

**Resource Use Planning in the  
Development of Transition Zones  
Around Tropical Forest Areas**

Published by:

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The sectoral project LISTRA is implemented by GTZ on behalf of the Federal *Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development* (BMZ).

March 1997

This publication has been prepared by the LISTRA team and has been amended by the contributions of many colleagues and friends whom we wish to thank. More comments, critical remarks and contributions of case studies and experiences are very welcome.

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# Summary

## Resource Use Planning in the Development of Transition Zones Around Tropical Forest Areas

1. Resource Use Planning (RUP) provides an approach for making divergent interests negotiable, thus opening opportunities for matching conservation and development objectives. The scope of RUP in this context goes beyond the resources in the protected area. RUP takes a broader focus in looking at improved resource use options, including use restrictions, in the protected area as well as in the transition zone. From an RUP perspective the management of the protected area and the development of the transition zone are of equal weight. Thus the resource use planners are challenged to develop the systemic interlinkages between both areas. RUP deliberately focuses on resource use, thus going further than the land use planning perspective.

2. The bottlenecks of a technically-oriented land use and protected area management planning approach are self-programmed. As the professional land use planners are thought to know what the optimal land use options are, it is they who decide on behalf of the land users. Consequently, they influence and control the land users' behaviour, in order to make them apply the so-called optimal land use options. As the perspectives, concerns and knowledge of the land users are often not really taken into consideration, this logic inevitably leads to serious problems both in implementation and with regard to sustainability.

3. Participatory RUP planning seeks a quality of participation which stimulates local resource users not only to be committed to the planning process but also to develop ownership in the implementation phase. In order to develop this quality `participation` must go beyond consultation, thus giving local resource users the scope for taking responsible action in diagnosis, planning, decision-making and implementation on the one hand while getting their share of the benefits from improved resource use and protection on the other.

4. An appropriate actor analysis requires a certain repertory of "lenses" through which one can get a multi-faceted picture of the actors. There is no fixed and final repertory of „lenses“, but defining what should make up the repertory of „lenses“ is part of the RUP process. An RUP process incorporates action on different planning levels, thus matching the interests of participation and ownership development with ecological and institutional perspectives.

5. The challenge for an RUP process is to balance the resource use and the protection perspective. The most difficult actors will be those defending fundamentalist positions. If at some stage a consensus is reached that resource use *and* protection concerns have to be matched properly in RUP, the negotiation process will show promise.
6. A sense of ownership can only arise if actors "feel urged" to assume a level of initiative and responsibility which they would not otherwise do were their level of interest in the RUP process too low. This calls for flexible participatory sequencing of the RUP process. It also implies that an RUP process need not necessarily result in *one* plan. It may consist of different plans linked by a joint agreement between different actors.
7. An RUP process will comprise different steps whose definition and sequencing will depend on a particular action context. A joint resource inventory can be an entry point, leading to an analysis and explication of the different actors' resource use interests and to the identification, analysis and negotiation of improved resource use options, including use restrictions. Negotiation will be at the heart of the RUP. In addition to the negotiation of improved resource use options, it will include the actors' contributions in terms of financial, physical and human resources as well as the rules and regulations for the realisation of certain resource use options, including use restrictions. Before entering the final phase of detailed planning, and the conclusion and achievement of a joint management agreement, the RUP process should be accompanied by pilot measures with a learning process approach .
8. An RUP process must include both the implementation of the negotiated agreement and a systematic process of learning from experience at regular critical reviews of the implementation process. The challenge for all actors concerned is to maintain flexibility and openness, to learn from unforeseen events and incidents and to keep up the momentum of the planning process by fostering participation and ownership development.
9. The facilitation of an RUP process will support the positive dynamics of the project, thus leading to promising results. Facilitation means fostering and strengthening capacity and ownership development among the different actors, with a special emphasis on the local resource users. Furthermore, it is crucial to leave sufficient scope for ownership development in the course of the RUP process. Any project must consider its potential and constraints when playing a facilitative role in this sense.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 What is the relevance of resource use planning (RUP) in the context of development of transition zones?

Putting the protection of tropical forests on the agenda means having to deal with divergent interests of actors concerning resource use and protection. Different actors play their roles with varying resources and power assets. They have different priorities, ranging from purely exploitative resource use to strict and unconditional preservation of natural resources. RUP provides an approach to making the divergent interests negotiable, thus opening opportunities for matching conservation and development objectives. It's up to the actors to make an RUP process constructive. Either there will be substantial change in terms of more sustainable resource use or the process will be abused as a forum for the most powerful stakeholders to pursue their own interests. In fact, the powerful stakeholders' attitudes are essential to an RUP process: they must decide to make divergent interests and positions negotiable, in order to give more scope of action and influence to the less powerful actors who, in most cases, are the ones living and working directly with the natural resources in question.

*Balancing diverging interests of different actors through negotiation*

The scope of RUP in this context goes beyond the resources in the protected area. In looking at improved resource use options, including use restrictions, in the protected area as well as in the transition zone, RUP takes a broader focus. Thereby the systemic interlinkages between resource use and protection in both areas are highlighted. Up to now management planning inside the protected area was usually separated from land use planning in the areas adjacent to the protected area. The main focus was on the protected area. As a result development measures planned for the benefit of local population groups in the vicinity of the forest were very often just an appendix to the protected area management plan, in the hope of counterbalancing local resource users' objections to the plan. From an RUP perspective the management of the protected area and the development of the transition zone have equal weight. Therefore the resource use planners are challenged to develop the systemic interlinkages between both areas. This opens up new perspectives in terms of balancing different actors' interests in the protected area and in validating improved resource use options, including use restrictions, in both areas. It can lead to a system of varying resource use and protection intensities which better reflect the different actors' interests, and for which the actors have developed sufficient ownership to make improvements step by step.

*Encompassing the development of transition zones and the management of protected areas in one planning process*

*Looking at  
resource use and  
not only at land  
use*

RUP deliberately focuses on resource use, thus going beyond the land use planning perspective. There is already a broad understanding of land use encompassing NTFP (Non Timber Forest Production) collection or wildlife management, but in putting an emphasis on resource use, the broad planning perspective, including the whole range of different land and resource uses, will be highlighted.

## **1.2 What is the role of negotiation in an RUP process?**

Negotiation can be seen as the heart of the RUP process. A sound and constructive negotiation process provides the opportunity for different actors to explore new possibilities of balancing divergent interests. It allows actors who have been marginalised or deliberately ignored by powerful stakeholders to change from an obstructive to a constructive mode without losing face, convinced that they can pursue their own interests in a negotiation process. Negotiation goes beyond a routinised powerplay such as the exchange of views with little chance for change of attitudes and positions. Negotiation therefore requires a minimum of flexibility from each actor in order not simply to settle old scores but to look for new opportunities through questioning their own positions and attitudes. The more there is flexibility, the more there is scope for considering improved resource use options, including use restrictions. Under a power play mode this would be ruled out from the start by actors fear that their interests will be jeopardised.

The path of a negotiation process cannot be foreseen. It depends on the given actors and on the specific mixture of convergencies and divergencies of resource use interests. So the challenge for a negotiation process is to find the most appropriate options for improved resource use, including use restrictions, in both the protected area and in the transition zone. Appropriate" in this context goes beyond technical suitability: it refers the extent to which one can balance different interests without countervailing the overall objective of sustainable resource use. The most appropriate options, therefore, are those which make the actors move towards more sustainable resource use while maintaining resource protection objectives, without anyone seeing themselves as losing out. Of course, a sound negotiation process cannot satisfy all the actors' needs but, if some of the actors see themselves as having lost out by being pushed into an agreement, they will be committed to its implementation. On the contrary, they might consider mobilising their obstructive forces.

*A negotiation process creates  
scope for improved  
resource use options,  
including use restrictions,  
agreed on by different  
actors.*

## 2 From top-down land use and protected area management planning to participatory RUP

### 2.1 What are the driving forces of a technically-oriented land use and protected area management planning approach?

Although there are different objectives and priorities in technically-oriented land use and protected area management planning, optimal solutions for land use and protected area management can be identified and achieved. These optimal solutions can be identified if the professional knowledge of planners and technicians is properly utilised, and if the planning process is controlled by competent statal authorities. It is often assumed that local resource users neither use nor protect natural resources in an optimal manner, and that this explains why they do not obtain the required professional knowledge to change their land use patterns. This then gives the planners and technicians the legitimacy to take the planning process into their own hands in order to draw up optimal solutions to be diffused to the local resource users in the implementation phase.

*Optimal land-use solutions to be defined by planners and technicians*

Consequently, the participation of local resource users is no more than a consultative function. Local resource users may be consulted in the diagnostic phase or later, when a draft plan has been drawn up. This is clearly illustrated by the 16 steps of protected area management planning proposed by the standard publication for planning in conservation (MacKinnon, J. et al. 1986). Looking at land use planning in this regard, the new FAO guidelines put much more emphasis on local resource users' participation, but they still do not want to give up the logic of technical land use planning. Land users' participation is still conditioned by the planners and technicians, and land users are not seen as competent (co-)decision-makers for improved land use options (FAO 1993).

*Reducing participation to a consultative function*

The bottlenecks of a technically-oriented land use and protected area management planning approach are self-programmed. As the professional land use planners presume to know what the optimal land use options are, they decide on behalf of the land users. Consequently, they influence and control the land users' behaviour in order to make the land users apply so-called optimal land use options. As the perspectives, concerns and knowledge of the land users are not really taken into consideration, this logic inevitably leads to serious problems in implementa-

*Neglecting the land users' perspectives as a result*

tion and with regard to sustainability. For the protected area management planners, the self-programmed bottlenecks are similar but not identical. They want to control the behaviour of the local people with respect to the protected area. So the local people have to submit to the imperatives of technical protected area management planning. Once the planners have made concessions to the local people in providing limited access to certain resources in the protected area, the local people are expected to accept their decisions. If they do not, their behaviour has to be influenced in order to make them accept the conservation objectives - through law enforcement, if all else fails.

### **Box 1: The failures of top down land use planning**

"Failure in land use planning has been much more a failure in working with people than a failure of natural resources data. Land use planning has been a centralised and top-down activity... Land use planning has failed because governments are not omniscient or omnipotent. The loads they impose on themselves in attempting to plan, implement and administer land use soon exceed their administrative and logistical capacities, and outstrip both the abilities of their professionals to supply natural resources information and their own capability of using it. Yet they hanker after the tried and tested and failed procedures of physical planning - in which experts prepare maps that indicate in considerable detail how land should be used. The supposed beneficiaries of development have little opportunity to articulate their needs in terms of development, technology of information. Nor do they have the opportunity to contribute their own local knowledge."

Dalal-Clayton, B. / Dent, D. 1193: 115

## **2.2 What are the driving forces of a participatory-oriented RUP approach?**

*Participatory RUP is embedded in the concept of sustainable development*

A participatory RUP approach has validated the learning experiences of the last decades which suggest that ecological sustainability cannot be achieved against the will of those who live with and use natural resources. The Rio Conference on the Environment and Development therefore put an emphasis on the principle of "participation". It also highlighted the conclusion that ecological sustainability can only be achieved when balanced with social and economic sustainability. The balance of

these three dimensions is essential to the concept of "sustainable development".

At first glance, "participation" is just a buzz word. There are an infinite number of ways of interpreting the term. Participatory RUP planning seeks a quality of participation which stimulates local resource users not only to be committed to the planning process but also to develop ownership for the implementation phase. In order to develop this quality, "participation" must go beyond consultation, thus giving local resource users the scope for taking responsible action in diagnosis, planning, decision-making and implementation on the one hand and getting their share of the benefits from improved resource use and protection on the other. "Participation" in this sense cannot be predicted. Local resource users taking action in this regard will become responsible actors in the planning process, articulating their interests and positions, and critically questioning the other actors' positions. A participatory RUP approach therefore puts the negotiation process about improved resource use options, including use restrictions, at the centre of the planning process.

A participatory RUP approach assumes that local resource users are capable of reflecting on their land use, in order to develop improved land use options to change their land use towards more sustainable use patterns, provided the scope of action is given to them and provided the professional planners and technicians succeed in merging their own knowledge and experience with those of the local resource users. The challenge for planners and technicians is to change their roles and move from domination to facilitation of the planning process. They should develop a spirit which will enable them to learn from the local resource users. They need to recognise that local people living in close relationship with an ecosystem know and understand phenomena and features differently, and often better, than planners and technicians. Planners and technicians can learn that the local resource users must get the opportunity to explain their perspectives, i.e. to make the planners and technicians understand why they use and/or protect natural resources in a certain manner. Once the local resource users feel understood, they will be more open to understanding the planners' and technicians' perspectives on natural resource use and protection. A better mutual understanding of different perspectives is the basis for dialogue and negotiation.

*Seeking a high quality of participation*

*Participatory RUP challenges planners and technicians to search for dialogue and mutual learning*

**Box 2: Developing learning capacities and participation in conservation and development**

"....the key feature now becomes the capacity of all actors continually to learn about ... changing conditions, so that they can act quickly to transform existing capacities. They should make uncertainties explicit and encourage rather than obstruct wider public debates about pursuing new paths for conservation and development. The world is open to multiple interpretations, each valid in its limited context but not necessarily true in absolute terms.

....systems of learning and interaction are needed to gain an understanding of the multiple perspectives of the various interested parties and encourage their greater involvement. The view that there is only one epistemology (that is, the scientific one) has to be rejected. Participation and collaboration are essential components of any system of learning, as change cannot be effected without the full involvement of all stakeholders and the adequate representation of their views and perspectives."

Pimbert, M. P. / Pretty, J. N. 1997: 307

### **2.3 To what extent can both approaches be combined through taking different planning levels into consideration**

*Giving scope to resource users to really participate in an RUP process*

For a participatory RUP approach the challenge is to design a participatory planning process with sufficient scope for the local resource users to take responsible action. The more the planning focus is on the local or community level, the easier it will be to create the conditions for a participatory RUP process. This means, on the other hand, that the more the focus is on the regional or national level, the more difficult it will be to organise sound participation of the resource users in the planning process. This is especially difficult in settings where local strong organisations capable of acting on behalf of the resource users in a planning process on the regional or national level do not exist or do not yet have the capacities to take on this role.

*Getting sound participation is more challenging on the regional and national level*

It would be an oversimplification to draw the conclusion that participatory RUP should be applied at the local level, while a technically-oriented top-down approach should be employed at the regional and national level. If land use options are discussed on the national level, for example, in the context of developing a National Conservation Strategy, the challenge will be to set up appropriate framework conditions and to elaborate an orientation for improved land use options, including use restrictions, which give sufficient scope for participatory RUP processes to develop at the local level and for implementing sound agreements among different

actors. RUP processes at higher levels must be as participatory as possible, depending on the specific features of the organisational landscape. The National Conservation Strategies (e.g. in Pakistan and Nepal) and the national action plans for combating desertification (e.g. Mali) are promising experiments in this regard.

## 3 The profile of RUP in the development of transition zones

### 3.1 Who are the actors?

The actors in an RUP process are all those concerned about planning processes causing changes in resource use and protection. Initially, a number of actors come into the picture, though not all will participate intensively in the planning process. Nevertheless, a broad perspective is necessary from the start to get an idea of which actors may be interested or affected. But we will only be able to envisage actors if we ask specific questions, in relation to their place of residence, for example.

*Perceiving the actors depends on the questions being raised*

**Resident actors:** This is a fairly broad category encompassing the entire resident population in the transition zone

**Non-resident actors:** This category of actors is very diffuse and comprises actors such as mining and timber companies, tourism agencies, bilateral development agencies and seasonal trans-migrating herders.

Examining residence patterns is only one of a number of ways of looking at actors. There is a **repertory of “lenses”** to be made use of. Making use of the “lenses” will allow for a multi-faceted picture of the actors to emerge. We explicitly encourage all those involved in an RUP process to develop their own repertory of “lenses”. The following examples may be seen as important elements of such a repertory, but this is not a complete list:

*An appropriate repertory of “lenses” should be developed*

### **Use of resources**

The “lenses” will show a great variety of use intensity with regard to different resources. The landless household which largely depends on the (illegal) collection and sale of firewood for earning its living will use forest resources more intensively than the primary school teacher’s wife who purchases firewood at the local market. The more households depend on the use of a particular resource, the less flexible they will be with regard to a change of resource use patterns.

Timber or mining companies are normally very powerful resource users which overrule other actors' claims or rights to resource use. One may also think of temporary or seasonal resource use, such as transmigrating herders.

### **Access to resources**

If one changes the “lens”, one may discover resource users who are totally dependent on a particular resource for their living. The difference may be explained by the actors' position in the local community and on the socio-economic strata. Access to other resources may not be possible with the source rights available. Through the “lenses” attention is also drawn to relations of economic dependency, which are of the utmost importance for resource use planning. One actor may extract timber poles from a certain forest area, while those really benefiting from this operation are not even present in the forest. Resource use agreements not involving the latter will have little chance of substantial impact on the resource use patterns.

### **Organisations**

#### ***Government institutions, e.g. Nature Conservation Departments:***

The range of government institutions involved in the development of a transition zone varies according to a country’s particular administrative structure. Normally their mandates comprise quite different interests. While the nature conservation department may strongly defend protection arguments, the agricultural departments will give higher priority to agricultural and livestock development. So the two departments will be put under pressure to negotiate some sort of a compromise. The picture becomes more complicated when looking at Forestry Departments, which will be more in favour of nature protection, while defending their interests in forest exploitation. The soil and water conservation departments will defend still different interests. Who will be responsible for harmonising the positions of the different departments? Is there a planning department with an appropriate mandate? Is its focus more on re-

gional planning than on resource use planning at the micro level? Generally speaking, the more governments institutions are fragmented by fairly distinct mandates, the more effort will be needed in the course of the RUP process to harmonise the different positions.

Modifying legal provisions and changing property rights are some of the most difficult issues to be negotiated among resource users and government institutions, if the latter accept a negotiation process of this sort.

## **Organisations**

### ***Civil society organisations, e.g. local development associations:***

This category contains a broad range of very different organisations, from grass roots to the national level. A subdistrict development committee can, for example, be an important actor in the development of a transition zone with a syndicate of herders or a federation of agricultural co-operatives with a regional scope of action. These organisations will vary substantially in character and mandate: service organisations differ from associations dedicated to their members' concerns. Syndicate types of organisations may defend and promote interests of specific groups, e.g. indigenous societies. Organisations may have clearly defined functions, for example the marketing of medicinal plants, or a broad range of economic and social activities. Organisations may primarily defend cultural and religious values. Some may be part of patron-client relationships, and they may be involved to a greater or lesser extent in politics.

The challenge for an RUP process will be to understand the particular organisational landscape in order to assess the potential and limitations of different organisations for playing a constructive role in the RUP process.

***External support agencies:*** Bilateral and multilateral aid organisations may play a role in local and regional development while simultaneously supporting organisations from the northern or international NGO communities. They will then be more closely affiliated to the local organisations of civil society than their partners. These organisations normally act with fairly different interests, and their views will range from fundamentalist nature conservation perspectives to poverty-oriented development perspectives. The crucial question will be: Who can play the role of facilitator in the RUP process in a constructive way? This requires the ability to defend not only one's own interests as an external support organisation but also to mediate between different organisations' positions. This will definitely be the challenge to a GTZ supported project if it intends to take on this role in an RUP process.

## **Gender**

An examination of the different roles of men and women in natural resource management may lead to investigating the forest use patterns of men and women. While exploring this question it will probably become apparent that, due to the division of labour in a local community, women and men are concerned with completely different forest products. Not raising this question would leave the discovery of men's and women's different use patterns to chance or, more likely, the analysis of men's forest use patterns would be taken as the whole picture. No sound RUP process can be built on an analysis which looks at only one side of the coin.

## **Age**

An examination of the different generations in a community may reveal that resource use patterns vary according to generation. One striking example in this regard are traditional resource protection rules to which the elder generation may adhere while the younger generation tend to put them aside for short term economic benefits. The elders might be important actors, defending specific rules of natural resource preservation in this case.

## **Wealth**

It will be difficult to understand different actors interests and resource use patterns without analysing the distribution of wealth in a particular local society. Exploitative resource use, in particular, can only be understood if the driving force behind it becomes apparent: poor, marginalised groups may depend exclusively on exploitative resource use for earning their living, with no access to other more sustainable resource use options. The "lenses" allow for an analysis of the reasons for the lack of interest from certain well-off groups in participating in an RUP process. They may, for example, be less dependent on resources from a forest area than are groups who are less well-off.

## **Socio-culture**

Only at first glance does a local society seem to be a homogenous entity. In fact, especially in the African context, different ethnic groups have very distinct resource use patterns and social organisations. Particular socio-cultural values may have been in line with careful use of natural resources in the past, but social disintegration may prevent these values from being effective for the resource use practised today. The use of the "lenses" may be essential to find out why a particular conflict is so diffi-

cult to manage. A power struggle between two ethnic groups, for example, may feed the conflict behind the scenes, using the resource use issue to pursue their own agenda. The "lenses" will also help to understand why it is difficult for actors with a lower position in the social strata to express their concerns in public meetings.

### **Power relations**

This is often a touchy issue which projects tend not to interfere with nor address openly. But if an RUP process wants to achieve a change of resource use patterns for the sake of sustainable development, power relations must be recognised as a factor to be analysed and influenced. Through the use of the "lenses", power issues come into the picture on different levels. If, for example, non-resident herders are to become participants in the planning process, it does not help to expect clear decisions from them, unless they themselves are decision-makers. Even if it is difficult to involve them, their consent is needed for sound decisions with regard to change of resource use. On another level, if a timber company is affiliated to the political system the pursuance of destructive resource use practices will be made easier.

***Key message:*** An appropriate actor analysis requires a certain repertory of "lenses" to examine the situation. Using these "lenses" will allow a for a multi-faceted picture of the actors. There is no fixed repertory for all occasions. Drawing up the repertory is part of an RUP process.

## **3.2 On which levels does the RUP process take place?**

An RUP process will affect different levels, but what sort of levels? Normally, in land use planning, the following levels can be distinguished with regard to the administrative system:

- regional level
- district level
- community level
- village level
- household level

But, in order to distinguish the planning levels, there are at least two other perspectives to be considered:

- a spatial perspective on ecological conditions
- a social perspective.

The first perspective starts with drawing a **distinction between natural zones** according to certain criteria related to the natural physical conditions. They may be distinguished according to different levels of watersheds, possibly along agro-ecological zones, based on a national land use plan, including zones dedicated to biodiversity protection.

*Fostering participation and ownership development through planning with viable social units*

From a social perspective, **viable social units** are distinguished as a crucial factor favouring local participation in the planning process as a starting point for the development of ownership for the planning process. Very often administrative boundaries do not correspond to socially cohesive units. A community composed of a cluster of villages may be a purely administrative entity, and thus completely inappropriate for a participatory RUP process. A consideration of the social perspective is not of relevance for a top-down planning process. The social perspective is essential for a participatory RUP process. The social perspective must match the spatial perspective.

*Aggregating planning work on different levels for the sake of participation*

**Let us examine the following scenario:** a watershed is taken as the planning unit. So, overlapping with social units has to be considered. It might become clear that the whole watershed is too large for a planning unit, if ownership by the local people for the planning process and its results is to develop. So the watershed could be divided into planning units according to the socio-political setting. The watershed level will thus not be out the picture, but the planning result on this level will be an aggregation of the planning results from the lower levels. The process of defining appropriate planning levels, including horizontal and vertical linkages, will be even more complicated when government organisations defend their administrative and functional levels.

**Here is another scenario:** a forest protection area has been designed and is now subject to an RUP process at the local level. Even if the responsible government institutions intend to reach an agreement with the local population for the whole area, this does not mean that the respective transition zone will automatically be the planning unit. The social units have to be distinguished for the sake of ownership development.

What are **favourable conditions for ownership development?**

- transparency of the planning process
- flexible procedure continuously taking the different actors' interests into consideration
- actors commonly have to agree on the scope and density of the planning process
- validating the prevailing local planning practices

- stimulating the local actors to take responsibility for the planning process.

**Simultaneous action on different planning levels** is also to be expected for an RUP process because different areas of action require particular planning procedures. Planning a management model for collection and marketing of particular NTFP with specialised user groups requires a sequence of planning steps very different from those for developing a soil and water conservation action plan, for example. But both planning processes have to be systematically linked instead of being juxtaposed.

An RUP process encompassing action on different planning levels needs **vertical and horizontal linkages** in order to come to sustainable agreements on changed resource use patterns. Vertical linkages include linkages with other planning processes, general development and/or regional planning, as well as sectoral planning, for example forestry development. Vertical linkages also include relevant national or regional strategies like a National Conservation Strategy (NCS) or Environmental Action Plans (EAP). Horizontal linkages are important for incorporating the different actors' perspectives into the process. In order to avoid a juxtaposition of plans, horizontal linkages between different actors should be developed and strengthened in the course of the RUP process.

*An RUP process needs linkages with the overall planning context*

**Key message: An RUP process incorporates action on different planning levels, thus matching concerns of participation and ownership development with ecological and institutional perspectives.**

### 3.3 How to integrate different perspectives in the RUP process

*Perceiving and understanding the different actors' perspectives*

One of the main challenges for an RUP process in achieving agreements on changed resource use patterns for the sake of sustainable development is to integrate the different perspectives of the actors. Integration does not mean reducing the features of a perspective to an artificial, "shared perspective". It means mutually understanding the particular features of each perspective, discussing and reflecting jointly on the implications of the different perspectives and negotiating the priorities. Which perspectives are we talking about? There is a broad range of perspectives with regard to resource use which different actors might emphasise. At an early stage of an RUP process these perspectives should be carefully identified. We want to distinguish two main perspectives in this context.

- the "protection" perspective
- the "resource use" perspective

*Defending protection objectives: from a fundamentalist to a flexible position*

The "**protection**" perspective seems initially to be incompatible with the resource use perspective. If natural resources are to be protected, they cannot be used at the same time. This fundamental position may be pursued by certain actors e.g. a National Park Authority, a wildlife society or a zoological society from of the northern countries. It implies the enforcement of protection. This absorbs enormous resources because the local resource users' defend their claims and do not hesitate to violate the imposed rules, as they think they have nothing to lose. Consequently, even stronger reactions come from those pushing law enforcement. Flexibility can be gained by asking: To what extent can protection and the use of natural resources be combined? Raising this question opens up dialogue with local users and poses a wide variety of possible scenarios for the integrated (co)management of protected areas and transition zones. The different actors might categorise themselves according to a continuum of positions, ranging from a fundamentalist protection to a flexible protection-cum-resource-use-position. This would enable the examination of the extent to which the positions of different actors change in the course of the RUP process.

*Defending resource use objectives: from a fundamentalist to a flexible position*

The **resource use perspective** tends to see resource protection as a secondary issue. Nevertheless, fundamentalist positions may arise, for instance when an actor announces the transformation of a forest area into an agricultural production zone area, by pointing to the need for expansion to assure agricultural production for a growing population. A similar position might be defended by migrants have left areas with seriously declining soil fertility to search for fertile soils in the forest area. The most legitimate position in this regard is defended by indigenous groups who can claim to combine both protection and resource use objectives.

The more resource users feel challenged by those defending the imposition of rules and regulations for the sake of nature conservation, the more they will defend their resource use perspective by all means. As for the protection perspective, a continuum can be imagined with categories of actors' positions ranging from the fundamentalist to being open to protection and nature conservationist's concerns.

The challenge for an RUP process is to balance these two main perspectives. The most difficult actors will be those defending fundamentalist positions. If consensus is reached that resource use and protection concerns have to be matched properly, the negotiation process will be promising.

The two main perspectives may overlie two other perspectives which will be mentioned here. It is tempting to give preference to one particular resource, e.g. medicinal plants, at the expense of another as this facilitates the planning process by reducing complexity. The choice of the actors concerned and the sequencing of the planning process is easier in such a narrow focus than in a focus on all types of natural resources and their use. But the decisive disadvantage is that the systemic interferences between different natural and anthropogenic elements, on the one hand, and the local resource use system with its particular socio-cultural and economic features, on the other, are ignored. The same is true if the perspective of one particular actor is given preference.

*Giving preference to one resource or one actor: too narrow a perspective!*

**Key message: Actors will adopt a protection or a resource use perspective according to their specific interests. An RUP process provides the opportunity to match these two perspectives.**

### **3.4 How to keep flexibility with regard to the scope and density of an RUP process**

Planning nourishes the illusion that, after a concentrated and exhausting planning phase, the actions to be taken will be well designed and easy to achieve. But how reliable is a plan? ***Who really has ownership of the plan and feels responsible for its implementation?*** To what extent is a plan simply a means for one or the other stakeholder to push their interests? When taking up these questions attention should be drawn in retrospect to the planning process. One may discover that roles and responsibilities were distributed in such a way that some actors who were intended to play only a supportive role in fact took the lead, thus hampering the other actors' ownership development for the planning process

*Favouring ownership development by appropriately defining roles and responsibilities in the planning process*

and its results. Or perhaps those who took the lead were eager to complete the planning process on schedule, and pushed it through with serious consequences for the plan's reliability.

*Searching flexibility  
with regard to the  
final product of an  
RUP process*

A sense of ownership can only arise if actors feel motivated to assume a high level of initiative and responsibility. This calls for flexible participatory sequencing of the RUP process. It also means getting rid of the idea of one plan necessarily being the output of an RUP process. All actors may agree to have only one plan but, depending on the particular context, different scenarios are imaginable. The outcome of an RUP process may, for instance, be a **written agreement among different actors serving as an umbrella for different plans with varying scopes and densities**, e.g. for the collection of marketing of certain NTFP, for controlled grazing, or for village afforestation. For each of these plans, the actors who have signed the agreement are involved to a varying extent.

*Planning process  
steps instead of  
clear-cut measures  
when appropriate*

If, for example, the watershed perspective has been given preference, the result of the RUP process may be a watershed development agreement encompassing different plans or programmes which focus on particular components, e.g. soil and water conservation, forest management, afforestation, grazing and the like. Common objectives and the strategies to achieve them may be defined in the joint agreement, but it may still be necessary to develop important elements of these strategies, e.g. the definition of rules and organisational forms for controlled grazing. Planning would then focus early on defining the "how", "when" and "with whose participation" of strategy development. If strategies in some cases still require further elaboration, it is not appropriate to wrap up a finished package of measures early on. Here also the steps should be defined through which later decisions could be taken on measures to rehabilitate the watershed. Nevertheless, it may be appropriate to plan pilot activities early on, for example the planting of buffer strips, on a concrete and detailed basis for a specified period.

The challenge is, therefore, to find a balance between strategic planning, which includes the joint orientation, the planning of process steps (e.g. for strategy development), and the detailed planning of certain measures or domains.

**Key message: The result of an RUP process need not necessarily be *one* plan. It may consist of different plans linked by a joint agreement between different actors.**

## 4 Steps in an RUP process

What are the starting points for an RUP process? Conflicting objectives among different actors about the use and protection of natural resources require a negotiation process. Ideally this would lead to revised and modified resource use patterns, including use restrictions, with a higher sustainability potential and improved capacities for resource related conflict management. In this context ten steps will be described in order to provide orientation and some guidance for the initiation and achievement of an RUP process in a particular action context. This will inevitably require rechecking both the reasonableness of each step on the one hand and the sequencing of the steps on the other. If, for whatever reason, a negotiation process among different actors appears to be crucial, the joint resource inventory may be the second or even the third step in a particular RUP process. Diagram 1 illustrates the different steps together with their key elements.

*Ten steps as guidance and orientation for a real RUP process*

## 4.1 Joint resource inventory

The idea of a joint resource inventory is to bring different actors together in assessing the particular conditions of natural resources in a specific situation. A convincing example is that of a forest inventory, normally a forester's routine and duty, being opened to the participation of representatives of local communities in the vicinity of the forest area. The guiding question for such a joint resource inventory should be: What is the potential of the different resources, and what threatens the realisation of these potentials? The objectives of a joint resource inventory should be specified according to a particular action context in order to avoid unnecessary duplication. If there are serious assumptions about potential with regard to wildlife resources, for example in a community wildlife management perspective, or NTFP, a joint resource inventory should be focused on. Another focus could be on soil, water and vegetation in the territory of local communities in the vicinity of the forest area, with a special emphasis on potential with regard to the use and improvement of agro-forestry systems, in order to lower the pressure on resources in the forest area. In this case giving foresters the opportunity to participate in such an inventory could broaden their perspectives.

*Assessing potentials and analysing critical factors affecting the resource situation*

### Key elements:

- ***Validating local knowledge***

Local resource users have their techniques for making a resource inventory, even if they label them differently. This is even more so when cer-

*Learning from the local resource users' knowledge*

tain socio-professional groups in a local community have specialised knowledge of certain resources, e.g. medical plants. The more they depend on these resources, the more they will be able to discover potential and analyse threats. Like any of the actors, they will bring in a subjective perspective which requires critical scrutiny as regards their use practices. Other actors conceal their subjective perspective by using apparently objective inventory methods. The challenge is to combine the local resource users' perspectives with those of the foresters or agronomists in order to get a more complex and detailed picture of potential and threats with regard to particular natural resources.

- **Creating confidence and transparency**

A joint resource inventory, as a completely novel joint action among different actors, can be more effective in confidence building and the creation of transparency than a series of meetings. Local communities may not trust resource inventories under the exclusive responsibility of the forestry department or national park authority. A joint resource inventory could serve as a very practical platform to start discussing and negotiating potential options for changed resource use patterns. Discussing sustainable use patterns for a particular resource whose dynamics of use have been jointly explored and investigated can proceed in a constructive way, as transparency can be guaranteed.

*Building up  
relations of  
trust and  
dialogue with  
local re-  
source users*

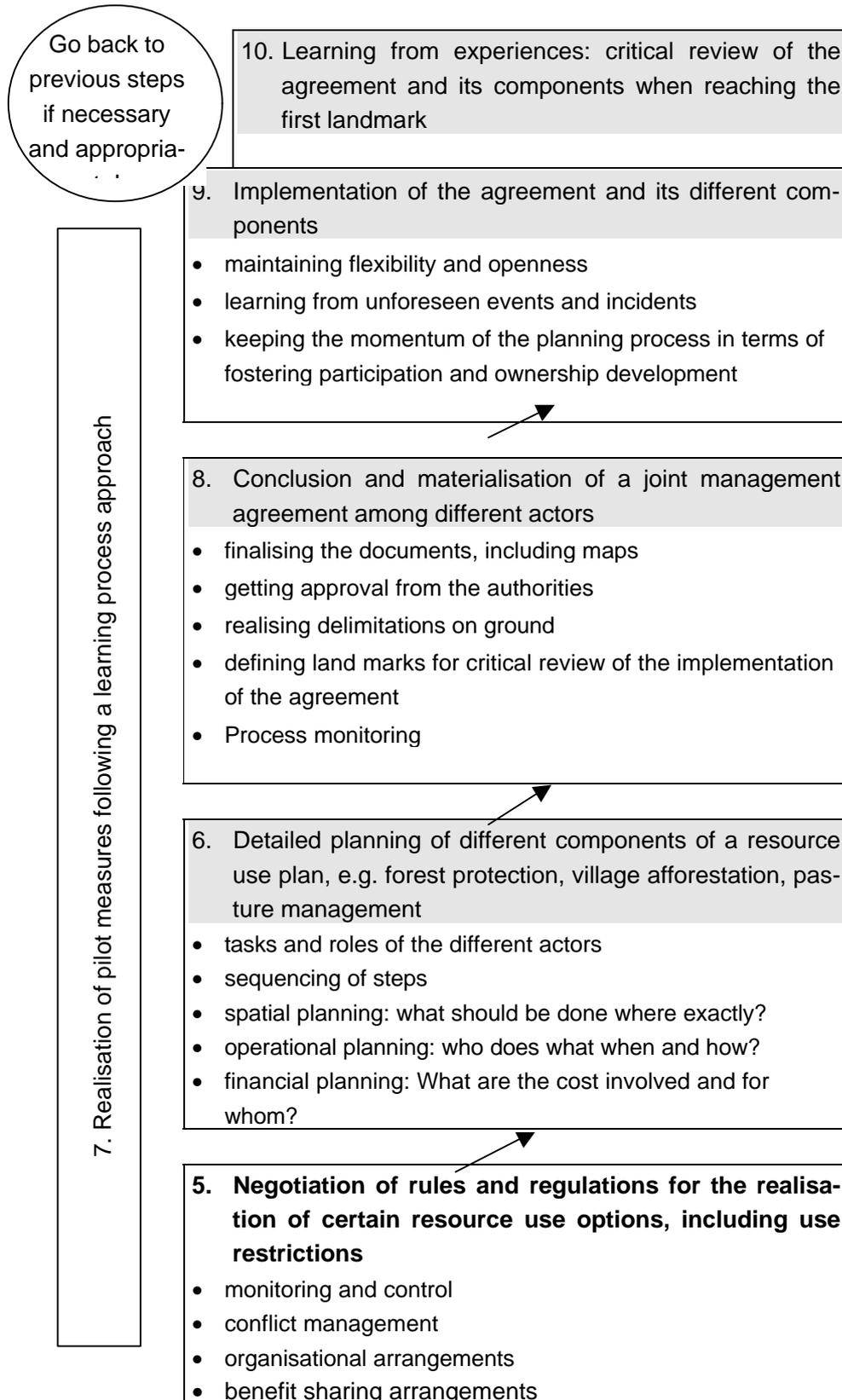
**Box 3:**

**Discharging the ballast of the past: an example from Uganda**

„Community members sometimes exaggerated or understated certain issues. Where the community had suffered most from the park, they overstated their case with hostility. Where the park had had less impact, they understated the situation to maintain good relations with park staff in the hope of greater dividends. Occasionally we were misinformed on technical issues, in the hope of a favourable allocation of resources. With considerable local knowledge on the park's multiple-use team, misinformation was quickly identified and then pointed out in gatherings of the whole meeting in an unthreatening and light-hearted way. As positive working relationship developed, these phenomena declined.“

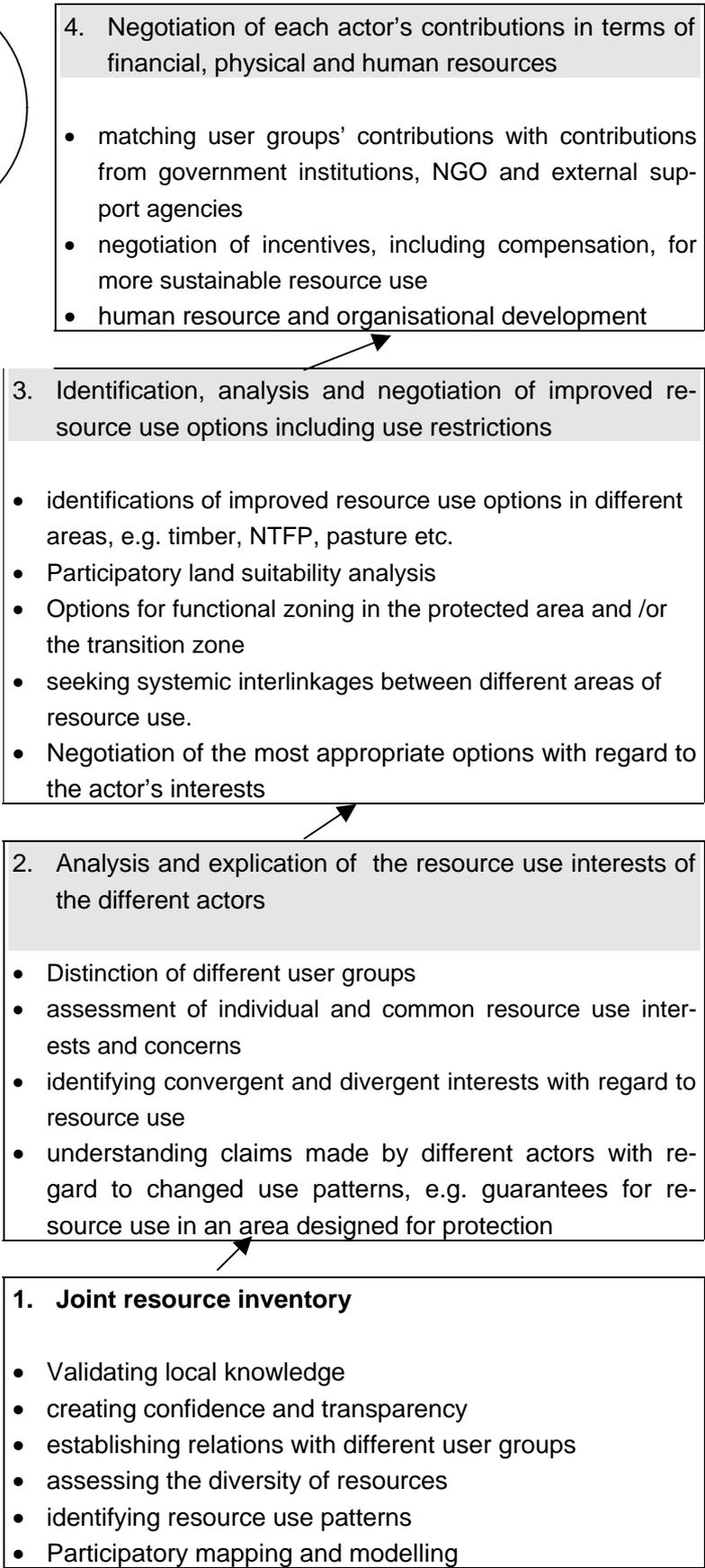
Wild, R. G. / Mutebi, J. 1996:19f.

## Diagram 1: 10 Steps in Resource Use Planning



Reconsider previous steps if necessary and ap-

7. Realisation of pilot measures following a learning process approach



- ***Establishing relations with different user groups***

Often local communities are perceived as social entities with more or less uniform use patterns. A joint resource inventory may provide an opportunity for external actors (government services, NGOs, project staff) to discover specialised user groups in the local community with knowledge concerning the use of particular natural resources. Beyond the scope of the resource inventory, a better understanding of different user groups is necessary because specialised user groups will present themselves as actors with specific interests in the later course of the RUP process.

*Discovering specialised user groups with their experiences*

- ***Assessing the diversity of resources***

A joint resource inventory may contain discoveries and surprises with regard to the diversity of natural resources in a certain area from both a local resource use perspective and an interdisciplinary perspective (e.g. forestry, ethnobotanics, zoology, soil and water conservation). Exploring the diversity of resources may be overwhelming, but it will open up more options for rebalancing resource use patterns among different actors.

*Combining local resource use with an interdisciplinary per-*

- ***Identifying resource use patterns***

The information provided by a joint resource inventory can be systematised in terms of resource use patterns, from a resource perspective and from a user group perspective. A particular resource may be severely threatened with little chance of regeneration. The reason may be competition between different user groups for this resource. From an action perspective the question would be: Which user groups could use which resources in order to lower the pressure on these resources?

*Analysing the patterns behind resource user practices*

- ***Participatory mapping and modelling***

The information gathered in the course of a joint resource inventory may be visualised through participatory mapping and/or modelling techniques (In some cases aerial photographs of a reasonable size are used for the same purpose). The visualisation helps to validate the experience of a joint resource inventory by enabling the joint analysis of the information gathered. It can be shared with others who are affected by the RUP process but did not participate in the resource inventory. Filling the information from the resource inventory onto a map or a model will only be the first step. The map or model can serve as a suitable tool for the whole RUP process.

*Making maximum use of visualisation methods*

## 4.2 Analysis and explication of the resource use interests of the different actors

*Focusing convergencies and divergencies of resource use interests*

The information gathered during the joint resource inventory will have revealed resource use practices and patterns of different user groups. Reviewing this information on a higher analytical level can highlight the interests lying behind these practices and patterns. It is important to put them in the context of different user groups acting with different interests. In this perspective convergencies and divergencies of interests can be focused on. The key question for this second step is therefore: Who uses which resources with which interests, and which convergencies and divergencies of interests can be identified?

### Key elements:

- ***Distinction of different user groups***

*Developing a well-shaped picture of the user groups*

The joint resource inventory reveals details of the main user groups provided that a substantial participation from local community actors has been achieved. The user groups may be identified by looking at them from a particular natural resource perspective (Who is using a particular resource?) or, from an actor perspective (What sorts of resource use can be identified with regard to a particular actor?). A clearer picture of the relevant user groups can be produced by utilising different “lenses” to look at the actors’ use practices (see chapter 3.2). If women did not participate in the resource inventory, an examination of the user groups with the gender “lenses” is essential. Developing a clearer picture of the user groups may require further participatory diagnostic work.

- ***Assessment of individual and common resource use interests and concerns***

*Understanding how individual and common interests are intertwined*

User groups identified should be given the chance to explain their interests and concerns with regard to resource use. The key question would be: Why do user groups practise certain forms of resource use? Initially resource use patterns may seem to be merely sustainable but, with further explanations given by the actors concerned, things may appear different. It may become clear why a particular user group has opted for a non-sustainable extractive resource practice: overall conditions may be seen as not very stable, thus stimulating user groups to realise short-term benefits as quickly as possible, with a detrimental effect on the resource basis and its regeneration patterns. This leads to the question: To what extent are the individual interests of actors simply pursued on a power struggle basis, or to what extent are actors capable of regulating and limiting resource use practices to defend common interests? Common interests may be defended by socio-political actors on the local level, as well as by government organisations mandated by the State.

This will bring a crucial dimension into the picture: Who has which rights to use which natural resources? Very often, resource use practices are better understood, though not necessarily approved, if the resource use rights “background” is explained.

- ***Identifying convergent and divergent interests with regard to resource use***

Convergencies and divergencies can be analysed from different angles. One particular resource, for example wildlife, may be focused on in order to compare different use interests in this area. From another angle the actors' interests may be classified in terms of favouring sustainable or destructive use of the different resources. The challenge is to find potential entry points for change of resource use patterns. In identifying convergent and divergent interests, the local power configurations must be taken into account. There is little point in convening a round table for all user groups to take a seat if it is a foregone conclusion who will be in control in the situation. In many situations it may be more appropriate to hold separate discussions with individual user groups, based on the principle of the separation of perspectives. Positions and options can be identified within this framework in order to bring all the user groups to one table for a decision-making process thereafter.

*Finding potential entry points for changing resource use patterns*

- ***Understanding claims made by different actors with regard to changed use patterns, e.g. guarantees for resource use in an area designed for protection***

As a rule, the benefits from resource use anticipated by various user groups are not complementary, i.e. competing claims on use prevail. Where there are such competing claims, those actors better placed within the local power structure will endeavour to secure their control of resource use at the expense of other groups. At the same time, those actors poorly placed will attempt to enhance their scope for utilising natural resources. Competing claims on use draw attention to the issue of the scope of action for sustainable resource management. The scope of action emerges within the dialectical field of tension generated by conducive and constraining forces. The latter can be approached with the question: Which strategies to achieve benefits are more likely to destroy, and which are more likely to conserve natural resources, and which user groups (actors) are willing, and to what extent, to change their resource utilisation behaviour? In order to reach this point in the process of analysis and diagnosis, a situation must be created in which the various user groups are able to present their views and articulate themselves.

*Understanding competing claims as indications for the scope of action for sustainable resource management*

### 4.3 Identification, analysis and negotiation of improved resource use options including use restrictions

*Developing a common vision and highlighting systemic linkages between different options*

At this stage the RUP process will focus increasingly on options for improved resource use, i.e. options which express the willingness of actors to modify or change their resource use practices, thus shifting the balance in favour of more sustainable resource use patterns. The actors at this point may start by developing a common vision of the resource use situation in the future, before considering improved resource use options in concrete terms. In sharing a vision of the desired situation in the future, actors' concerns about resource use and protection may be expressed more clearly than before. Developing a common vision may also create a constructive atmosphere for turning to the improved resource use options to be considered. There will be different options in the beginning which will be narrowed down through a negotiation and decision-making process. The challenge is to highlight the systemic linkages between the different options: one actor, for example, may be willing to accept a reduced use option for a particular resource, while gaining the opportunity of better access to another resource at the same time. This may be convincing to another actor who, in turn, might offer to reduce his claims for using a particular resource while getting improved access to another resource.

#### **Key elements:**

- ***Identification of improved resource use options in different areas, e.g. timber, NTFP, pasture etc.***

*Analysing the implications of each option and giving constructive appreciations*

The diagnostic and analytical work in the course of the first two steps has revealed potential for improved resource options, including use restrictions. These have to be analysed in close consultation with the actors concerned. In this process the range of options may become even broader as the actors feel stimulated to make appropriate proposals. The ecological, economic and socio-cultural implications of each and every option have to be considered carefully. Views on potential options, and especially on their exclusion, should be explained thoroughly in order not to destroy constructive attitudes. Assessments are always subjective, i.e. linked to particular interests, even if they seem to be founded on objective data collection and analysis. If some of the actors claim that their position is objective, the others will do likewise, thus giving a constructive negotiation process little chance. It may be useful to bring the different options with their particular implications into a synoptic visualised pres-

entation as a starting point for discussing and choosing the most promising options.

- **Participatory land suitability analysis**

Depending on the options being proposed, a land suitability analysis may be required. This would be the case if a pasture zone or an agro-forestry zone has been suggested as an improved resource use option for the transition zone. In conventional land use planning, the land suitability analysis is often used by technicians to push forward their preferred resource use options, as it is presumed that the local resource users are generally neither capable nor willing to use their land according to its suitability. A participatory suitability analysis tries to combine the knowledge and capacities of the different actors in order to examine the validity of resource use options.

*Combining the knowledge and capacities of different actors*

#### **Box 4: Functional zoning in the Annapurna Conservation Area, Nepal**

“The management of Annapurna Conservation Area is based on the **multi-land use protected area concept**. Accordingly, the area is divided into five zones:

**Special Management Zone** includes areas with scenic beauty which have less than 100 years of settlement history, but facing ecological problems... Highest priority has been given to the management of resources in this zone.

**Wilderness Area** includes areas above the upper elevation of seasonal grazing, roughly all terrain above 15,000 ft altitude. This zone is under full protection as the people are not allowed to use resources of this zone.

**Protected Forest/Seasonal Grazing Zone** lies between the Wilderness Zone and the Intensive Management Zone. Selective use of forest is allowed here.

**Intensive Management Zone** includes area under intensive agriculture and human activities. ACAP's [Annapurna Conservation Area Project] are focused most in this zone as it serves as a buffer for the protected forest and wilderness areas.

**Biotic/Anthropological Zone** includes areas where the influence of technology and modern man has not significantly affected the life of the inhabitants...The number of tourists or trekkers are strictly controlled in this zone.”

ACAP 1996: 6

*Gaining flexibility  
by overcoming  
conventional  
zoning*

- **Options for functional zoning in the protected area and/or the transition zone**

Functional zoning has evolved in the last years as a flexible approach to balancing different resource use and protection interests of different actors by prescribing clear spatial attributions. More and more flexibility has been gained by overcoming the conventional zoning system, which is often no more than a core and a buffer zone inside the protected area. Functional zoning goes beyond a preselected set of zones to which certain areas can be attributed. The types of zones depend on a site specific-agreement among different actors.

**The flexibility inherent in functional zoning facilitates the negotiation process among different actors considerable**

If the government department defending nature preservation objectives strives to get a substantial core zone as a protected area with no use allowed at all, the position can be balanced by the recognition of other

**Box 5: Functional zoning: the case of Cuyabeno, Ecuador**

“The process of zoning and of designing the joint agreement took ... about one to two years according to the specific situation of a community. There were mainly three reasons for that: **(1)** In the beginning the relationship between the Protected Area Authority and the communities was not very good due to the previous protection policy being directed against the indigenous population. **(2)** Because of logistical bottlenecks (remoteness of the communities, availability of boats, motors, fuel or staff of the protected area, absence of important community members) meetings with the communities took place only once in three months. These time constraints on the other hand were advantageous in the sense that proposals and ideas could be deliberately considered thus giving the communities sufficient time for internal discussion and avoiding any fatigue with community meetings. **(3)** Consensus could not always easily be reached - one community e.g. claimed to go into commercial logging in the protected area, a claim not even being negotiable for the Protected Area Authority. Official negotiations therefore were suspended for nine months until the concerned community asked for reopening the negotiations as they had realised the utility of the agreement even when renouncing to their initially made claim.

The tourism industry, one of the main actors in Cuyabeno, was purposely not included in the negotiation process. But after signing the agreement workshops were organised by the communities and the Protected Area Authority in order to negotiate specific modes of conduct for the tourism industry.“

Amend, T. / Amend, S. 1996: 14 (Translation)

zones with certain use rights and restrictions, e.g. pasture zones, hunting zones, NTFP collection zones etc. If a sound package is negotiated, the actors concerned about use options in the protected area will accept the core zone because other zones respond to their needs.

*Developing site-specific attributions for different zones in the protected area and the transition zone*

Functional zoning can comprise resource use attributions for the protected area as well as for the transition zone. The principle is the same, though the configurations of zones will of course be quite different. Whereas the transition zone might have an agricultural production zone without use restrictions, this is certainly out for the protected area. On the other hand it will be difficult to define a core area which is completely protected in the transition zone. Depending on the particular socio-cultural setting, there may be a patch of holy forest which is well protected and respected. But, if there is a substantial core zone in the protected area, there is no need to create a parallel one in the transition zone. Functional zoning in the transition zone must be carefully handled, taking into consideration the prevailing farming systems. If participation is to do more than pay lip service, the local resource users will defend their farming systems to counter zoning proposals from specialists working with the external actors. Proposing a spatially well described farming zone with certain attributions does not make sense for a farming system with farming areas scattered all over the village territory.

- ***Seeking systemic interlinkages between different areas of resource use***

Utilising systemic interlinkages between different areas of resource use can be seen as another means for gaining more flexibility in the negotiation process as part of an RUP process. "Playing" with the systemic interlinkages means taking into consideration the variety of resource use interests of different user groups. The more use patterns are diversified, the easier it will be to balance use restrictions with regard to one particular resource with improved use options for other resources. The more user groups depend on one particular resource for earning their living, the more difficult it will be to find compensation for use restrictions. Nevertheless the possibilities for balancing resource use interests are manifold. If certain actors still hesitate to accept use restrictions in the context of functional zoning in the protected area, they might be compensated by improved resource use options in the transition zone.

*Balancing use restrictions for one resource with improved use options for other resources*

- ***Negotiation of the most appropriate options with regard to the actors' interests***

The path of a negotiation process cannot be foreseen. It depends on the set of actors and on the specific mixture of convergencies and divergencies of resource use interests. The challenge is to find the most appro-

*Balancing different interests without countervailing the overall objective of sustainable resource use*

appropriate options for improved resource use, including use restrictions, in the protected area and in the transition zone. "Appropriate" in this context goes beyond technical suitability: it refers to the degree of different interests being balanced without countervailing the overall objective of sustainable resource use. The most appropriate options, therefore, are those which make the actors move in the direction of more sustainable resource use while maintaining resource protection objectives, without any of the actors seeing themselves as losing out. Of course, a sound negotiation process cannot satisfy all the actors' needs but, if certain actors see themselves as having lost out through having an agreement pushed onto them, they will not be committed to its implementation. On the contrary, they might consider mobilising their obstructive forces.

*Facilitation needs a broadly accepted mandate*

The crucial question is who will play the facilitating role in such a negotiation process. It might be a well respected person from the area with uncontested negotiation capacities, or it might be a person linked to any of the external actors, provided they do not push their positions in a way that will alienate the other actors. In either case facilitation is only possible with a broadly accepted mandate. The choice of an appropriate facilitator therefore depends on the specific planning context.

In the course of negotiation the question will inevitably arise: Which actors will make what sort of contributions to implementing certain options for improved resource use? This leads to the next step.

#### **4.4 Negotiation of each actor's contributions in terms of financial, physical and human resources**

*Matching the contributions of external and internal actors for the sake of ownership development*

The different actors' contributions to the realisation of improved resource use options will have to be discussed as part of the negotiation process. This is of crucial importance, because it may become the key criterion for excluding or adopting a particular option for improved resource use. If, for example, the marketing of a certain NTFP is discussed as a means to create alternative income opportunities for certain user groups, it may be realised that very substantial services from external actors would be required for its implementation in order to develop appropriate marketing channels. If the actors consider these services to go beyond their capacities and, if they see no possibility of serving as an intermediary with a competent external actor coming in, then this option, as promising as it may have been initially, will have to be dropped. If on the other hand the

actors realise that they can contribute to the implementation of a particular improved resource use option, they might adopt it.

The risk of basing the choice of an option for improved resource use primarily on contributions from external actors is that ownership development will be discouraged as the local resource users will lack incentives for self organisation and self management. So an emphasis must be put on local resource users' own contributions to the implementation of an improved resource use option, a key factor in encouraging ownership among local resource users in order to achieve improved resource use options.

**Key elements:**

- ***matching user group's contributions with contributions from government institutions, NGOs and external support agencies***

The challenge in this context is to negotiate the matching of the contributions of different actors. The capacities of the local resource users for making contributions must be considered in order not to overstretch them. But the external support being offered conditionally to local resource users has to be clearly highlighted as well. Local user groups may contribute in providing physical, financial, material and/or human and organisational resources.

*Considering local resource users' capacities without overstretching them*

- ***Negotiation of incentives, including compensation, for more sustainable resource use***

Incentives take three main forms: subsidies, compensation and non-sectoral support measures. Subsidies in this context are defined as direct, material support for the implementation of improved resource use options; they aim to influence the absolute and relative prices and costs of goods and services. Subsidies should be limited in duration and contingent on the recipient's fulfilment of specific requirements, thus regulating the use of natural resources. Compensation comprises inputs/services to individuals, households and groups as compensation for disadvantages and hardships in renouncing the use of previously accessible resources. Compensation can entail compensatory payments, creating or improving the conditions for alternative use of resources and/or for new sources of income (for further details look at the LISTRA concept element on "compensation"). Non-sectoral support measures generally address the local resource users' capacity and willingness to participate actively in natural resource management.

*Developing a proper mix of subsidies, compensation and non-sectoral support measures*

With regard to the protection of forest resources, external actors might be tempted to "buy" local resource users' consent by offering generous support in terms of subsidies, compensation or non-sectoral support

measures. This option is very risky because a never-ending spiral of bargaining is launched, with no real chance for significant support for resource preservation objectives being gained from the local users. The user groups bargaining for such offers are not interested in providing inputs or commitment in return. On the contrary, they are, so to speak, simply "along for the ride". There are, however, other ***risks and dangers associated with subsidies, compensation and non-sectoral support measures:***

⇒Subsidies can lead to economically incorrect allocation of productive factors; by providing low-priced or free seeds, for example, they might in fact promote non-sustainable use of natural resources.

⇒Non-sectoral support measures (e.g. village water supplies or health infrastructures) run the risk of becoming an end in themselves and losing touch with forest protection objectives.

⇒Incentives can be counterproductive by immobilising rather than strengthening the local resource users' own initiatives ("taker mentality").

⇒When it is known that compensation will be paid, some people might step up ecologically harmful practices in the hope of reaping greater benefits.

⇒Knowing that subsidies and compensation are being granted might motivate new groups to try and gain a right to claim them ("pull effect").

Appropriate incentives with regard to the improved resource use options should be designed in the course of the negotiation process. The feedback which the local resource users will give with regard to the incentives offered by the external actors will help them to agree on incentives which really serve their purpose.

- ***Human resource and organisational development***

The external actors should draw attention to the question of contributions from their side to support the local resource users' human resource and organisational development. They must analyse the different options for improved resource use being considered in terms of their implications for human resources and the organisational capacities required for their implementation. Any support offered by external actors in this regard should be based as much as possible on the local resource users' capacities at hand. There is no need to create a new organisation if suitable local organisational structures can be identified (see also concept element "local organisational development").

*Designing appropriate incentives in the course of the negotiation process*

*Building as much as possible on existing human and organisational capacities*

**Box 6: If external incentives have to be renegotiated:  
experiences from Benin**

In a forestry project in Benin a management plan for a classified forest was jointly elaborated with four village communities having their territory adjacent to the forest. In that respect the whole forest area had been divided in four collaborative management areas. As part of the management plan villagers were offered income opportunities from wages for road construction inside the forest. In one management area the villagers categorically refused the first payment as being insufficient. This implied a renegotiation of wages leading to a consensus which apparently could not have been reached when elaborating the management plan.

Source: personal information

#### **4.5 Negotiation of rules and regulations for the realisation of certain resource use options, including use restrictions**

Having gone through the fourth step, the negotiation process is not yet over. With regard to certain improved resource use options, those including resource use restrictions rules and regulations have to be especially thoroughly discussed in order to get an idea of their applicability. It is risky to create a resource protection zone in the village territory if there is little likelihood of certain rules and regulations being accepted by all user groups. If migrant herders are used to passing through this zone, considering it to be pasture ground for their animals, they will only be able to accept the new resource protection option if alternatives for grazing their animals are offered. If, for the sake of sustainability, use restrictions are discussed with regard to certain special use zones in the protected area, the question of rules and regulations becomes even more difficult: Who will take responsibility for assuring that certain quotas are accepted, and who will be accountable for infringements of the quotas?

The challenge for the negotiation process is to **balance contributions from the different actors**: local resource users should have substantial responsibility in controlling the non-violation of rules and regulations. If rules and regulations depend too much upon external actors' contributions in terms of control and law enforcement, the local resource users will lack the incentives to take real responsibility. **Rules and regulations will have to be elaborated jointly in order to stimulate ownership**

*Local resource users must be responsible and accountable for the sake of ownership development*

**and self-management.** This is not compatible with the behaviour of some external actors who present ready-made rules and regulations and expect the local resource users to take responsibility for carrying them out. For the external actors defending resource preservation objectives, it may seem too risky to let the local resource users assume substantial responsibility in the drawing up and application of rules and regulations. But not to do so is the riskier option, as it conveys a clear message to the local resource users: you will abuse your responsibilities if we allow you to assume them, so it's better for us be responsible for controlling the enforcement of rules and regulations. Instead of mobilising and developing their own capacities for taking responsibility and ownership, the local resource users will then set their own agenda.

**Key elements:**

- **Monitoring and control**

*Putting efforts and effects in a reasonable relationship*

Tasks and responsibilities should be clarified by taking into consideration the specific features of each option. In designing them a balance should be achieved between efforts and results. Monitoring and control must be effective, but the efforts expended should not go beyond the level of practicability. Locally proven mechanisms of social control should be made use of to balance local users' and external actors' responsibilities. It should be clear when and how the various types of sanctions will be applied and who has the decision-making power to decide about sanctions.

- **Conflict management**

*Taking conflicts as an opportunity for improving rules and regulations*

It would be idealistic to expect rules and regulations to work smoothly in practice. Situations will arise where sanctions may not appear justified to the person being charged, thus provoking a case of dispute resolution. Dispute resolution and conflict management may also be necessary when certain rules and regulations are agreed on during the planning process but do not stand the test of applicability. The best way of handling such a conflict may be to jointly revise some of the rules. In this case the conflict should be welcomed as evidence of a lack of practicability of one of the rules. Dispute resolution and conflict management will be more difficult when actors are affected by the rules and regulations but were not given the opportunity to participate properly in drawing them up.

Considering the inability to foresee dispute and conflict situations, conflict management mechanisms should be based on locally adapted mechanisms acceptable to the local resource users.

**Box 7: Conflict potentials:  
experiences from joint forest management in India**

“Intravillage conflicts are more common in heterogeneous villages with prominent class and caste differences and wide variations in the nature and types of forest dependencies of different subgroups. Clash of interests between a grazer subgroup desiring forest access and others desiring closure to facilitate regeneration, is a classic example of the type of predictable conflict that is difficult to resolve. Perceived inequity in the distribution of costs and benefits of forest closure, ..obstinacy of some members in accepting common rules, and suspicions that the leadership is unduly favouring its own vested party can all lead to intravillage conflicts.

On the other hand, conflicts with neighbouring villages often arise over boundaries, denial of forest access, or the usurpation of the rights of a weaker community by a more powerful one. With the forest department, conflicts can emerge over direct clear-felling of forests on which local villagers are highly dependent, or over the forest department’s sale of timber rights to commercial or industrial interests. The goal of many self-initiated protection groups in Bihar and Orissa is, ironically, to protect their forests from the forest department.

Sahrin, M. 1996: 198

- **Organisational arrangements**

If responsibilities for monitoring and control as well as conflict management are defined the question of organisational arrangements inevitably comes up, assuming that these responsibilities can be attributed to persons in a particular organisational context. Responsibility may be shared among different organisations. A council of elders may take responsibility in conflict management, in order not to overstretch the mandate of the local resource management association (see also concept element "local organisational development").

*Attributing  
roles and  
responsibilities to different  
organisations*

- **Benefit sharing arrangements**

Resource use interests of different user groups have to be balanced in very concrete terms, e.g.: Who has the right to collect how much NTFP X in the NTFP collection zone during which period? (see example in Box 8) Benefit sharing arrangements are not always shared on equal terms. Marginalised user groups may be given preference, while better off user groups renounce their shares.

*Benefit sharing  
requires proper  
selection of beneficiaries and  
negotiation  
of specific conditions*

Benefit sharing arrangements will be of crucial importance, if the particular features of a protected area are to attract tourism. Benefit sharing

ing in this context means negotiating with the Protected Area Authority in order to get a substantial share of revenue from tourism for local actors who will utilise these funds for local development purposes, including compensation. In addition to applications and decision-making procedures about the allocation of these funds, criteria for their utilisation and for the selection of beneficiaries will need a special agreement among the actors concerned. To make it viable, consent from a national level will be essential.

Benefit sharing arrangements are also necessary in the case of local resource user participation in forest management without full management responsibility being given to the local community (e.g. joint forest management systems in India). If local communities are to have shares in net sale values from forest products in a joint forest management area, for example, benefit sharing mechanisms have to be identified on two levels: between the Forestry Department and local communities and among the community members.

#### **Box 8: Nominating resource users: an example from Uganda**

“Deciding how many resource users could harvest from an area and who they should be were important steps, affecting the harvest quantity and quality and behaviour in the forest. Contrary to our expectation, the community willingly discussed severe limitation on numbers. For the two Mpungu multiple-use areas ... the numbers of basketmakers discussed ranged between 2 and 20. Following this discussion the community nominated 22 basketmakers. Once more details on species and areas harvested were collected we felt the resources could sustain all the 22 nominated users. We had the same experience in all the pilot parishes and the nomination process therefore proved to be self-limiting.

Nominations were made, discussed and either accepted or rejected by community consensus. Criteria for nominations were that users be the recognised experts of their trade, provide good quality, fair service and be responsible and reliable individuals.”

Wild, R. G. / Mutebi, J. 1996: 23

### **4.6 Detailed planning of different components of a resource use plan, e.g. forest protection, village afforestation, pasture management**

Assuming that the negotiation process has reached agreement on different options for improved resource use, including use restrictions, each

*Balancing different resource use and protection interests under a common conceptual “umbrella”*

option will have to be subject to more detailed planning by taking its particular features into consideration. The resource use plan as such will therefore consist of different components which are not juxtaposed but related in terms of systemic linkages, i.e. by balancing different resource use and protection interests of different actors under a common conceptual "umbrella".

### Key elements

- **Tasks and roles of the different actors**

As a result of the discussion and negotiation process in the course of steps 1-5, the roles and tasks of the different actors should be sufficiently clarified in order to be formulated with regard to a particular plan component. What should be made explicit is the share of responsibilities among different actors together with the distribution of roles, e.g. Who will play a facilitation role, and what is involved? **or:** Who will play a coordinating role, and what is involved? Necessary roles depend on the nature of a plan component. There is no standard list of roles to be distributed for each and every plan component.

*Linking the distribution of roles and tasks to the specific capacities of each actor*

The distribution of tasks and roles is linked to the particular capacities of each actor. One needs to be realistic in judging one's own capacities before accepting roles or tasks. This should constantly go together with critical questioning.

Once roles and tasks are clarified the detailed planning work will comprise at least four key elements.

⇒sequencing of steps

⇒spatial planning: What should be done where exactly?

⇒operational planning: Who does what, when and how?

⇒financial planning: What are the costs involved and for whom?

When planning is understood as helpful agreement between different actors on concrete action, then the extent of planning detail will depend on how much the actors consider appropriate at this point, and on what level of uncertainty in the plans the actors are willing to accept, or consider necessary.

## 4.7 Realisation of pilot measures following a learning process approach

In the course of an RUP process, the implementation of pilot measures should be seen as an opportunity to improve the plan, and not as a means to be side-tracked. The advantages of certain improved resource options may become clearer through pilot measures carried out on an

*Pilot measures are a learning field for cooperation*

experimental basis. But the results may also indicate to the actors concerned that the option is not that promising. Depending on the timing of the RUP process, certain pilot measures will of course be excluded, for example new agro-forestry practices, because of the time needed to get significant results. But there is still scope for a broad range of pilot measures. Pilot measures should not only be seen as an opportunity for improving and enlarging technical knowledge, but as a chance for capacity development of the actors concerned, as well as a learning field for cooperation. Cooperating on a small scale gives precious hints on how cooperation could be developed and improved on a larger scale. Although this is described here as step 7, pilot measures may start as soon as improved resource options have been identified (step 3). Therefore step 7 has a special position in the sequence of the ten steps (see diagram 1). For further explanation concerning this step, the reader should refer to the concept element "joint learning for change".

#### **4.8 Conclusion and realisation of a joint-management agreement among different actors**

*Actors have to confirm and to demonstrate what they are committed to*

The different components (see step 6) will be compiled in a joint agreement among the different actors. This joint agreement will also contain clarifications concerning legal provisions, especially if modifications in the actual legal provisions were considered essential in the course of the RUP process. This realisation of a joint agreement puts the actors under pressure to find some sort of compromise for issues still pending. This is the moment where the different actors have to demonstrate what they are committed to. The joint agreement thus becomes a binding agreement which will hopefully stimulate the different actors to play their roles, take on their tasks and accept their responsibilities.

##### **Box 9: What is the appropriate duration of a negotiation process? An example from Uganda.**

“Negotiating the Memoranda of Understanding took 15-20 days of fieldwork per parish, over a period of 6 to 10 months. The seven months taken for the Rutugunda [one pilot parish TS] agreement was appropriate and allowed sufficient “gestation” time between meetings. The other agreements took too long, due to inexperience and incidental delays. Occasionally, community members wanted to move more quickly, but overall they were satisfied with progress.

Periods shorter than six months could jeopardise the process. At this rate, however, negotiations for the remaining 17 parishes would take three years: too long for the last parishes to wait. Speeding up the process could cause reduced participation. The process may accelerate as words spread elsewhere. In negotiating the agreements the community members who were also park or project staff played particularly important roles, having the knowledge and confidence of both groups."

Wild, R. G. / Mutebi, J. 1996: 29

#### Key elements:

- ***Finalising the documents, including maps***

The different components have to be put together and consistency among them found. The systemic linkages between the different components will have to be described and explained. Overriding principles will have to be presented, serving as a conceptual "umbrella" for the joint agreement. The final document will contain a number of maps which will give an overview of the different options for improved resource use, including use restrictions, in both the protected area and the transition zone.

*Highlighting the systemic linkages between the different components*

- ***Getting approval from the authorities***

It must be specified whose approval will be needed for the joint agreement in a particular RUP context. The weaker the mandate under which the representatives of the government organisations concerned have acted during the RUP process, the greater is the risk of the approval procedure calling into question what had been agreed upon by the different actors.

*Weak mandates bear risks*

- ***Realising delimitations on ground***

Delimitation work will be the first test for the pertinence of what has been planned and agreed to. The delimitation work should bring the actors concerned together as they put into practice what they have planned. This is not a question of mistrust but, hopefully, of participatory practices having become fairly routine in the course of the RUP process. Drawing up the resource inventory was probably a new, exciting experience of joint action, the starting point for a process which has now ended in a participatory routine.

*Getting the actors concerned together on the spot*

- ***Defining land marks for a critical review of the implementation of the agreement***

*Flexible implementation without calling into question the binding nature of an agreement*

When actors have invested their valuable resources in a joint RUP process, which has reached a more or less balanced outcome, the activities should be geared to the planning specifications so that agreements are kept. If the planning process turns out in retrospect to have been dubious, the actors' motivation will be adversely affected. However, the binding nature of agreements should not cloud the actors' vision of previously unforeseen opportunities which later arise later, in the course of an activity, and offer potential to improve implementation. A similar but converse opportunity will arise in a situation where a planning specification proves to be inappropriate or unrealistic at the start of the activities. During implementation, plans should be applied as flexibly as possible, without however questioning in principle the binding nature of the agreements reached. It is necessary to fix landmarks and to make critical checks on the pertinence of the planning specifications and their relevance. Landmarks may be defined as events to be achieved or as regular intervals for making a critical review of past action.

- **Process monitoring**

*Going regularly through the cycle of process selection @ observation @ reflection and (retro) action*

In this step the actors should include provisions for monitoring the implementation of the different plans, with a special emphasis on the process. In monitoring processes one examines the quality of certain processes and how they have evolved over a certain period. Four main questions have to be answered here by the different actors:

- ⇒ What (which processes) do we wish to monitor? → process selection
- ⇒ Who should observe whom and what? → observation
- ⇒ What can we conclude from this? → reflection
- ⇒ What are we going to change in the light of our observations? → (retro) action

If the process of changing resource use patterns is selected as one of the key processes to be monitored, situations will have to be defined where a reflective dialogue with resource users about changes in their resource use patterns will be possible, assuming that the local resource users also monitor this process, in their own way of course!

If ownership development is selected as another key process, the question will be: What indicates that local resource users have developed sufficient ownership for the management of a resource protection area in the transition zone. Discussing these indicators with the local resource users, and finding out what they use as indicators, could be an appropriate entry point for a reflective dialogue.

## 4.9 Implementation of the agreement and its different components

The initial phase of implementation, i.e. putting the agreement to the practicability test, is of crucial importance. Precious resources have been invested by all actors in the whole RUP process so far, perhaps with a number of special negotiation loops as interest divergencies are difficult to bridge. As a result some actors will be impatient to get concrete results. But all the actors have to bear in mind that most of the planning work – except the pilot measures (see step 7) – involves anticipating what **should** happen, which does not mean that it **will** happen. **The challenge for all actors, therefore, is to maintain flexibility and openness** which have, hopefully, emerged in the course of the negotiation process. If unforeseen difficulties arise in the initial practical work in the newly established special NTFP collection zone, which is now part of the protected area, the actors should not blame those responsible for not foreseeing these difficulties during planning. Instead, they should welcome these difficulties as an opportunity for improving the rules and regulations for the special NTFP collection zone at an early stage of implementation. The same applies for a situation where, for example, the establishment of a cattle corridor in the village territory faces difficulties during delimitation work on the ground. The participation of migrant herders may turn out to be not as sound as the other actors thought. Even if such a situation leads to some renegotiations work, these modifications should be welcomed as a way of improving action through learning.

Difficulties may also arise with actors whose first reaction with regard to **unforeseen events** will be to defend the agreement. This will be justified if actors present new arguments which they had held back during the negotiation process. But these reactions may be an obstacle for potential learning situations. An actor's concealment strategy may initially be seen simply as an obstacle but could, be a good learning opportunity if the question is asked: What instigated this actor to pursue his or her strategy?

A great challenge, especially for those actors playing a supportive and advisory role (see step 6), will be to **keep up the momentum of the planning process in terms of fostering participation and ownership development**. Organisational arrangements for monitoring and control (see step 5) among the local resource users do not always work smoothly right from the beginning - which is to be expected. But actors who take this as a confirmation of their mistrust with regard to local resource users' monitoring and control capacities should not be allowed to (re)usurp monitoring and control operations as a result. Creating a situa-

*Welcoming difficulties in implementation as opportunities for learning*

*Articulating mistrust in a constructive way*

tion where this mistrust can be articulated will be a constructive way of improving the provisions for monitoring control, without jeopardising the local resource users' capacity development towards self-management.

It will be useful to **create a forum** where critical issues arising in the course of the implementation work can be discussed without waiting for the next landmark. Such a forum can take very different forms (e.g. permanent working group, council, steering committee, and the like). It will, of course, be based on organisational arrangements which have evolved in the course of the RUP process. The more trust there is in a forum, the easier it will be to tackle critical issues in a way that will avoid further tension, thus opening opportunities for constructively dealing with the critical issues.

#### **4.10 Learning from experiences: a critical review of the agreement and its components when reaching the first landmark**

As landmarks have been defined in the course of step 8, the first landmark will be reached sooner or later, thus providing an opportunity for all actors to step back from implementation work at least for one or two days in order to evaluate the implementation process of the agreement and its components. This goes together with process monitoring as described in step 8. Landmarks may have been set differently for the agreement as a whole and for each of its components. In any case, a number of **guiding questions** may serve the purpose of a critical review as one major step in process monitoring, eventually leading to decisions on modifications or to substantial changes of the agreement and/or of its components:

- From what has been implemented so far, what has been promising or successful? What indications do we have in the field, and what was it that made it promising or successful?
- From what has been implemented so far, what has faced difficulties – or failed – in implementation? Where did we make mistakes and end up in dead-end situations, despite the thorough planning work? To what extent could we validate it as a learning opportunity?
- What turned out differently than we had imagined? What can we learn from these unforeseen situations?
- What did we forget, what did we not want to acknowledge, and what did we repress completely?

- When were we blocked, with none of us knowing what to do next?
- What and who helped to break down these blocks?
- Why did something take longer than expected?
- To what extent could we keep up the momentum of participation and ownership development?
- How do we assess the flexibility and openness of the different actors?
- To what extent have certain actors remained committed while others have dropped out?
- What can we learn from observation and dialogue concerning important processes?
- How do we assess to what extent our goals were realistic?
- What do we wish to do differently in the future? What do we hope to achieve by this?

## 5 Concluding remarks on the project's facilitative role

*A facilitator should not be too closely linked with one of the main actors*

In the context of bilateral German Development Cooperation, a project will have to define the role it wants to play in an RUP process. A project cannot be a neutral actor, even if it pretends to be one. The actors will be eager to position the project in order to get an indication of which actors' interests the project might be in favour of. If a project is able to play a facilitator's role, it should not be too closely linked with any of the main actors. Its role should be designed at an early stage. It should then be developed step by step, through positive feedback from the main actors and a common understanding of what "facilitation" is.

*Having a constant eye on the quality of the negotiation process*

**'Facilitation' in RUP supports the process's positive dynamics.** The main challenge in this respect will be to observe the quality of the negotiation process carefully. When touchy issues are on the agenda in particular the actors will focus on their own positions and interests, and the quality of the negotiation process will take second place. A facilitator should react appropriately, especially at moments when the other actors are too heated up to rescue the negotiation process from a dead-end. "Facilitation" in this logic also means creating and recreating favourable conditions for the negotiation process.

*Decisions in the course of the RUP process should be taken by those directly affected*

**'Facilitation' also includes capacity and ownership development among the different actors, with a special emphasis on the local resource users.** According to the logic of facilitation, a project should observe the principle of subsidiarity. Wherever possible, decisions in the course of the RUP process should be taken by those directly affected, i.e. those closest to the problem. When defining restrictions on the use of community forest, for instance, the process of discussion and negotiation needs to be facilitated, while the decision-making is left to the actors on the community level. Only they can assess what level of acceptance could be elicited by which types of restriction on use. It would thus be out of the question for the project to propose a set of rules and then attempt to persuade the actors on the community level to agree to them. In a situation of this kind, African villagers in particular might be flexible enough to "accept" rules governing use which the project considers important, but they would do so without feeling responsible for complying with these rules.

In the logic of 'facilitation', compliance with the subsidiary principle is conducive to ownership. Furthermore, **it is crucial to leave scope for ownership development in the course of the RUP process**, especially where local actors do not themselves call for responsibility. In many cases, this will be due to the fact that the actors on the community level

expect nothing other than that the project and staff of the relevant public authority take responsibility. If the project succeeds in acting counter to prevailing expectations, thus leaving scope for the assumption of responsibility in the planning process, the actors on the community level will at first hesitate to accept it, as the experience will be entirely new to them. If the project misinterprets this by drawing the conclusion, "It seems we'll have to take things in hand ourselves!", the learning process towards ownership development will again be disrupted. However, if the project rides out the uncertainty, and if the actors at the community level respond by confidently occupying the newly-acquired space for self-responsibility in the planning and implementation process, then ownership development looks promising.

*Riding out  
uncertainty  
favours own-  
ership devel-  
opment*

The challenge for a facilitating project will be to **observe and understand the other actors' perceptions of its facilitative role**. It will therefore be essential to search for ways and means to find out from the other actors if the project's role is perceived as facilitative. If it becomes apparent that there are serious doubts, the project may revise its role, or even step out of facilitation while placing the following question on the actors' agenda: Who will take on the role of facilitator in the continuation of the RUP process?

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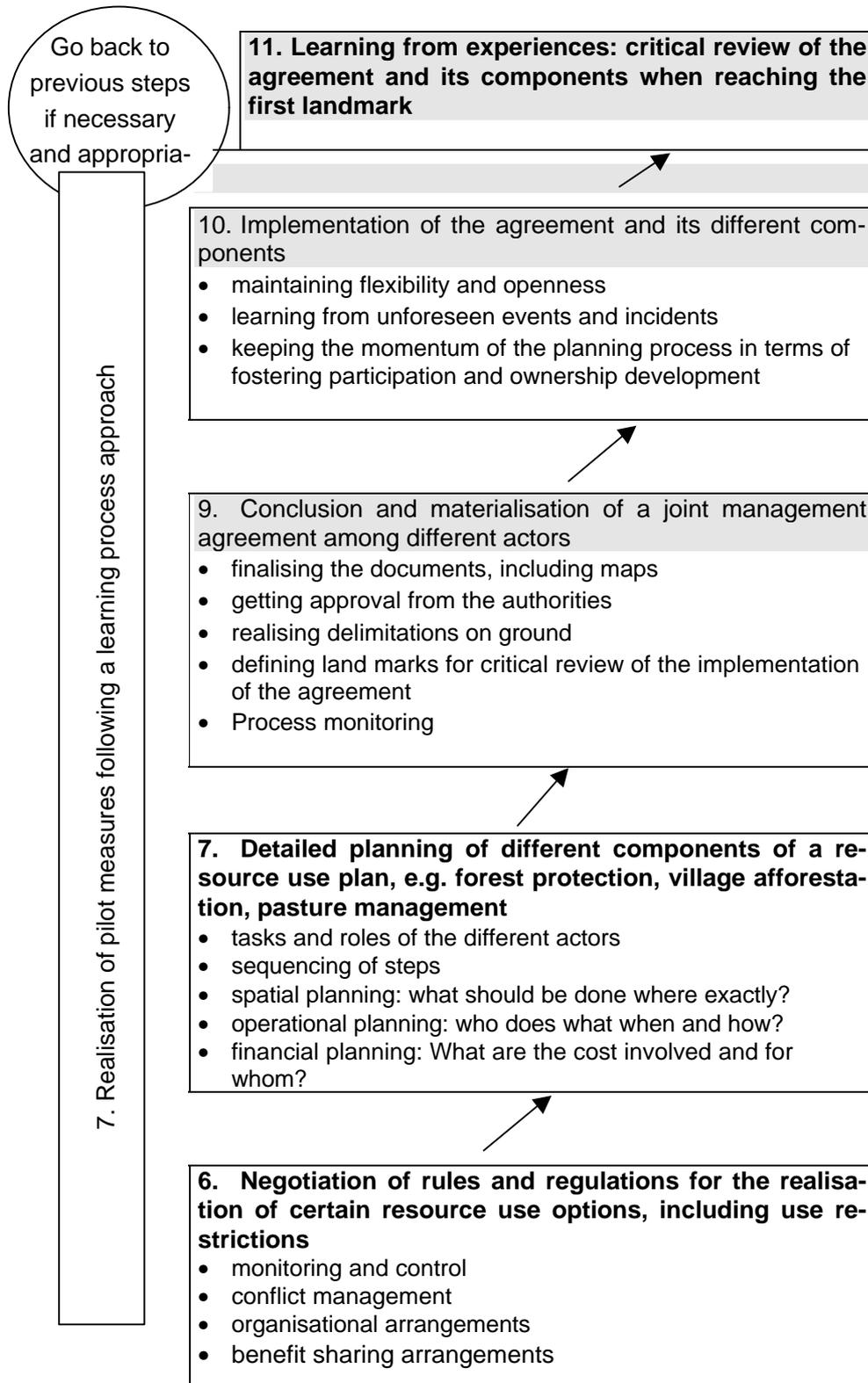
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**Diagram 1: 10 Steps in Resource Use Planning**





Reconsider previous steps if necessary and ap-

7. Realisation of pilot measures following a learning process approach

5. Negotiation of each actor's contributions in terms of financial, physical and human resources

- matching user groups' contributions with contributions from government institutions, NGO and external support agencies
- negotiation of incentives, including compensation, for more sustainable resource use
- human resource and organisational development

4. Identification, analysis and negotiation of improved resource use options including use restrictions

- identifications of improved resource use options in different areas, e.g. timber, NTFP, pasture etc.
- Participatory land suitability analysis
- Options for functional zoning in the protected area and /or the transition zone
- seeking systemic interlinkages between different areas of resource use.
- Negotiation of the most appropriate options with regard to the actor's interests

3. Analysis and explication of the resource use interests of the different actors

- Distinction of different user groups
- assessment of individual and common resource use interests and concerns
- identifying convergent and divergent interests with regard to resource use
- understanding claims made by different actors with regard to changed use patterns, e.g. guarantees for resource use in an area designed for protection

## **2. Joint resource inventory**

- Validating local knowledge
- creating confidence and transparency
- establishing relations with different user groups
- assessing the diversity of resources
- identifying resource use patterns
- Participatory mapping and modelling

