down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by	To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small scale income generating	To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all 3 roles of women and elastically of women's time.	To reach SGN in terms of triple role - indirectly through bottom up mobilization around PGN as means to confront oppression.
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on reproductive role. Non-challenging therefore still widely popular especially with governments and traditional NGOs.	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with governments.	Poor isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognise productive role; Reluctance of governments to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level.	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and *ability to extend working* day. Most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Thirds World and *women's self-reliance.* Largely unsupported by governments and agencies.

* PGN – Practical gender needs
** SGN – Strategic gender needs

Source: C.O.N Moser "Gender Planning in the Third World: Meeting Practical and Strategic Gender Needs" in World Development, Forthcoming 1989.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT FROM BELOW:

THE CASE OF ADMADE PROGRAMME IN ZAMBIA

BETLEM CHONDE

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT OFFICER

A. CLARIFICATION OF TITLE OF PAPER

"Community Development from Below" implies that whatever development initiatives in a given community should first and foremost be designed, implemented monitored and evaluated by the communities themselves who are the main beneficiaries.

- It means that communities can Act on the basis of their own

  1. Priorities
  2. Skills
  3. Experiences
  4. Resources (Time, funds, labour, transport, materials, equipment etc)

- The role of outsiders like me people gathered here as agents of change is just to facilitate local aspirations (what they actually need within the framework of the general policy guidelines and available resources) and not to impose imported strategies and innovations on them (Local Communities) e.g. effect of green revolution in India.

- Hence, the role of Development Professionals/Institutions -Donors, Government, NGOs, Researchers and Universities - is that of gap fillers.

Background of ADMADE

1. ADMADE : ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT DESIGN

   For administering wildlife management through participation and leadership of residents living in the GMAs (show map)

2. Programme ensures that Revenues (monetary terms) realized on generated from the wildlife resource for a particular GMA is shared between local residents of that GMA and wildlife management costs.

   35% community development
   40% wildlife management
   25% WRCF administration

3. Programme started in 1988 without any body with a social science background including a Community Development Officer.

4. It was until 1st January 1992 that I was contracted as C.D.O.

5. My strategy, therefore, was to go to each and every GMA (the top nine - those raising also of revenue) on a survey mission using unstructured red questionnaire method with a view to establish the status of the GMAs.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This summary paper covers the top nine (9) Game Management Areas (GMAs), funded by the WWF-USAID, which were visited between February and June this year. Since it is a community-based development programme the summary main purpose was to establish whether or not the programme has so far captured, and determine the extent, of the following issues:-

1.1 Community interest in the programme: This is the principle in which a given party or group or community has a common concern and readiness in the pursuit of their own welfare.

1.2 Community commitment towards the programme: This is the principle whereby a given party or group or community pledges to do something.

1.3 Community participation in the programme: This is the principle whereby a given party or group or community members do actually take part or share in doing something beneficial to them.

1.4 Community action towards the programme: This is the principle whereby the necessary steps or measures of ensuring that something is being done are taken by the opinion leaders of a given party or group or community.

1.5 Community acceptability of the programme: This is the principle whereby a given party or group or community should display consent and willingness to accept something being externally offered which in essence should be welcome, pleasing, worthy and satisfactory to the recipient.

1.6 Community opportunities either in the areas or the programme itself: This is a principle whereby some good or favorable chances or occasions are offered by a given situation or circumstance for the identification, exploitation and strengthening of talents amongst the members of a given party or group or community.

1.7 Programme sustainability: This is the principle whereby a given project or programme for a given party or group or community would have the ability or capacity to continue existing on its own for a long period either with a minimum or without any external assistance. This is the key and vital part of the project or programme.

The top nine (9) GMAs in question are Namwala, Kasonso-Busanga, Lunga-Luswishi, Fulaza, Munyamadzi, Mumbwa, Sichifulo-Mulobezi, Chikwa-Chfunda and Lumimba respectively. (see Map).

During the visits discussions were held with the respective and concerned authorities in the areas.

Sustainable development should involve a strategy for managing natural resources so that they provide for current needs while ensuring their availability for the future.

In order to foster sustainability of the programme, the Project or Programme itself should right from the start create an atmosphere of or conditions for INSTITUTIONS CAPACITY to organize and manage these resources and the processes of development and change.

ADMADE Programme with a team of specialists is there

- To facilitate Community Participation in managing resources (participatory Management)

- To strengthen institutional capacities of the Wildlife Management Sub-authorities at the level.

Otherwise, short of that, that particular Programme or Project will be a wasted effort and counter-productive to the interests of the communities project beneficiaries in the catchment area(s) respectively.

2.0 FINDINGS: SALIENT FEATURES

2.1 that in principle the Wildlife Management Sub-authority System tries to reverse the usual top-down decision-making process characterized by centralized bureaucracies that have failed to tackle and resolve the development problems of the rural communities more especially those around and within the GMAs and National Parks.

2.2 that in practice the Wildlife Management Sub-authority System has attempted to empower the local people around and within the GMAs and National Parks some say over their respective development needs and on how the available resources would be allocated and utilized in a matter that is acceptable to various interest groups within the catchment areas Viz-a-Viz the church community, political parties, children, men and women (Participatory Management). Such resources include Time, Money (35% shares), Human (self-help contributions and skilled labour force), materials (sands, stones, bricks, water etc) and Transport. Other decision-making is related to the types of projects and their physical location depending on the needs assessment by the communities themselves and the kind of Bank and Account where the share is banked.

2.3 that in practice the Wildlife Management Sub-authority System acts as a forum to sensitize communities within the catchment areas concerning their relationship to wildlife as regards to teaching them on how to sustenably manage such resources for both sustenance purposes. This gives a two-way communication between the communities the wildlife personnel through meetings and exchange of visits between the field Staff/Authority leaders and those at the Warden's office level.

2.4 that in practice the Wildlife Management Sub-authority System tries to assist the communities within the catchment areas to participate in the distribution of resources and wealth of the GMAs as a means of seeking its value to them as reflected in the animal allocation quota system, the 35% community share and the revenues realized from the Hammer Mills respectively.

2.5 that in practice the ADMADE Programme has allowed communities in the GMAs to see TANGIBLE RESULTS in a short period. Indicators of EFFECTIVENESS of the programme include specific items of infrastructure such as construction of schools, RHCs, houses for Teachers and Clinical Officers, the purchases of linen for RHCs, and provision of Hammer Miles (See Table 1)

2.6 that in practice the Sub-authority System offers an opportunity for the communities to focus on their immediate development problems in cooperation with other NGOs and Government agencies. Its advantages are the mobilization of communities knowledge, interest, commitment, participation, resources and action. Apparently it seems that the immediate development problems in the GMAs are the inadequate or lack of schools, RHCs, houses for the teachers and clinical personnel, apart from shortage of water as a result of drought.

2.7 that most Sub-authorities do not have women representation - guidelines for membership were centrally designed by Chilanga Headquarters and imposed upon the sub-authorities (see page 7 of green book)

2.8 Hence in some sub-authorities people have questioned the suitability and popularity the members arguing that their allegiance is to the Chiefs and not to the communities at large as they are more or less appointed and not elected. In view of the Democratic process installed in Zambia some people have called for democratic elections to sub-authority member.

2.9 that Unit Leaders are groomed more on military operations skills and not in leadership and management skills related to community development.

3.0 FUTURE PLAN AND PERSPECTIVE

Following the completion of the Evaluation of the community development projects and activities in the top nine (9) GMAs funded by the USAID-WWF and the subsequent compilation of their respective status reports, the future plan entails.

3.1 the provision of more village facilities like water wells, hammer mills and the establishment/strengthening of Women's Clubs in the respective Sub-authorities.

3.2 the conducting of village-level seminars/workshops for the Sub-authorities and Women's Clubs.

3.3 the introduction of the afforestation programme in the Sub-authorities for Schools and Women's Clubs.

3.4 the employment of and Assistant Community Development Officer (ACDO) to be responsible specifically for gender issues in the Sub-authorities.

3.5 the employment of Community Facilitators in some Sub-authorizes with alot community projects and activities. These Facilitators shall serve as Community Extension Officers to facilitate and coordinate community projects and activities in the areas. They shall be provided with an appropriate mode of transport to facilitate their mobility in their work.

NB: The required Women's Clubs, Water Wells and Hammer Miller as well as their distribution are shown in Table 2, 3 and 4 respectively. Similarly, the justification for each activity or project is shown as Annex.

4.0 Conclusion: From the above articulation it is self-explanatory that the ADMADE Programme has has integrated approach to community development around and within the GMAs and National Parks basically because it tries to persue the following objectives:-

4.1 Participatory: By involving the local communities in decision-making to determine their own destiny at the Sub-authority level.

4.2 Equity: By selling Game meat at affordable prices to local people through the Culling System and Local Resident Licences as a source of protein for the communities in the food diets with a view to strike a balance with those people in the urban centres.

4.3. Growth: By creating job opportunities for the local people as village scouts, casual workers and specialized workers like Bricklayers and Carpenters with a reasonable wage to enable them meet some basic essentials for domestic use and consumption in a rural environmental, as well as the funding of community projects such as Hammer mills, schools, Rural Health Centres, potential Women's Clubs and water wells etc aimed at reducing the gap between the urban and rural areas thereby curbing the rural-urban migration.

4.4 Specialization: By using a team of specialists with interrelated and self-enforcing activities aimed at the Community Development component. These are the Management Biologists, Land use planners, Training Officers Sociologists, Development Officers etc. it is for the integrative nature of the Programme that the affected local communities have developed alot of expectations/aspiration from it - though they may not be fully aware of its intended long-term objectives since no village level seminar/workshop has been conducted for them.

TABLE 1: NATURE OF COMMUNITY PROJECTS BEING EXECUTED IN THE SUB-AUTHORITIES SINCE 1989

NO	GMA	SUB-AUTHORITY	H/MILL SHELTER	SCHOOL	T/ HOUSE	RHC	RHC EXT	RHC HOUSE
1	Sichifulo-Mulobezi	Chikanta	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Nyama	-	1	-	-	1	-
		Moomba	1	2	2	-	-	-
		Siachitema	-	-	2	1	-	-
2	Mumbwa	Mulendema	-	2	-	-	-	1
		Kabulwebulwe	1	1	3	-	-	-
		Chibuluma	-	3	3	-	-	-
3	Namwala	Kaungu	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Musungwa	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Shezongo	1	-	1	-	-	-
		Shimbizhi	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Chiliabufu	-	-	1	-	-	-
4	Kasonso-Busanga	Mushima	1	-	-	1	-	-
5	Lunga-Luswishi	Kasonso	1	1	-	1	-	-
6	Fulaza	Lundu	1	-	-	1	-	-
7	Munyamadzi	Nabwalya	1	1	-	-	-	-
8	Chikwa-Chifunda	Chikwa	1	1	-	1	-	-
		Chifunda	-	1	2	1	-	-
9	Lumimba	Chitungulu	-	-	3	-	1	-
		Kazembe	-	1	1	-	-	-
		Mwanya	1	-	2	1	-	-
TOTALS	9	21	9	14	23	7	2	2

TABLE 2: BUDGET FOR WOMEN CLUBS IN THE TOP NINE GMAs FUNDED USAID-WWF

NO	GMA	SUB-AUTHORITY	NAME OF CLUB	AMOUNT REQUIRED (K)
1	Sichifulo-Mulobezi	Chikanta	Chikanta	250,000
		Nyama	Nyama	250,000
		Moomba	Moomba	500,000
		Siachitema	Siachitema	228,000
2	Mumbwa	Mulendema	Lutale	400,000
		Kabulwebulwe	Kabulwebulwe	250,000
		Chibuluma	Chibuluma	350,000
3	Namwala	Kaingu	Kaingu	250,000
		Musungwa	Musungu	250,000
		Shezongo	Shezongo	250,000
		Shimbizhi	Shimbizhi	250,000
		Chiliabufu	Chiliabufu	250,000
4	Kasonso-Busanga	Mushima	Mushima	250,000
5	Lunga-Luswishi	Kasonso	Kasonso	250,000
6	Fulaza	Lundu	Lundu	250,000
7	Munyamadzi	Nabwalya	Natweshe	500,000
8	Chikwa	Chikwa	Chilumba	250,000
			Chodina	300,000
			Tyezyeko	300,000
		Chifunda	Chifunda	300,000
9	Lumimba	Chitungulu	Peter Hanken	250,000
		Kazembe	Kazembe	250,000
		Mwanya	Mwanya	250,000
TOTAL	**9**	**21**	**23**	**5,878,000**

TABLE 3: BUDGET FOR WATER WELLS/BOREHOLES IN THE TOP NINE GMAs FUNDED USAID-WWF

NO	GMA	SUB-AUTHORITY	NO. OF WELLS	ESTIMATED COST (K)
1	Sichifulo-Mulobezi	Chikanta	1	256,000
		Nyama	1	256,000
		Moomba	1	256,000
		Siachitema	1	256,000
2	Mumbwa	Mulendema	1	256,000
		Kabulwebulwe	1	256,000
		Chibuluma	1	256,000
3	Namwala	Kaingu	1	256,000
		Musungwa	1	256,000
		Shezongo	1	256,000
		Shimbizhi	1	256,000
		Chiliabufu	1	256,000
4	Kasonso-Busanga	Mushima	1	256,000
5	Lunga-Luswishi	Kasonso	1	256,000
6	Fulaza	Lundu	2	512,000
7	Munyamadzi	Nabwalya	3	768,000
8	Chikwa	Chikwa	3	768,000
		Chifunda	3	768,000
9	Lumimba	Chitungulu	3	768,000
		Kazembe	3	768,000
		Mwanya	3	768,000
TOTAL 9		**21**	**34**	**8,704,000**

TABLE 4: BUDGET FOR WATER WELLS/BOREHOLES IN THE TOP NINE GMAs FUNDED USAID-WWF

NO	GMA	SUB-AUTHORITY	NO. OF HAMMER MILL	ESTIMATED COST (K)
1	Sichifulo-Mulobezi	Chikanta	1	550,000
		Nyama	1	550,000
		Moomba	-	-
		Siachitema	1	550,000
2	Mumbwa	Mulendema	1	550,000
		Kabulwebulwe	-	-
		Chibuluma	1	550,000
3	Namwala	Kaingu	1	550,000
		Musungwa	1	550,000
		Shezongo	-	-
		Shimbizhi	1	550,000
		Chiliabufu	1	550,000
4	Kasonso-Busanga	Mushima	-	-
5	Lunga-Luswishi	Kasonso	-	-
6	Fulaza	Lundu	-	-
7	Munyamadzi	Nabwalya	-	-
8	Chikwa	Chikwa	-	-
		Chifunda	1	550,000
9	Lumimba	Chitungulu	1	550,000
		Kazembe	1	550,000
		Mwanya	-	-
TOTAL 9		**21**	**12**	**6,600,000**

ANNEX: **JUSTIFICATION FOR ADDITIONAL RESOURCES**

ITEM NO.	ACTIVITY/PROJECT	JUSTIFICATION
1	Water Wells	To provide clean water to Communities and Counteract the problem of drought in the areas.
2	Hammer Mills	To lighten the burden of women who spend too much time on pounding maize/millet sorghum using traditional method.
3	Women Clubs	To teach women some income - generating and Home Economics skills to facilitate their participation in the ADMADE.
4	Afforestation Programme	To provide timber/wood both for fuel and building/construction purposes and as a protective measure against de-forestation in the GMAs.
5	Seminars/ workshops	To educate inform and sensitize to communities on the need for them to conserve wildlife and what ADMADE is doing for the local communities around the GMAs with specific reference to community development vis-a-vis community participation and development projects raising from wildlife conservation respectively.
6.	S/Wagon Vehicle (Diesel Engine)	The most cost effective mode of transport in terms of running expenses and to accommodate District based officer when going out in the field for seminars/workshops
7	Recruitment of A/CDO (Females)	To be responsible for Gender issues in the GMAs aimed at integrating women in the development process.
8	Recruitment of Community Facilitators	To be responsible for the identification of community needs in form of projects, activities and training and to facilitate and coordinate their execution in the respective sub-authorities

INTEGRATING WOMEN INTO NATURAL RESOURCES PROJECTS: THE MALAWI EXPERIENCE

By

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ABSTRACT

Women must be integrated into wildlife utilization schemes as both participants and beneficiaries in order to ensure better management of the resource-base and improved community welfare.

This paper is a brief outline on womens' role in programmes under Malawis' Department of National Parks and Wildlife. The focus is on women employees deployed within the department, unlike on women who obtain direct utilitarian benefits from wildlife projects. This approach is by design.

General observations are made on gender issues within the Department of National Parks and Wildlife in Malawi. Some criteria in deploying women in specific programmes are supplied. Also highlighted are instances of outstanding performance by the department's women employees.

*Department of National Parks and Wildlife is abbreviated as DNPW in this paper.

1.0. GENERAL INFORMATION

It is generally acknowledged that wildlife programmes in Malawi have for a long period been considered as male-oriented activities. Even as late as 1973, the year the DNPW became an autonomous government agency, its 200 or so permanently established staff was predominantly (save for few secretarial, accounting and expatriate personnel).

It must be stated that up to about mid 1980s, there were in principal no elaborate community-based wildlife utilisation projects. Policies governing the management of both National Parks and Game Reserves emphasized non-consumptive use of protected resources, principally through eco-tourism. Strict law enforcement programmes were rigorously pursued.

Current international philosophy, however, is that conservation areas should be developed with due regard to the social and economic aspects of the regions in which they are situated. National Parks and Wildlife sanctuaries must bow to the ever increasing pressure exerted by local people who rely on them for subsistence products. Following extensive debate, the general consensus within DNPW is that conservation areas in Malawi must be built on notion of sustainable utilization.

Munthali and Mughogho (1992) explain that the DNPW has realised that emphasis on law enforcement and non-consumptive wildlife utilisation without the support of the local people neighbouring protected areas may critically cripple efforts in preserving the country's biodiversity. Again, the DNPW is cognisant of fact that wildlife utilisation schemes in the country will largely be based on micro-species e.g. bees, caterpillars, and forest produce such as mushrooms.

It has been documented elsewhere by some leading anthropologists that while men are primarily the hunters of large mammals, women in rural communities interact with many forms of wildlife in ways that are of particular interest. Women play important roles in sighting, capturing/gathering insects, fish, bird eggs, rodents and other forest produce such as mushrooms, wild berries and fruit for food, herbs for medicine, grass for thatch and trees for fuel. As both users and managers of the natural resource-base, women have an extensive knowledge of their environment.

It is thus premised that if women interests are included, benefits from wildlife projects can be increased. It is against such backdrop that the DNPW advocates a gender approach to development. It is understood that participation of both men and women plays a key role in enhancing effectiveness and success of projects. The government of Malawi, in general, regards as priority the involvement of women in all spheres of development.

It must be mentioned that when the DNPW in Malawi first recruited a Malawian woman to assume leadership role (let alone to engage women scouts) some male officers, even those outside the department, had some misapprehensions about the move. They seriously feared that this was going to introduce feminism or weaknesses in an otherwise paramilitary set-up.

2.0 ACTIVITY PROFILE

2.1 Women in Education and Extension Services

The first Malawian woman with university training was recruited in 1984. She was attached to the Education and Extension arm of DNPW. Apart from being made co-ordinator of wildlife clubs in the country, she was also assigned the task of producing and presenting Visual Aid Material. This was an important decision on part of DNPW. Extension personnel are frequently in contact with the general public, including students.

Involving women in wildlife extension services has todate grown substantially. The effect of this is that rigid stereotypes are getting removed and the belief that wildlife programmes are masculine is eroding away. Four women scouts are, at the time of writing this paper, in Wildlife Education and Extension Services In Malawi.

2.2 Women in Planning

In 1989 it was found essential that a Malawian women be placed in the 'Planning Unit' for a department with projects in which women play significant roles.

Women are familiar with women issues in wildlife, and with methods of ensuring that womens' interests are taken into account in project formulation and that womens' impact is monitored in evaluation.

When the DNPW deployed a woman at Headquarters as Planning Officer in 1989, it was another important strategy in ensuring that women involved in identification and planning of wildlife projects.

2.3 Bee-Keeping Extension Workers

One of the lessons from the Bee-Keeping project at Nyika National Park is that women scouts in extension are better suited to working with fellow women in 'women only' bee-keeping clubs.

Culturally, this arrangement is most preferred in this part of the world because it has less barriers. Women on their own are par and can discuss issues at their own wave length as opposed to male-female arrangements in which men uphold the view that they always dictate matters. In male-female interactions, there is a tendency of females to be submissive and therefore placed at a receiving end. The Malawi-German Beekeeping Development Project (Nyika Sector) has at the time of writing this paper two female extension workers.

2.4 Women in Law Enforcement Operations

Most people would like to learn whether women can capably round up poachers or track down trophy traffickers. A fine example from Malawi comes from Vwaza Marsh Game Reserve, where a woman scout is known to have apprehended during a single incident three male poachers, single handed. This is a feat which other male scouts, as individuals, have never accomplished.

In fact M.W. Matemba (Chief Parks and Wildlife Officer - DNPW) describes women scouts as best suited in situations calling for investigation. In particular in Urban Law-enforcement. These are crack down operations on illicit trophy trading.

About twelve women scouts are today attached to the management arm of the DNPW. Very often, they contribute effectively towards urban law-enforcement in which several hoards of ivory, for example, have been recovered from traffickers. All one can say is that law-enforcement work is not exclusively physical drives. They are operations relying on tact/thought/investigation as well, to which women have demonstrated that they can contribute abundantly.

2.5 Other

There are other assignments (such as gate keeping, accounting or stores-keeping) in which women scouts in Malawi have earned praise. Women scouts are generally more courteous, polite, honest and submissive. These are important traits or attributes for personnel engaged in gate-keeping where (among other things) they come into contact with visitors from different backgrounds, where they handle government

revenue or even supply information to tourists. At all National Parks gates/barriers in Malawi, Women Scouts are in attendance.

3.0 CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the foregoing, it is apparent that women employees with Malawis' Department of National Parks and Wildlife contribute meaningfully towards its functions.

In the opinion of Executive Officer at National Parks Head Office, women scouts are happy and quite prepared to face challenges. Other views point to the fact that apart from the sectors in which women are currently deployed, more ways should be explored in order to strengthen their participation. Examples being:-

*Projects on Management of Watershed areas; domestic water supply. Most protected areas in Malawi are important sources of water i.e. catchments. The aim should be to make available clean and steady flow of water from conservation areas into adjoining rural settlements. This will enable people to become more aware on values of conservation areas.

*Projects on community facilities, in particular Health Centres. These to be partially or wholly funded and run by DNPW.

These developments might assist in the creation of positive attitude on part of people towards conservation areas. An era has dawned in which the DNPW in Malawi can no longer afford to peripheralise women issues/needs. More ways ought to be identified to help the rural community face todays' problems. Good programmes on health and nutrition must be developed based on sustainable use of natural resources. Wildlife resources become at the helm of disaster e.g. during current drought.

ANNEX 1

Methodology

In gathering information for this paper, the following methods were employed:-

1. Some official documents and reports were studied in order to draw out background information.

2. Interviews with some officials within the Department of National Parks and Wildlife in Malawi were carried out. Women employees included.

PUBLICATIONS

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OVERCOMING STEREOTYPES : WOMEN IN CONSERVATION

by

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As Mr Shaba has already explained, at first the Department of National Parks and Wildlife recruited female staff for interpretation services in gates and information rooms.

However recent developments have allowed female staff to go on long patrols and carry out the same services as male staff.

I would like to share the experience I had on an antipoaching patrol I had a chance to participate in a 4 - day antipoaching patrol which took place at Mpwapwata area in Liwonde National Park.

We camped for three days and my male colleagues were cooperative. I mention this because the original belief was that men and women can not go together on patrol because they will have social problems.

As I say my experience was trouble-free and we made an arrest of two poachers incidentally they were females. This comes to prove that while men can have a positive and negative impact on natural resources, women are the same.

VILLAGE SCOUTS REEMPOWER LOCAL RESIDENTS IN WILDLIFE CONSERVATION IN LUANGWA VALLEY ZAMBIA

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LUANGWA VALLEY - ZAMBIA

1. INTRODUCTION

The recent history of Wildlife Protection in Africa shows National Governments to have a dominant role by employing Wildlife Scouts to protect wildlife against illegal uses. Unless those governments are able to provide adequate funding, manpower and leadership to sustain these efforts, Wildlife Resources will not be safe from the destructive pressures of habitat change and illegal hunting. Contemporary attempt to explore community based approaches to conservation are funding more cost effective and sustainable ways of managing wildlife without a complete dependence on central government authorities. What seems to be emerging from these efforts is a new found principle. A genuine partnership between legal institutions of the state and the local authorities of traditional African Society yields more lasting solution to conservation if the benefits of the resource and the responsibility for managing it are returned to the local communities. For the purpose of this paper, this principle will be referred to as "people state partnership".

Zambia has embodied this principle in its policy for managing its 35 Game Management Areas. These are semi-protected buffer zones surrounding National Parks. Various consumptive uses of Wildlife Resource, namely Hunting, and fishing, are legally allowed to serve the interests of the local hunters, commercial sport hunting and fishermen in the areas. The local community participation to regulate both the legal and illegal uses of Wildlife in Zambia's Game Management areas in an important application of the principle. An example of such participation is through local villagers who are selected by their local community to serve in their Chiefdom as village scouts. They are given the responsibility and legal backing of the state of safe guard the local natural resources on behalf and with support of their own village communities. Before assuming this role village scouts are provided training by the government to equip them with the skills and techniques to carry out their duties effectively.

Zambia initiated the village scout programme experimentally from 1984 to 1987 in Lupande Game Management Area, and because of its success in Lupande Game Management Area it was a major component of the government's new community-based approach to manage Game Areas. This policy was adopted in 1987 and is referred to the Management Design for Game Areas (ADMADE).

2. VILLAGE SCOUTS AND LOCAL PARTICIPATION

The government employed Wildlife Scouts have legal powers under the Wildlife Act of Zambia to apprehend individuals who contravene the Laws design to conserve Wildlife. These Wildlife Scouts are paid from the Central Government Treasury through the National Parks and Wildlife Services Department, which also recruits and train these Scouts. Over the past thirty years of Zambia's National Parks and The Game Management Areas have been stuffed with such Civil Servant Scouts. Rarely

are they residents of the areas they are stationed.

Formerly Wildlife and other natural resources were entrusted to traditional authorities; Namely Chiefs and Village Headman, who maintained cultural practices for deregulating the uses of these resources. Current efforts in Zambia to deregulate Central Government control of the management and development of the Wildlife Resources through its ADMADE Policy are being achieved through Wildlife Management Authorities, and Wildlife Management Sub-Authorities. These sub-authorities are extensions of traditional ruling structures. They are chaired by the Chief and members including Headman and other respected members of the community. Local issues concerning resource needs or uses of the community. Local issues concerning resource needs or uses of the resource benefits by the community are discussed at this level. Ideas for adoption into annual management world plans or community improvement projects and their respective annual budgets are passed on to the Wildlife Management authorities for that particular Game Management Area. Members of these authorities include chairmen of the sub-authorities and appointed technical and Administrative Government Advisors, residing within the region.

It's through these local Chiefs and their sub-authorities that young men and women are selected for training as village Scouts. The salaries for the Village Scouts are financed from the revenues that belong to the Wildlife Management Authorities, earned from both commercial uses of Wildlife Resources in accordance with the Wildlife Act within thee authorities' Game Management Area. The Village Scouts may be disciplined by their respective sub-authority or the main Management authority, and they are supervised on daily bases by a specially trained National Parks and Wildlife Service Officer called the Unit Leader. This person provides an active force to the people state partnership principle by being responsible to the Director of National Parks and Wildlife Service for Administering the Wildlife Management programmes in that Game Management Area; but in accordance with the aspirations of the local community by liaising with the community leaders on Wildlife matters.

The growth of the Village Scouts both in numbers now totalling 3546 and distributed in five different provinces and as a concept offers an opportune reempowering local communities in the conservation effort.

This paper provides such a review of the village scout programme in Zambia. The results of this review also provide the basis for future recommendations of this programme and addresses gender issues,, future training expanding the roles of village Scouts and community perceptions.

3. THE STUDY AREAS

Three Game Management Areas covers an area of 4500sq kilometres and there are Chiefdoms namely:- Mwanya, Chitungulu and Kazembe. In this game management area two chiefdoms were sampled being Mwanya and Chitungulu.

Sandwe Game Management Area covers an area of 11530 square kilometres and there is only one Chiefdom within the game management area. Chikwa/Chifunda covers an area of 8350 square kilometres and only Chikwa area was sampled.

All the game management areas lie within Luangwa Valley in the Eastern region of Zambia.

4. METHODS

SOURCES OF DATA

There are three sources of information from which this review is based:-

1. Local residents in the areas where village scouts work.

2. National Parks and Wildlife Officers called Unit Leaders, who supervise Village Scouts.

3. Village Scouts themselves when they were first recruited for training and after several years of service in the field.

All the data were collected from the questionnaire interviews for the first category; village communities were sampled by a random selection of Adult members from communities in for Chiefdoms within the three game management areas in the Luangwa Valley. (See table 1). The interview questions focused on perceptions and altitude towards both regular civil servants scouts based in their area and the village scouts.

These chiefdoms and their respective sample sizes were:- Chikwa 4,337 square kilometres, Chitungulu 1,500 square kilometres and Sandwe 1,530 square kilometres.

For each sample approximately one-third of the respondents were adult females with mean age of 25 years.

The second category were unit leaders who had effectively served in the ADMADE Programme for at least 18 months and this sample totalled 10. The final category was comprised of two groups, Village Scout trainees from 1989 and 1990 and Village Scouts who have served for at least 18 months each of the above four Chiefdoms.

5. RESULTS

WORK PERFORMANCE

a. Patrol Performance

From the results received from both the local residents and the Unit Leaders it was proved that village scout go out on patrol more often than the regular scouts. According to the percentage the village scout scored 71% as compared to 12% of the regular scouts.

b. Crop Protection

The results reveal that village scouts respond more quickly to reports on control of crop raiders than regular scouts because their score and percentage are higher.

c. Who Works Harder

The results from the score and percentage shows that village scouts work harder than the regular scouts ie. 56% as compared to 9%.

d. Who is more absent from work

It has been proved from questionnaire results that regular scouts are more often absent from work that the village scouts.

e. Who is better trained

The results show that both village scouts and regular scouts obtain almost the same training though regular scouts have a slight advantage of being a civil servant.

f. Who takes action more quickly in work

The results reveal that village scouts respond quickly to work than the civil servants regular scouts.

CHARACTER STRENGTH

a. Who does more drinking

It has been proved that village scouts drink more that beer than the regular scouts.

b. Respect to villagers

Regular scouts tend to have more respect to villagers than the village scouts.

c. Fights and quarrels

It has been proved the scores and percentage that the village scouts quarrels more with villagers that the regular scouts.

d. Discipline

From the scores and percentage the civil servants regular scouts are more disciplined than the village scouts.

6. PROFILE OF VILLAGE SCOUTS

The village scouts recruited into ADMADE Programme are from all over Zambia. All are residents in their respective Chiefdoms with varying back grounds and formal education. Recruits must first pass six months training course before they qualify as village scouts. The criteria for selection are deliberately minimal to allow the Chiefs and their advisors as much Freedom as possible to choose individuals they believe would best serve area. Only two conditions are made. Good health and working knowledge of English. The later is over looked if the trainee possesses enough qualities to compensate this deficiency. Literacy in his own tribal language is mandatory for filling out field data forms.

This section summarizes the results of interviews with trainees from two different in-takes of recruits from 1989 and 1990 totalling to 221. This number represents 57% of the total recruits trained as village scouts. From this sample five were females. The mean age was 25 years with a range from 18 to 38 years, seventy percent were married. Of those having children mean number was 2 to 1 with a range from 1 to 6. Fifty-one (51%) percent attained no higher than grad 7 formal education and the

highest education was grade 12 represented by 4 percent of the recruits. Prior to 1992 the ADMADE Policy delegated the selection of recruits to the local Chiefs. To determine whether this procedure was being followed, the trainees were asked how they were selected and 83% percent confirmed their selections was through the Chiefs. In addition 22 percent of those recruited were relatives of the Chiefs. Forty-Nine percent had no previous employment experience. When asked whether they has ever been involved in poaching, 9 percent of those who gave a reply admitted they had previously poached while the remaining 91 percent had not. 83 percent were familiar with the poaching activity, in their area and could provide specific descriptions on the techniques used by poachers for killing wildlife.

7. SELF ASSESSMENT BY VILLAGE SCOUTS

Criteria to this study is a self assessment of the village scout programme by the village scouts themselves. The village scouts were interviewed privately by a trained questionnaire enumerator. The village scouts were not required to give their names and were told that their answers would remain anonymous to free them from feeling constrained by the way they might answer questions.

8. VIEWS FROM THE LOCAL RESIDENTS

The objective of this survey was to determine what altitudes local residents have towards village scouts in relation to regular civil servant scouts.

The respondent was therefore asked whether he/she thought the difference existed. Only those who responded positively were interviewed further.

Among the four sampled Chiefdoms, the percentage varied little and ranged from 88 percent for both Sandwe and Chikwa and 93 percent for Chitungulu. Further questions were asked to demonstrate whether respondents had an accurate assessment of the differences between a village scout and a regular civil servant scout. This was done in terms of who:-

(i) Who pays their salaries
(ii) How they are selected
(iii) Where they are trained
(iv) Where they are posted after training

For each question the mean percentage of respondents who answered correctly was 82 percent.

Given that sample of respondents had a basic knowledge of who village scouts are and how they differed with regular scouts the next question focused on work performance and personal character (see table 1). The scorings were calculated from the following formula (total percentage of respondents answering village scouts/total percentage of respondents regular scouts).

If the percentage for village scouts is less than the percentage for regular scouts, the numerator and the denominator were reversed. A negative value indicates a negative qualify and scorings were relative to regular scouts. For five of the six questions used to probe village altitudes towards scouts work performance, village scouts were rated more positively than regular scouts.

In terms of character strength the results were reversed. This showed that local people viewed village scouts to be hard workers but lacked discipline.

In a programme which encourages local participation in wildlife acceptance of this approach would predict a willingness by residents to report the present of poachers to village scouts. This prediction was not observed in this study. Respondents were asked the question "to whom they report when poachers are seen". For Mwanya and Chitungulu's areas the majority answered either to an ADMADE Senior Officer (Unit Leader) or the Chief ; where as Sandwe showed a relatively high percentage who reported the village scouts (29) as compared to only 5 and 98 for Mwanya and Chitungulu's areas. These responses could be interpreted as alternative forms of co-operation consistent with the principle. In Chikwa the residents showed a low willingness to co-operate with wildlife protection through ADMADE approach. When asked "who do you disapprove, regular scouts or village scouts", residents from Mwanya, Chitungulu and Sandwe showed a higher approval rating for village scouts. The reverse was observed in Chikwa where the residents favoured regular scouts despite their lower work performance.

An important way for the residents to learn about the work of a village scout and material benefits wildlife is bringing through the introduction of ADMADE into these areas is through the wildlife management sub-authority meetings. It is here where the local residents debate and plan on uses of wildlife revenues earned through ADMADE Programme. It is also at these meetings Unit Leaders provide information on wildlife management problems to the community.

When asked whether "respondents had ever attended any ADMADE Meeting" the Chikwa sample showed the lowest percentage of 8 to 25, 45 and 20 for the other three Chiefdoms. This would suggest a weakness of the ADMADE Programme in Chikwa by the relative absence of dialogue and community participation during these sub-authority meetings and could be a contributory factor to disparity in perceptions towards village scouts in Chikwa area.

In Sandwe villagers rely on their own agricultural harvests for food and extra income, therefore the crop destruction by wildlife can be major a contributing factor to negative altitude towards wildlife. Village scouts are trained to safe guard against crop damage and to evaluate the degree this work is being done and recognized by the community, a set of questions were asked on this subject.

In 1987 only 45% of the respondents had requested for a village scout to assist in crop protection. Byu 1992 the level had risen to 60%. Respondents were then asked how often did village scouts actually come when their services were requested. In 1987 non came; by 1992 they had risen to 70%. The perceptions towards village scouts effectiveness is dealing with small, medium and large mammals were asked. For large and medium size mammals there was a noted improvement from 5% to 50 % and from 10% to 25% respectively. No change was observed on small mammals.

In terms of overall approval rating of village scouts in 1987 only 13% disapproved the statement. In 1992 the percentage was 80. Among the questions that asked to understand the reason for these different ratings, only village scouts were ready to drive animals away that may damage the crops. The most reasons of disapproval of regular scouts were:-

(i) the scouts were unfriendly and lacked discipline

(ii) they did not protect their crops
(iii) they exposed informers who reported about poaching

9. VIEWS FROM UNIT LEADERS

The Senior staff Officers from National Parks and Wildlife services who supervise the village scouts are the Unit Leaders. These are officers who are trained specifically to administer the ADMADE Programme in the Game Management Areas. They reside in the game management area and are in contact with the activities of village scouts and on daily basis. For this study the Unit Leaders were selected as a source of views about village scouts if they had a minimum 18 months of service as a Unit Leader with proven competency in Leadership and administrative skills. A sample of ten met these criteria. Each was given the same questions the local communities were asked for assessing work performance and character strengths for two classes of scouts. The questionnaires were filled out privately and were not signed to ensure against external pressures.

The results were that frequency for no difference between the two categories of scouts ranged from 1 to 6 for the 10 questions. The Unit Leaders who perceived a difference showed a more positive assessment of village scouts than regular scouts (see table 1). There were three exceptions:-

(i) village scouts do more drinking.
(ii) regular scouts are better trained
(iii) village scouts and regular scouts are equally quarrel some with local residents.

In relation to the results of the community perception towards these two types of scouts, there was an overall agreement that village scouts provide greater work performance than regular scouts. In terms of character strengths Unit Leaders provided a more positive evaluation of village scouts that the local community.

10. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that the local community participation in conservation of wildlife and other resources within the semi-protected areas these being game management areas is the only answer now.

Village scouts work performance has proved to be far much better than the civil servant scouts because the village scouts feel the resource is theirs since they are bonafide residents of that game management area, therefore it's their lively hood and hence it has to be guarded with vigorous approach.

The results from the programme are encouraging in the sense that the local communities are able to see the direct benefits from their resource they manage on sustainable basis.

WORK PERFORMANCE

TABLE 1

CHIEF'S AREAS

		MWANYA	CHITUNGULU	CHIKWA	SANDWE	TOTAL:	SCORE		U/L	SCORE
A. Who goes on more patrols	Regular scouts	17	10	17	0	44	12%		0	0%
	Village scouts	62	63	62	76	263	71%	5.0	4	40%
	No difference	13	20	18	10	61	17%		6	60%
B. Who does more crop protection	Regular scouts	7	13	5	2	27	7%		3	30%
	Village scouts	28	13	7	29	107	27%	3.0	6	60%
	No difference	65	45	88	69	266	67%		1	10%
C. Who works harder?	Regular scouts	7	10	17	2	36	9%		0	0%
	Village scouts	65	58	38	63	221	56%	5.2	5	50%
	No difference	28	33	45	34	140	35%		5	50%
D. Who is more absent from work?	Regular scouts	48	43	30	22	143	36%		0	0
	Village scouts	5	5	10	7	27	7%	4.3	7	88%
	No difference	47	53	60	71	231	58%		1	10%
E. Who is better trained?	Regular scouts	37	25	52	20	134	33%		7	70%
	Village scouts	38	45	22	34	139	34%	0.0	1	10%
	No difference	25	38	27	46	136	33%		2	20%
F. Who takes action in work more quickly	Regular scouts	12	10	5	5	32	8%		1	10%
	Village scouts	60	40	20	49	169	42%	4.3	5	50%
	No difference	28	50	73	46	197	49%		4	40%

CHARACTER STRENGTHS

		MWANYA	CHITUNGULU	CHIKWA	SANDWE	TOTAL:	SCORE		U/L	SCORE
A. Who does more drinking?	Regular scouts	20	23	10	2	55	15%		0	0%
	Village scouts	27	53	50	32	162	44%	1.9	3	33%
	No difference	45	18	38	51	152	41%		6	67%
B. Who is more respectful to villagers	Regular scouts	38	25	57	37	157	39%		0	0%
	Village scouts	28	33	15	15	91	23%	0.7	6	60%
	No difference	33	43	28	49	153	38%		4	40%
C. Who fights and quarrels more with villagers	Regular scouts	12	10	5	5	32	8%		3	38%
	Village scouts	25	30	37	15	107	27%	2.3	3	38%
	No difference	63	60	58	80	261	65%		2	25%
D. Who has more discipline?	Regular scouts	40	30	62	27	159	40%		1	10%
	Village scouts	28	40	13	22	103	26%	0.5	8	80%
	No difference	32	30	25	51	138	35%		1	10%

SATURNIIDAE CATERPILLAR COLLECTION
KASUNGU NATIONAL PARK

by

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1. BACKGROUND

Kasungu National Park was designated as a national park in 1970. Some parts of the park were originally inhabited by people but had to be moved out due to the status of a National Park. Another contributing factor was the occurrence of trypanosomiasis to the presence of Tsetse Flies in the area.

Over the years, farms and villages have been established outside the national park. The most dominant being tobacco farms. Most of the tobacco being grown flue cured tobacco. This has resulted in most of the natural tress being cut down outside the park for tobacco curing and fuelwood.

As a result of all this, saturniidae caterpillars are non existent outside the park due to absence of forage tree species. From time in history, Saturniidae Caterpillars have been a delicacy amongst the people living on the boundaries of the national park.

THE PROJECT:

Policies governing the management of protected areas in Malawi have so far stressed on non-consumptive utilization, tourism, and law enforcement. Through reinterpretation of the Wildlife Act and redefining of the departments' policy, the Department of National Parks and Wildlife made the decision to open up Kasungu to collection of Saturniidae Caterpillar.

The project was initiated by the Department with no donor funding.

IMPLEMENTATION:

The first phase of the project involved the local leaders, chiefs, and Party leaders. This was to seek local approval of the project from the people. After this, advertisements were made through Party leaders to notify the communities of the opportunity, and date. Only one member of each family was allowed.

The park put a limit of area of collection to 2 Km from the b boundary of the park and from each tree, up to 3m above the ground. This was a measure to allow sustainability of the project.

99% of the participants who turned up were women. Traditionally caterpillar collection is a woman's activity. During one harvest, total of 1,848 Kgs were harvested. After harvesting, the women process the caterpillars by boiling them and then drying them in the sun.

After this process, it is still a woman's responsibility to market or prepare the caterpillars for her family's consumption remove gut contents boil salt dry. If marketed, the caterpillars fetch K29/Kg (about 4 pound) which is much more expensive than beef (1 pound/Kg) and can raise considerable revenue.

The value of collection of caterpillars in Kasungu National Park has been worked out to be K418.47/ha. This is superior to conventional agricultural practices (maize, beans and groundnuts). This emerges to be a strong incentive for the communities to adopt Wildlife Management as an adjunct to subsistence agriculture, and therefore, encourage conservation of natural eco-systems and wildlife habitats in the face of growing human population and demand for land.

Dependence on agriculture has besides depleting the wildlife resources outside protected areas, been less effective in improving the wealth and living standards of the majority of the rural people.

There is need for the Department of National Parks to extol economic incentives that integrate biological conservation with economic development for the rural people. Rotational burning policy that would promote vegetation coppicing that facilitates easy harvesting of caterpillars and promotes high yields has been recommended.

In this particular case, the major roles played by women in utilization of these caterpillars can neither be ignored nor over emphasized.

GENDER ISSUES AND THE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN

One of the variables present in all communities is gender - the cultural, societal, and traditional roles that men and women play. Since they are cultural rather than physical, gender roles can and do change if there is some benefit anticipated or derived as a result of a variation from the traditional norm. In terms of the NRM Project, the different activities of both men and women have a significant impact on the environment. A recognition of what men and women do in a community is essential in project planning, design, and implementation.

In resource interventions, especially wildlife oriented projects, women's roles and interactions are often not recognized. This invisibility does not mean they are not significant. Women make an impact on and are impacted by the complete range of natural resources. Stereotypes and lack of information often constrain women from participation in certain resource activities and resource oriented project activities. The morning's sessions focus on:

* women's involvement in resource management and utilization
* approaches to facilitate the participation of women in project activities
* experiences in the project area that have been successful in increasing the participation of women
* women involved in activities that traditionally and stereotypically are assigned to men
* SADCC activities utilizing resources other than large mammals

Following the sessions, working groups met to discuss constraints to involving both gender and other variables in NRM project activities and to try and identify strategies to involve different sectors.

Constraints to participation

The group identified a variety of constraints which apply to gender and other variables:

<u>Socio-Cultural / Socio-Economic:</u>
* gender roles
* religion
* family structure: daughters are considered as wealth and not allowed to leave for education. This constrains their effectiveness in participation in development at higher levels.
* marital status
* social status
* historical
* available time
* industrialization: taxation has caused men to leave to seek employment and women to assume extra work loads
* conflict between Western culture and traditional values
* poverty: no representation, no voice, no access to credit

* lack of awareness that change is possible
* self-perceptions
* education
* literacy

Institutional:
* access to land
* human resources
* access to training
* legislation and policies
* education
* key positions are held by men in traditional and governmental structures
* centralized decision making which is usually insensitive to gender issues

Legal:
* laws restrict women to positions of minors in society
* women are prevented from inheritance in many cultures
* property rights under traditional law restrit women's participation

Programmatical:
* most projects are designed, planned, and implemented by men and for men
* women's participation in most project design is based on traditional activities
* facilitator bias
* project orientation is usually done externally. Targeting of certain groups may be donor driven
* government and implementing agencies have no flexibility to modify the project to local needs
* local skills are not used in consultancies
* base line surveys are not done by local residents
* time frame based on project dates rather than reality
* imposition of ideas and activities
* WID projects don't receive male support

Strategies to address constraints included:

1. Sensitization of influential leaders to the importance of gender roles and needs of women so that they could facilitate women's access.
2. Open a dialogue on gender issues with both men and women
3. Introduce confidence training to women
4. Use a facilitator acceptable to both men and women
5. Conscientize women role models
6. Assess different roles in a community in project planning and design
7. Awareness raising. Make men and women aware of the options and opportunities
8. Use a participatory approach to identifying constraints with the community
9. Address the activities that take up women's time such as fuelwood collection, food security and child raising
10. Awarenes raising to donors and implementors
11. Maintain integrated expectations of all those involved
12. Sensitization of men
13. Involve women in planning and design of project activities
14. Include women in change agencies such as extension. Sensitize these agencies
15. Base affirmative action plans on the needs assessment

15. Base affirmative action plans on the needs assessment
16. Ensure that adequate training is available on specific issues such as gender
17. Self-contextualize
18. Understand the source / cause of the constraint
19. Expose target communities to neighboring districts or other countries with different practices

It is critical to maintain a local context. There is no blueprint formula or strategy for working with any of the variables or constraints identified. Just as only a community can define itself, only a community can define who is considered poor. The project can not do this. Nor can the project change gender roles. The men and women in a community will ultimately decide if a change in roles is beneficial. The plenary session identified the following ways the NRM project relates to gender:

1. Facilitate debate at the community
2. Receive training in gender analysis
3. Carry out gender analysis
4. Recognize different cultural roles
5. Propose plans for overcoming constraints
   - redistribution of income
   - representation on decision making committees
6. Collect baseline data to monitor and evaluate project success
7. Develop indicators to monitor progress
8. Share ideas and discuss issues, problems and constraints

Power Conflicts in the Community

By
Carol Culler
AF WID Advisor

I. Introduction

Power is a part of every relationship, whether personal, institutional, or community based. Power is based on those that exert power and those that yield power. Power conflicts occur when those in power try to exert their power over those that have no power but want to have more control over the resource.

Power issues are especially important in natural resources management. People that control the important resources in the comunity want to keep control over those resources. The NRM project objectives include the distribution of management and, therefore, benefits over those resources. The community variables identified by workshop participants (including the poor, the landless, minorities, and women) can be classified as the powerless. Bringing these groups into the decision making process upsets the power balance of the comunity. How and what is the NRM Project's role in power conflicts and power resolution within the community?

II. How to use Power

Power is used to change the system or control the way the system operates. Influence is the ability to get others who have power to agree with you. To do this, you have to change their beliefs and attitudes.

Power is also given or withheld by laws. Laws can limit power or enable individuals or organizations to use power. Conflicts arise between Constitutional and traditional laws. Legislative laws and government regulations also define power. Citizens can effect the interpretation of the laws or influence the change of laws.

Powerholders:

Protect their power by:

* controlling resources
* exhibiting success
* keeping methods to themselves
* control of information sources
* appeasing the population with an acceptable philosophy - not necessarily doing anything

Defend their power by:

* undermining ideas from emerging groups
* reducing credibility of emerging groups
* strengthening spirit of power holders
* disapproval of change from a traditional base
* agreement to tokenism
* setting impossible standards (e.g. reading and writing as a prerequesite to voting privileges)

Powerless:

Can get power by:

* becoming an elected official
* changing a law
* supporting the outspoken minority
* learning the system
* providing information to people in power
* forming or joining a group who agree with you
* gaining credibility through public media
* gaining attention through leaflets or demonstrations

Power and influence can be gained in a democracy through persistence, through analyzing the issue, taking a stand, lobby and participation in making needed changes.

Working Group Discussions

Following the initial presentation were working group discussions with these guiding questions:
1. How can the NRM Project facilitate power changes in the community in the face of leaders who want to maintain control?
2. How can the power of traditional leaders be enhanced while expanding the decision-making base?
3. What specific strategies do the powerful use to maintain power?
4. How to handle self-interest groups who want to maintain control of resources or finances?
5. Are there ways of empowering the poor, the landless, minorities, women or other sectors without changing the community's power structure?

Main points from the working groups follow:

Question #1. How can the NRM Project facilitate power changes in the community with the opposition of leaders who want to maintain control?

* As an agent of change, approach the leaders to fully explain objectives before proceeding to contacts with community members. It is important to recognize traditional leaders. To gain their support in power re-distribution, a suggestion is to have the powerful act in an advisory capacity.
* Win the favor of politicians through DDCs, who will then support the project when talking to local residents.
* Keep the politicians informed on status and goals of the project while preventing them from running or interpreting the project for the people.
* Build support at the bottom just as it is built at the top.
* Initiate dialogue between the chief and politicians.

* Assess where power sources are. This may not always include the chief.
* Strike a balance between political and traditional leadership. This could be failitated by third party arbitration. CAUTION: A proper analysis and understanding are necessary before identifying power groups.
* Democratize the power. Given that systems allow formation of various committees, empower committees through information and skills. Formalization of a committee through by-laws assists in longevity.
* In devolving power - in some cases to traditional chiefs - it is necessary to consider that chiefs are not always democratically elected. This can affect the project if the chief has no credibility within the community.
* We do not want to undermine traditional leadership or change the power, but should concentrate on information, dialogue, and analysis of the structure. * Power can be expanded through increased information and revenues, e.g. a husband should have an incentive to allow his wife to participate.

Question #2. How can the power of traditional leaders be enhanced while expanding the decision-making base?

* Include traditional leaders in an advisory capacity minimize resistance to others participation in decision making.
* Traditional systems are not submissive and shouldn't be paternalized. Leaders can be reached through established structure. It is traditional or cultural issues that govern the use and management of natural resources. Traditional leadership must be thoroughly informed and involved.
* Promote debate and concensus.
* Ensure a clear understanding of different project roles and power levels between levels - e.g. district, ward and village levels

Question #3. What specific strategies do the powerful use to maintain power?

* bribery * legislation * cohesion * sanction
* distortion of information to confuse the powerless
* use of tribal affiliations to divide and rule
* compromise * intimidation * murder *nepotism

Question #4. How to handle self-interest groups who want to maintain control of finances and resources.

* Give them a responsibility or position within the community or project, but make them accountable to the community
* Develop by-laws clearly articulating the project objectives to ensure that target groups take part
* Assimilate interest groups into the system or project
* Confidence building of the poor so they can fight back
* Avoid direct confrontation

Question #5. Is there a way of empowering the poor, the landless, minorities, women or other sectors without changing the community's power structure?
* No.
* The empowerment of the voiceless might lead to a change in the power structure. The question is whether the powerful will accept a project aimed at only poor or marginalized groups.
* To empower one group indicates that power is reduced somewhere else.

* If we accept that efficient sustainable resource management is through empowering resource users, we will challenge existing structures. An important measure to empower the voiceless is to work through existing strutures in a non-threatening way.
* Consider Murphree's Law

Plenary Discussion

Following the working group report backs, a plenary discussion identified several General Strategies for Empowerment:

* **Dissemination of Information** as a means to give and expand power. It is important to raise awareness to facilitate action.

* **Access to training** to improve the capacity of the community to run programs effectively and to enhance representation of the voiceless.

* **Skill building** for community leaders to facilitate the process of community participation. Leader's and communitie's roles can be enhanced with additional skills.

* **Working within existing structures.** The intervention should be seen as non-threatening and should reinforce traditional structures.

Specific strategies to deal with the issue of power included
* Improving committees and institutions through an increase in skills, information, by-laws and procedures
* Providing information to traditional leaders
* Encouraging the powerless to gain a voice without threatening the existing structures
* Better communications with minorities
* Clarification of responsibilities of different structures
* Maintenance of neutrality
* Avoidance of confrontation
* Explaining environmental benefits
* Facilitate changes in the community
* Recognizing status and authority of legitimate leaders
* Providing an incentive of changed structures
* Awareness raising
* Confidence building of minorities
* Careful analysis of the situation
* Use of third party to arbitrate if necessary

ISSUES FOR DISCUSSION

A. Regional Coordination

The following were proposed as resource and training needs of the Malawi Coordinating Unit:

1. Future training activities and workshops

   a. Gender Analysis
      How to conduct a gender analysis
      What is included
      How to apply the training to NRM project activities

   b. Community Assessment
      Various models and methodology: PRA, RRA, Survey, Interviews
      How to use different methods
      How to involve community members
      How to apply the information to NRM project activities

   c. Facilitation Skills for Staff and Community Leaders
      Community representation
      Assisting groups in problem solving
      Leadership
      Handling conflict in group discussions

   d. Environmental Education and Interpretation

2. Exchange visits to regional project sites

3. Distribution of an annotated bibliography of relevant references and materials

4. Distribution of a list of personnel involved in the NRM Project

5. Distribution of a list of training courses and institutions relevant to community based natural resources management

B. General Strategies for Community Involvement

1. Prepare a needs assessment incorporating relevant variables
2. Facilitate dialogue with community groups
3. Discuss and analyze issues, problems, and constraints
4. Develop plans and activities to overcome constraints. Examples:
   * projects to redistribute income from natural resources
   * representation on decision making committees
5. Develop indicators to monitor progress through base line data and periodic replication
6. Monitor and evaluate progress throughout the progress cycle
7. Create community awareness of it's roles and responsibilities in resource management
8. Sensitize government and private sector to community needs

C. Mid-Term Evaluation

Recommendations were made that the mid-term review address the following:

1. Evaluate the project design in light of NGO capabilities
2. Ensure adaptability of project design to site realities
3. Assess flexibility of project implementation
4. Allowance for additional resources
5. Baseline studies and indicators
6. Evaluation indicators relevance to project
7. Inputs from project implementation teams to assist in SOW for the evaluation
8. Review the relationship between the NRM Project and SADCC goals and objectives
9. Involve both "regional" and "outside" consultants
10. Consider long and short term effects of project interventions
11. Flexibility of donor
12. Review should be a participatory process involving implementation staff and the communities

D. Special Issue: When information at the local level is distorted, what strategies can overcome this?

1. Help self-interest groups to resolve their conflicts through other means, such as government agencies
2. Generate a list of project options
3. Access influential people through dialogue
4. Outline anticipated / projected benefits
5. Explain impacts of the project
6. Liaise with high ranking officials
7. Identify interest groups and whom they respect
8. Target counterparts
9. Analyze and understand the "real" motives and fears
10. Conduct an on-going assessment

Conference Conclusion / Betlem Chonde

Betlem Chonde concluded the conference by expressing appreciation to Malawi for coordinating the conference and to Zimbabwe as host. He congratulated the group on a productive and meaningful session and expressed the desire for an opportunity to work together again in the future.

COMMUNITY VARIABLES IN NATURAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT REGIONAL CONFERENCE

Objective: To discuss how communities function and to identify concepts and definitions of variables to assist in the design of community projects based on different needs and interests.

DAY ONE:

8:30	Welcome and opening of Community Variables Conference: Warden Hove, Hwange National Park / Zimbabwe
9:00	Keynote Address: Professor Leslie King, Center for Applied Social Sciences, University of Zimbabwe
9:45	Review of Conference Agenda
10:00	Break
10:20	Participant's expectations and needs from this conference. Plenary
10:40	Working groups task: Identification of community variables.
11:00	General principles in the rural and community development process: Dr. Carol Culler, AF WID Advisor
11:30	Working groups task: Discuss principles and concepts of community development in terms of the NRM Project.
12:15	Report back
1:00	Lunch
2:15	Methods of assessing Community Needs. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA): Peter Tilley, Project Officer/Zambia
3:15	Break
3:30	Working groups task: Assess effectiveness of PRA and other methods in assessing community needs.
5:00	Close Day One

DAY TWO

8:15	Overview of day one
8:45	Group dynamics skill building
9:30	Slide Program. "Women as Catalysts": Lyn Robinson, Project Specialist / Malawi
10:00	Approaches to facilitate the participation of women in the development process: Ramosh Jiah, Senior Parks and Wildlife Officer / Malawi
10:30	Break
10:50	Strategies to involve women in the NRM Project: Vivien Ncube, Training Officer / Zimbabwe
11:20	Gender, Livelihood and Community Wide Resources Management.

Case studies illustrating project activities which integrate women and gender issues into natural resources projects.

1. Community Development from Below - The Case of ADMADE: Betlem Chonde, Community Development Officer / Zambia
2. Integrating Women into Natural Resources - The Malawi Experience: T.K.G. Shaba, Parks and Wildlife Officer / Malawi
3. Overcoming Stereotypes: Olive Muhara, Assistant Parks and Wildlife Officer / Malawi
4. Village Scouts Reempower Local Residents: G.B. Zulu, Warden, Luangwa Valley / Zambia
5. Saturniidae Caterpillar Collection in Kasungu National Park: Teressa Jalale, Assistant Parks and Wildlife Officer / Malawi

1:00	Lunch
2:00	Constraints to involving variables in NRM project activities. Plenary.
2:15	Working groups task: Identify constraints and propose strategies for resolving or addressing these.
3:15	Report back
4:45	Mid-Term Evaluation
5:15	Close Day Two

DAY THREE

8:15	Overview of day two Definition of gender
8:45	Concepts of Power: Carol Culler
9:15	Working groups task: Discuss the following questions

1. How can the NRMP facilitate power changes in a community
2. How can power of traditional leaders be enhanced while expanding the decision making base
3. What strategies do the powerful use to maintain power
4. How to handle self-interest groups
5. Can variable groups be empowered without changing the power structure

10:30	Break
10:50	Report back
11:30	Issues for discussion

1. Strategies for community involvement
2. Resource and additional training needs
3. Midterm evaluation of NRM project
4. Other issues

1:00	Close Community Variables in Natural Resources Management Conference

SOME HELPFUL HINTS ABOUT FACILITATIVE BEHAVIOUR IN COMMUNITY MEETINGS

FACILITATIVE ATTITUDES

Neutrality:

Suspending or deferring your own thoughts, opinions and feelings about the task before the group is the basis for your credibility and effectiveness. It is your overview of where they are and where they want to go, separate from your opinion about either of them, that will enable you to assist in accomplishing their tasks.

This should not be interpreted to mean that the facilitator should not make contributions of content or provide direction for the group. In areas of your expertise it is important that you act as an expert - while at the same time being attentive to the knowledge that group members can contribute. One way to walk this knife edge is to be clear about what role you are taking at any given moment. For example, you might present the content that you wish them to hear - and present it as an expert and then move into a more neutral role as the participants strive to understand the information you have shared - your role here is to facilitate their learning.

Win/Win Attitude:

If you do not believe and do not demonstrate a belief that agreements are possible or desirable, they probably won't be. Your responsibility is to advocate for decisions that everyone is willing to support.

Flexibility:

It is important for you to plan the meeting based on your knowledge and experience enriched by the data you have about the participants' needs and identify strategies and tools beforehand. It is equally important that you be able to let go of the preplanned roadmap and move with the group.

Being Non-Defensive:

The mediating influence of a trainer depends on neutrality and a non-defensive attitude. When a trainer becomes defensive, he or she can easily become the focus for the session. At times you will be called upon to put the group's needs before your own and not allow your feelings to add another dynamic to a complex situation.

The ability to communicate effectively, both person to person and in a group setting, is often a learned skill. Making a conscious effort to improve communication skills can lead to a better understanding of a community's needs and interests in project activities.

HOW TO BE A BETTER COMMUNICATOR

1. Learn how the communication process works.
2. Be aware of verbal and non verbal communication.
3. Plan your messages with the receiver in mind.
4. Send messages that are understandable.
5. Make sure that your verbal and non verbal behavior correspond.
6. Develop good listening skills.
7. Be an empathetic sender and receiver.
8. Seek feedback as a sender and provide feedback as a receiver.
9. Use as many channels as possible to increase communication effectiveness.
10. Continuously work at being a better communicator.

Effective Leadership

Effective leadership is a process by which the leader is able to muster willing group support to achieve certain clearly specific group goals. A good leader uses his/her head, sizes up the situation, the task and the people and behaves in a manner that will help accomplish the group's objectives.

A. <u>How do Effective Leaders Behave?</u>

1. They provide the group with structure and a chance to set goals.
2. They maintain a flexibility and adaptability in handling changing requirements as new situations develop.
3. They establish positive social relationships through behavior such as emotional stability, dependability and fairness.

B. <u>The successful group leader should:</u>

1. Be willing to work.
2. Care about others.
3. Recognize the need for goals and assist the group in establishing meaningful goals.
4. Maintain a disciplined but flexible and open atmosphere.
5. Ask questions which will stimulate group members to participate.
6. Comment on remarks of other group members in a complimentary and encouraging manner.
7. Get maximum participation from each member.
8. Keep group members on track.
9. Be open-minded but with a good grasp of the problem facing the group.
10. Be a good listener.
11. Summarize major points.
12. Assist in eliminating group tension.
13. Overwhelm people with charm, not power.
14. Make other people feel important.
15. Close the discussion effectively.

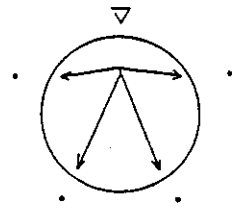
LEADERSHIP STYLES

An important key to successful leadership is to know how, when, and how much of what leadership style is needed in a particular situation. The choice depends on the judgment of the individual in the leadership role. Most leaders have a style of leadership they use predominantly, but have developed the ability to use different styles to meet the needs of the group.

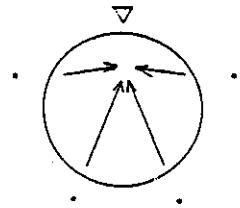
STYLES CHANGE

The following illustrations show how styles or leading must change depending on the purpose of the meeting or upon the particular task. The leader is designated by the triangle; members are indicated by small dots around the table.

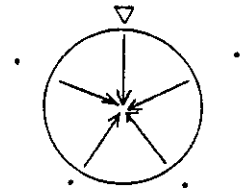
Information Giving -
The leader shares information with all of the members.



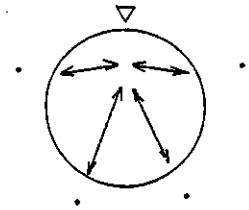
Information Collecting -
The members of the group feed needed information to the leader.



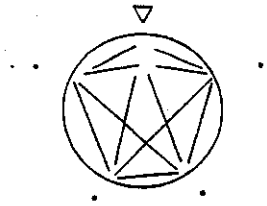
Decision Making -
All members and the leader feed in their individual ideas.



Decision Selling -
Members feed information to the leader and the leader reacts to the individuals.



Problem Solving -
The communication channels are open and all members of the group can share information with all other members.



Successful leaders may use all types of styles with knowledge of when a specific style is appropriate. A leader should attempt to foster a climate for critical, creative and reflective thinking. In other words, the effective leader can identify and select the best type of leadership for the situation.

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