Module 3:

Communicating the Flyway Approach to Conservation

Ingrid Gevers & Esther Koopmanschap
Wageningen International

School children gather round a research vehicle near Lake Chilwa Ramsar Site, Malawi, exercise books in hand; good communication with local communities around important wetlands is essential in the flyway approach to conservation (photo: Tim Dodman).

Contents

Introduction

This module provides background on the concepts of learning, curriculum development and communication. It has been written as a guide for facilitators, 'advocates' and trainers involved in multi-stakeholder settings and processes in the application of the Flyway Approach to Communication. It describes the various processes that are important to facilitate such group processes and gives practical suggestions and tips to improve communication. The steps for the development of an advocacy strategy are also discussed. Practical exercises and assignments support the theoretical background. Session 1 of Module 3 puts learning in the centre of attention. To effectively communicate the Flyway Approach to Conservation one need to know a bit on how people 'digest' information, on how people learn. Session 2 provides background on Curriculum Development. This background is needed as input for reviewing Module 1, 2 and 3 of this workshop and the adaptation of these modules to the region. Session 3 deals with communication and advocacy: what actually is communication?; what is advocacy?; roles of an advocate, power issues and how to set up an advocacy strategy for communicating the Flyway Approach.

Learning Objectives

Overall learning objective of Module 3

By the end of delivery of Module 3 in a workshop setting all participants should understand what is needed to communicate the Flyway Approach and be able to review, adapt and develop training modules on the Flyway Approach to Conservation.

Specific learning objectives

By the end of a workshop all participants should:

- understand the concepts of adult learning;
- know the necessary steps of curriculum development;
- be able to review, adapt and develop a curriculum specific to their own region;
- understand the importance and the concepts of effective flyway approach communication;
- understand how to communicate a message to different stakeholders at a flyway level and in flyway networks.

1. Learning

1.1 Theoretical background

1.1.1 Why learning?

Wetland habitats are extremely complex and the interactions that exist within and between resources such as migratory waterbirds and resource users are often only partly understood, if at all. In addition, wetland systems show local variations which make generalisation difficult. The failure of generalised solutions (blueprints) in complex and uncertain environments has led to increased focus on management approaches such as adaptive learning, which can potentially provide more location-specific and dynamic solutions. ***Adaptive learning*** builds on the idea that management action is necessary despite imperfect knowledge and incomplete information. Wetland management should therefore be part of a structured learning process where management and learning happen at the same time. This sort of approach contrasts with more traditional management approaches, where research and learning are usually detached from the decision-making process, and there is an emphasis on learning before managing.

1.1.2 What is learning?

Wageningen International defines learning as:

> ***the mental process through which people acquire or improve the ability to change their ways of thinking and/ or behaviour.***

Learning is seen as a process leading to an outcome: learning only takes place when the ability is used in practice. This process approach to learning is based on the concept of change. Assessments about whether an individual or organisation is learning are based on whether there are observable improvements in the individuals' or organizational performance.

Individual learning is about personal growth and development; it is about increasing our self-confidence and ability to solve problems; it is about increasing our effectiveness, improving our performance and making the most of our experience. Learning must be demand-led and appropriate. As well as the focus of learning being on what the stakeholder groups want to know, any key information-generating activities must be acceptable to them in terms of the risk involved in experimenting. Learning implies more than assimilation of information and knowledge alone: it involves achieving new understanding and insight. This is achieved through deeper levels of analysis and diagnosis, and taking into account values and ethics.

Kolb's learning cycle

David Kolb (1984) developed a four stage cycle of how individuals, teams and organisations learn from their experiences and consequently modify their behaviours. In this model, learning starts by taking action, then reflecting on the outcomes of the action, making connections with what we already know and understand and then testing those connections and new ideas through further action. The Kolb's learning cycle contains four stages (see Figure 1.1):

1. ***Concrete experience*** or ***doing*** of a task is the first stage in which the individual, team or organization simply carries out the task assigned.
2. ***Reflective observation*** or ***reflection*** involves stepping back from the task and reviewing what has been done and experienced.
3. ***Abstract conceptualisation*** involves interpreting the events and understanding the relationships among them. It is at this stage that theory may be particularly helpful as a template for framing and explaining events.
4. ***Practical application*** (with ***testing*** or ***planning***) of the new understanding and translating it into predictions about what is likely to happen next or what actions should be taken to refine the way the task is handled.

So learning can be viewed as part of a cycle involving a phase of reflection and questioning. This results in a re-framing of prior knowledge or experience, and leads to improved action. The ***experiencing (doing)*** and ***reflection*** stages of the cycle belong more to the concrete real world

whereas ***conceptualisation*** and ***testing (planning)*** are more abstract. The ***experiencing*** and ***testing*** stages are more action oriented whereas the ***reflection*** and ***conceptualisation*** stages are more reflective in nature. Reflection is used to identify how a situation or future actions could be improved and this knowledge is then applied to actually make improvements. This can be individual or group based or within society. Learning involves applying lessons learned into future actions, which provides the basis for a cycle of learning.

The learning cycle underpins the concept of individual 'learning styles'; the idea that each person has preferences for one or more stages in the learning cycle. For example, when asked to take on a new field of work, some people will read as much theory as possible in order to make connections with what they already know (theorists), whereas others will try things out in practice first (activists). By being aware of their preferences, individuals can choose to strengthen their ability to use all stages in the learning cycle in order to make themselves better 'all round' learners.

Tool: *Learning style test to identify individual learning styles. It can help individuals develop practical strategies for understanding and strengthening their learning skills. It will also help them understand how other individuals within the same organization or within a flyway network or wetland environment prefer to learn. This will help facilitate communication and the selection of tools to build support for waterbird conservation.*

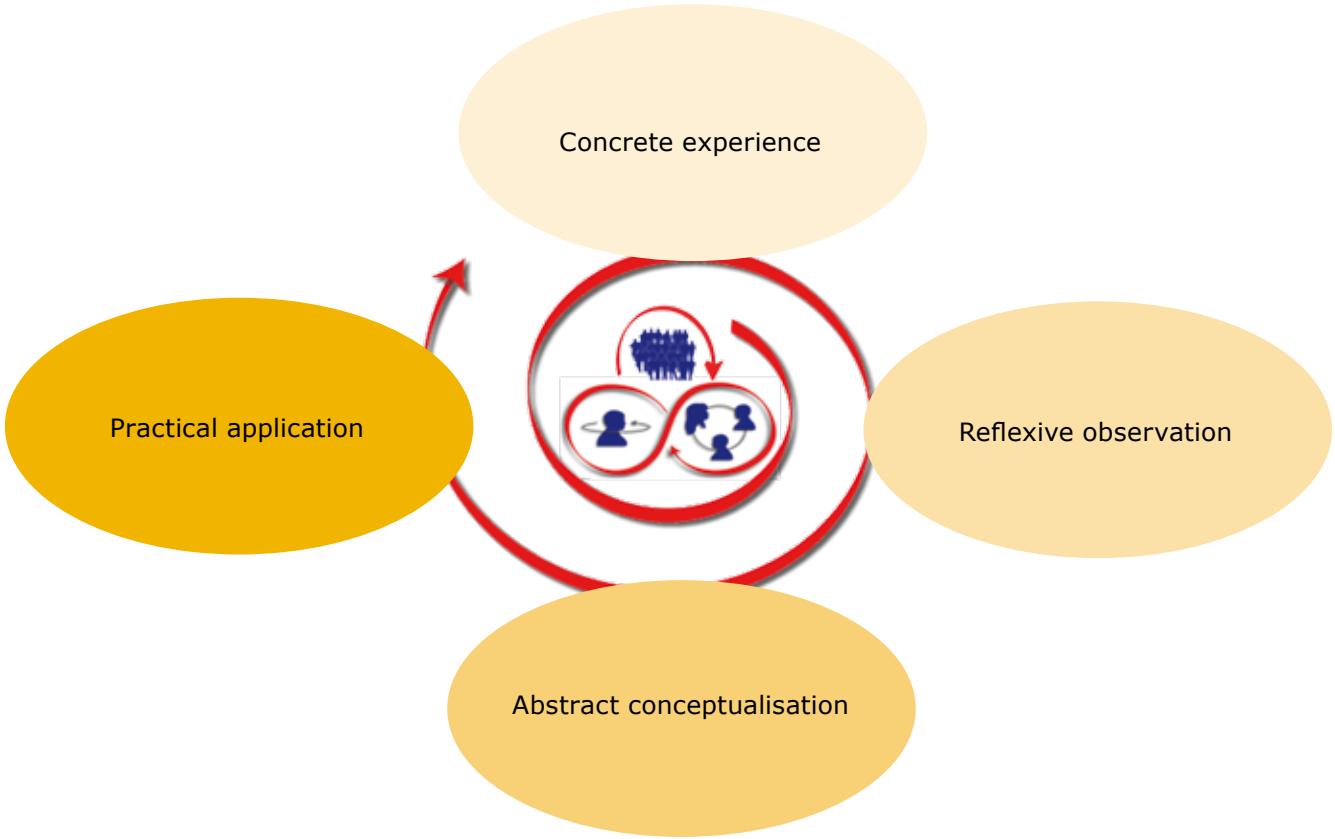


Figure 1.1 Kolb's learning cycle: an established learning model in which taking action (concrete experience) is followed by reflecting on the outcomes (reflexive observation), and connecting these with other information and ideas (conceptualisation), which are then planned and tested (practical application). So, after having an experience, and reviewing/reflecting on it, you conclude and learn from it then plan and improve your actions based on what you have learned (Kolb 1984).

1.1.3 What is adaptive learning?

Adaptive learning: collaboration and partnership
It is increasingly recognised that co-management approaches to wetland management, where the responsibility and/or authority for management is shared between governments and the local resource users has lead to improved resource management outcomes. Adaptive learning approaches to management should follow the same principles. Bringing learning and research into management requires that different groups of stakeholders such as researchers, who are frequently not involved in hands-on management, also become part of the partnership. Such learning partnership between government, local users and researchers has the potential to build on the particular strengths, skills and knowledge of each, thereby improving the quality and scope of learning as well as the number of people benefiting from it. Close collaboration between government, managers, researchers and resource users will bring the greatest benefits, but it is also a great challenge given the frequently different perspectives, and ways of thinking and doing, of each. Addressing this challenge is a fundamental component of participatory adaptive learning.

Figure 1.2 Stakeholder analysis conducted along the flyway of the Great Snipe *Gallinago media* (photo: Ingrid Gevers).

Stakeholder analysis
So before anything else it is necessary to establish who the appropriate partners in an adaptive learning approach are. A common way to start this process is to carry out a stakeholder analysis (see Figure 1.2). The purpose of the analysis is to begin to:

- Understand the current interests of those involved in research and/or management of the wetland resources and its waterbirds.
- Identify conflicts of interest.
- Understand the existing relationships between stakeholders that can be built on.
- Identify appropriate degrees of participation at the various stages of the process.

Sharing information
Having identified who stakeholders are, the next focus is to investigate how information is going to be shared between them. Learning as a group cannot occur until information has been shared and integrated in a way that makes it broadly available to new situations. Sharing of information is just as important as generating new information. This requires looking at current communication networks, their opportunities and constraints. However, learning is not just about the acquisition, sharing and utilisation of new knowledge, but is also about improving existing systems of information sharing to make the most of knowledge already there. A lot of uncertainty comes from not having access to information, and more efficient mechanisms for sharing existing and new information are likely to produce the greatest returns. It is therefore also important to understand the specific skills, knowledge and experience of stakeholders, and the extent to which they are being used to their full potential. Different actors each have different information, which they exchange (participation) for a particular purpose. This leads to ***group learning***.

Information management and knowledge sharing systems are appropriate to more routine work settings. Many work tasks in the conservation and development context involve high levels of judgement, and require more interactive and reflective styles of learning. New knowledge that has been generated and/or shared often leads to a reduction in uncertainty, and adaptation and improvement in wetland management; evaluating whether the process resulted in the information gain that was expected is critical. Such critical reflection of outcomes and process will increase understanding, enable

methodological adaptation and improve the performance of any future iterations (repetitions) of the cycle

Flyway considerations
Issues relating to stakeholder analysis and information management are even more complex when it comes to the flyway approach to conservation. The stakeholders of migratory birds are found all along the flyway and will have very different lifestyles, aspirations and values of the birds. Analyses at the flyway level can only really take place at an international level, such as through an international framework such as the African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbird Agreement (AEWA). Managing information at the flyway level depends on sharing knowledge and data across the flyway. This is facilitated by tools such as the Critical Site Network Tool (see Module 2 section 3.6).

1.1.4 Principles of learning

Building trust and orientation
The first phase of the learning process is building trust and orientation. When people come to a meeting, workshop or training they feel insecure and have strong feelings of dependency.

They will feel insecure because they left a situation in which they were known and that they understood, and entered a situation with many unknowns:

- What do people expect of me?
- Can I trust these people?
- What are we going to do?
- Will this gathering help me to solve my problems?
- How do I have to behave, so that the group will accept me as a person and as a professional?

They will feel dependent, because they cannot control the environment as they did at home. Part of their experiences does not apply in the new setting, part of their identity and status stayed at home, they cannot predict how they will act and react to their fellow participants and the trainers or facilitators. As a result the participants have a strong need for orientation. But the same applies for the facilitator or trainer:

- Will the participants be motivated to learn and to contribute from their own experiences?
- What exactly do they need to learn?
- What insight, skills and knowledge does each of the participants have already?
- What learning styles do the participants have?
- Will their attitudes and self-images hamper or foster the learning process?

So, to get started with the learning process it will be necessary to build orientation on:

a. the interpersonal or process dimension; building social relationships and creating an atmosphere of safety and openness in which the participants feel comfortable, accepted and regain identity (and will be able to share information and concerns);

b. the work or task dimension: building consensus about what are we going to do, and how we are going to do it (setting goals and organizing for action).

The combined effort of **a** and **b** establishes the basis for developing trust, openness and honesty, and the development of group norms and rules which orient the individual behaviour in the group towards the common goals, for example:

- how to communicate with each other;
- how to work together:
- how to make decisions;
- how to find out 'how we are doing';
- etc.

How to reduce the initial tensions and feelings of insecurity and dependency
- Create the opportunity for participants to get acquainted with each other, to share information about their experiences, ideas and values, and about the issues which they consider important.
- Let the participants express their feelings about the initial 'insecure' situation so that it becomes possible to work on it as a group. Make them see that acceptance of these tensions makes the situation more bearable: it is not a personal problem but a normal aspect of group development.
- Assess carefully the (training) needs of the participants and attune the learning objectives to their needs.
- Define clearly the learning contract: i.e. What are the arrangements we have agreed upon? Make sure that the goals are clear and that all participants feel committed to carrying out the decisions made.

The conditions for learning

1. An environment of active people: People learn when they feel they are personally involved with others in a learning process.
2. ***A climate of respect**:* When a high value is placed on individuals and a sense of caring prevails.
3. ***A climate of acceptance:*** Accepting a person means that s/he can be her/himself and express her/his beliefs without fear.
4. ***An atmosphere of trust:*** When people have a feeling of trust in themselves and in others.
5. ***A climate of self-discovery:*** When learners are helped to find out about themselves, and to meet their own needs, rather than having their needs dictated to them.
6. ***A non-threatening climate:*** So that persons can confront each other and ideas can confront ideas without fear.
7. ***A climate of openness:*** When personal concerns, feelings, ideas and beliefs can be expressed and examined openly.
8. ***An emphasis on the uniquely personal nature of learning:*** When each individual knows that his/her values, beliefs, feelings and views are important and significant.
9. ***A climate in which differences are thought to be good and desirable:*** When differences in people are as acceptable as differences in ideas.
10. ***A climate which recognizes the right of individuals to make mistakes:*** Learning is facilitated when error is accepted as a natural part of the learning process.
11. ***An atmosphere that tolerates ambiguity:*** When alternative solutions can be explored without the pressure of having to find an immediate single answer.
12. ***An emphasis on co-operative evaluation and self-evaluation:*** When people can see themselves as they really are, with the help of their peers.

The conditions for learning
As a facilitator or trainer or just in an interaction with people about a certain issue, be:

- open to feedback about the way we work and to take time to examine our own attitudes, values and ideas;
- be aware of the strong influence of room arrangements and group-size on building trust and openness in a group;
- use group dynamics to help participants become sensitive to how others see them and more realistic about how one sees oneself.

[See exercises 'Barriers and motives to learning' (section 2.2.1), the paperclip exercise (section 2.2.2), and the learning style test (section 2.2.3)].

1.1.5 Respect for other people: a basic condition for learning

If we are going to succeed, first, in establishing a relationship of trust and confidence with others; and second, in promoting change, there are certain ***attitudes*** which we need to adopt in our relationships with others. These attitudes are important for the life - and the learning - of any group undergoing training for development work. Without these attitudes, we shall not learn much. They are also important for each of us in our visits to villages or wetlands, and in all our meetings with other people, whoever they are. The attitudes are also important in other aspects of our lives - in our families, at work, with our friends, and in casual encounters with others, e.g. at the shop or on the bus.

The most important is an attitude of ***respect for other people***. This attitude is based on a sense of the worth of every human being. This is a fundamental value which underlies our approach to development. We believe that without respect for others, there can be little meaningful learning or development, either in a group, or in a community outside.

Respect implies confidence in the other person's ability to learn, and in his/her potential to solve his/her problems and to change him/herself in the process. In the wider context of development it implies confidence in the potential of communities and groups of people to take hold of their own lives, to solve their own problems, and to work for change and transformation in society.

By communicating respect, we help others to respect themselves. For those who are down-trodden this is important: their attitude towards themselves may be one of disrespect. Perhaps in a slum you may hear people saying things like:

"We are only poor people. We can't do anything. We are helpless." If we respect them, we shall help them to respect themselves and each other, and to change these attitudes of helplessness and worthlessness. We shall be helping to give them back their dignity.

If we give time to others, listen to others, allow them to make decisions for themselves, and express warmth towards them and interest in them, we shall be showing respect.

One final point about respect: Respect for others is based ultimately on respect for oneself. Unless I respect myself, I cannot respect others. We shall often see in a course or gathering that there is a correspondence between attitudes and behaviour towards oneself and attitudes and behaviour towards others.

[See exercises 'Clarifying values and beliefs' (section 2.2.4) and 'daily review' (section 2.2.6)].

1.1.6 Basic principles of adult learning

1. *Adults are not school kids*

School kids look to other for direction and need authority (e.g. the teacher) to learn. They are mainly receiving-oriented. Adults have a wide experience and have learnt much from life. They learn most from their peers if they consider it relevant for their lives. They have developed self-knowledge and will change only when/if they have self-motivation to do so. Adults are both receiving-oriented and giving–oriented, and some elderly 'wise' people are mainly giving. Adults have strong personal dignity and do not want to be treated like school kids. So traditional school-teaching methods are not apt for adult education.

2. *Adults are not empty vessels*

Adult education is not a banking process where an expert is to 'pour' his or her knowledge into the 'empty' heads of pupils. Adults do not learn what the facilitator or educator wants. There is no direct relationship between what is taught and what is learned. Whether an adult will learn something depends on various factors, such as:

- the motivation and capacity of the individual participants
- the learning climate
- the learning method and facilitator's capacity to encourage and guide the adult learning process.

The subject matter knowledge of the facilitator has minor importance.

3. *The role of the adult facilitator/educator differs widely from the traditional teacher's role*

We all have strong memories of 'what a teacher does' from our schooldays, but if we are to work effectively with adults we need to wipe this model out of our heads. Adult educators need to create learning situations in which:

- adults are stimulated to share their own experiences and to analyze these experiences in dialogue with their peers;
- the adults can participate in the programming and regularly evaluate what they are doing;
- they are encouraged to search for causes (problem-posing) and solutions (problem-solving);
- they are stimulated to fully use their capacity to observe and reason, and to discover solutions for themselves.

4. *Adults remember best the things they have discovered, said and done themselves*

It is not knowledge as such that leads to action and change of behaviour. It is motivation, active participation and skill practice that lead to action. Hence, adult-educators need to give participants a chance to find solutions themselves, before adding important points not mentioned yet. They should allow the adults to go through the learning cycle starting at their preferred stage. The adult educator needs also to concentrate on learning-by-doing, experimenting, experiencing, rather than talking/lecturing.

1.1.7 Essential skills of an adult educator/facilitator

Basic skills needed by a good facilitator are ***questioning, listening*** and ***giving feedback***. These skills are needed in order to be able to:

- promote dialogue and openness to learn from each other;
- enter into problem-solving with participants;
- diagnose problems within a learning-group;
- challenge people (in an acceptable way) to change their behaviour;
- enable, search for and experiment with alternative solutions;
- promote group and individual decision-making and plan for action.

Essential skills of an adult educator/facilitator

1. ***Listening*:** The first skill needed is the ability to listen carefully; picking out both positive aspects and problems, difficulties, tensions.
2. ***Observation***: Ranking closely with listening is observation; the ability to pick up information about the situation; (observation = the feelings from non-verbal cues).
3. ***Empathy, sensitivity***: To be able to see problems as seen through the eyes of the participants; to be able to detect and understand their feelings, ideas, values.
4. ***Encouragement***: Building confidence in the participants by affirming the positive aspects of the work/behaviour performed, showing appreciation for time and commitment given and by helping them to recognize the negative aspects for themselves, and thinking out alternative ways of doing things.
5. ***Helpful questioning***: Sympathetic questioning that enables the participants to understand the causes of problems, to think through the consequences of certain types of actions, etc.
6. ***Summarizing/structuring***: To be able to summarize information generated by the participants and pick out main problems; sort out main the possibilities and develop concepts and simple models together with the participants.
7. ***Timing***: A sense of timing when to encourage, when to challenge, when to ask questions, when to give suggestions, when to give support, and when to summarize, etc.
8. ***Flexibility/planning***: To be able to create an atmosphere of flexibility, creativity and experimentation, and to act upon it oneself (in combination with a good preparation); insight in how to develop the learning process, how to use time efficiently, and how to organize learning situations in a good sequence.
9. ***Openness/self-reflection***: To be open to feedback from the participants about the way we work and to take time to examine our own attitudes, values and ideas.

Further resources

- *Please find more on questioning, listening and providing feedback under session 4 'Communicating the Flyway Approach' (section 4)*
- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Learning'.*
- *Refer also to the reference list at the end of this module.*

2. Group processes and team roles

2.1 Theoretical background

2.1.1 Group learning processes

There are two important aspects of every group learning process:

1. What the group (and each individual) is talking about (***the content***);
2. How the group (and each individual) talks about and/or works around this subject (***the process***).

As well as what people say we also can observe:

- Non-verbal expressions as indicators for feelings and reactions: tone of voice, facial expressions, way of speaking (hesitations, reiterations, etc.), the way someone sits and holds/moves his head, hand, legs, etc (body language);
- The pattern of communication as an indicator of relations between group members, existence of sub-groups, who leads whom, who influences whom, who is participating very rarely, etc.:
- Who talks, how often, how long?
- Who do people look at when talking (a specific individual, scanning the group, no one, the ceiling)?
- Who talks after whom, who interrupts who?
- What style of communication is used (questions, advice, strong statements, expressing disagreement)?

The role of the facilitator is both to stimulate reflection and action on a particular issue (content) and to promote active and responsible participation (process). By using a broad scale of indicators and continuous observation the experienced facilitator/educator receives a lot of signals on both content and process of the group learning process. Without these signals it will be more difficult for the trainer/educator to facilitate group learning properly.

The various individuals participating in a group process can take on different roles either facilitating the process or obstructing it. The examples below illustrate the different roles that participants might take on and how the facilitator could respond to this to assure equal contributions of the participants to the group process:

2.1.2 Facilitator-group interaction: critical incidents

1. *The nonstop talker*
   There are several scenarios of the nonstop talker, including the following:

- If it is someone who has long meaningful stories but who stays rather vague and abstract, ask for concrete experiences, examples, cases. Ask the person for permission to summarize what you got from it and check whether you got it right; thank him and go directly to someone else by asking for her/his experiences or opinions.

- If it is someone who continually hammers 'on the same note of the piano' (i.e. repeats the same point or opinion over and again); indicate clearly that this subject has been covered sufficiently before and state again clearly the central issue of this moment.

- If it is someone who really is contributing, but forgets to give others a chance to speak; thank him/her for the valuable contributions, tell that you now want to see what the others can contribute and share, look away from the speaker, observe others who want to speak, and invite them with the eyes; make sure also that the speaker sees that other persons want to say something. Summarize and continue with directing a question to someone else, e.g.: "Do others agree with this?", "Any other viewpoints and experiences?"

- If contributions from participants are unequal because vast differences in background exist (education, rank, etc.), it may be advisable to:
  - Split the group into more homogeneous subgroups in which discussion takes place amongst equals who can independently report to the plenary so that the experiences and opinions of all groups will stand out clearly.

- Use discussion techniques that create more equal opportunities to contribute, e.g. the flipchart/cards technique, or making a drawing or a song instead of talking.

2. *The silent participant*

Try to find out whether the person is always very silent, or if s/he is only silent today in this discussion. A person can be silent for various reasons: the person may be:

- insecure, not feeling safe in this group or subject;
- waiting until others have shown their cards;
- always slow in the development of his/her opinion; he/she needs time but will surely talk later;
- not interested in the subject or in this group of people;
- tired.

Do not 'force' people who normally are rather silent to talk. Keep them involved by looking at them and observe closely, so that you do not miss that single moment the silent person wants to contribute to the discussion.

Sometimes silent members start to talk when they are given the attention mentioned above. Sometimes asking them directly to share their experiences with the others helps to overcome the barrier to talk. In other situations, the facilitator can only can assist by creating an open, informal, friendly and safe atmosphere, to develop a very clear structure for the discussion and to offer more information.

For both 'talker' and 'silent participant', if they can be encouraged to keep an eye on each other, the problem is resolved for a large part.

3. *The critical participant*

This participant may come forward with all kinds of awkward questions, and some of them may not be easy to answer. Especially new, still inexperienced, facilitators have the feeling that they should know everything and can feel very threatened by this participant. More experienced facilitators value this type of participant highly, because s/he is actively participating and gives a stimulus to all participants to think for themselves. The critical participant is in most cases a resource rather than a barrier to group work.

4. *The manipulator*

Sometimes a group includes a member who for some reason does not want to communicate, but is trying to manipulate the workshop, e.g. to put the blame on someone, to make someone very small, to make sure that something that most group members want will not be agreed upon.

This type of participant is difficult to handle because of his/her negative motivation. Let him/her know that you know what he/she is doing and that you will not accept/allow it to happen. Eye contact at a crucial moment may be sufficient. A short sideways remark in an informal talk during a break may have the same effect. Avoid direct exposure to the whole group. If another participant holds some influence over the manipulator, you may ask him/her to influence.

5. *The 'important' participant*

We all know the situation in which a discussion 'dies' because one influential participant gives his/her opinion and no one dares to challenge him/her. You as facilitator may be left with a situation in which there seems no choice between either to agree with the influential participant and accept his/her opinion, or to directly confront him/her and to stick to your own position, with the risk that the other participants will not follow the facilitator/trainer. In both cases, the facilitator/trainer 'loses face', which in many countries is a very undesirable and embarrassing situation.

To avoid such a situation, it may be wise not to agree, nor to start a yes/no discussion. Bring this influential participant (and with him/her the other participants!) to the factual data, to concrete information and field experiences. Let them discover what you discovered, let them feel what you felt and let them draw the conclusions.

If you expect in advance that a situation with 'important' participants may arise, prevent them from airing strong opinions which they will not withdraw. Do not bring them into such a situation during an early stage of the workshop. Rather than telling them your opinions/findings, e.g., through a lecture, you can ask them to analyze the data you compiled, for example through a case-study. Most influential people are interested in new developments, but cannot afford to change opinion too easily and without virtual evidence. Do not assume too easily that the influential person does not want to accept your information. The experienced facilitator will understand the situation and say, for example: "Some years ago I thought the same, but after research and field experiences, I had to change my opinion." Make them curious, let them know that you have something to offer, give them the opportunities to judge for themselves.

2.1.3 Stages in group development

As you begin to put people into groups/teams in any setting, taking a few minutes to explain the five stages (see Figure 2.1) of group development by Tuckman & Jensen (1977) is priceless:

Stage 1: Forming
In the Forming stage, group members rely on safe, patterned behaviour and look to the group leader for guidance and direction. Group members have a desire for acceptance by the group and a need to know that the group is safe. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must relinquish the comfort of non-threatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict.

Stage 2: Storming
The next stage, called Storming, is characterized by competition and conflict. As the group members attempt to organize for the task, conflict inevitably results in their personal relations. Individuals have to bend and mould their feelings, ideas, attitudes, and beliefs to suit the group organization. The most important trait in helping groups to move on to the next stage seems to be the ability to listen.

Stage 3: Norming
In the third stage, Norming, group members are engaged in active acknowledgment of all members' contributions, community building and maintenance, and solving of group issues. Members are willing to change their preconceived ideas or opinions on the basis of facts presented by other members, and they actively ask questions of one another. Leadership is shared and creativity is high. The major drawback of the norming stage is that members may begin to fear the inevitable future breakup of the group; they may resist change of any sort.

Stage 4: Performing
The Performing stage is not reached by all groups. If group members are able to evolve to stage four, their capacity, range, and depth of personal relations expands to true interdependence. In this stage, people can work independently, in subgroups, or as a total unit with equal facility. There is unity: group identity is complete, group morale is high, and group loyalty is intense. The task function becomes genuine problem solving, leading towards optimal solutions and optimum group development. The overall goal is productivity through problem solving and work.

Stage 5: Adjourning
The final stage, Adjourning or Mourning, involves the termination of task behaviours and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity to say personal goodbyes.

[See exercise 'Belbin team roles test' (section 2.2.7).

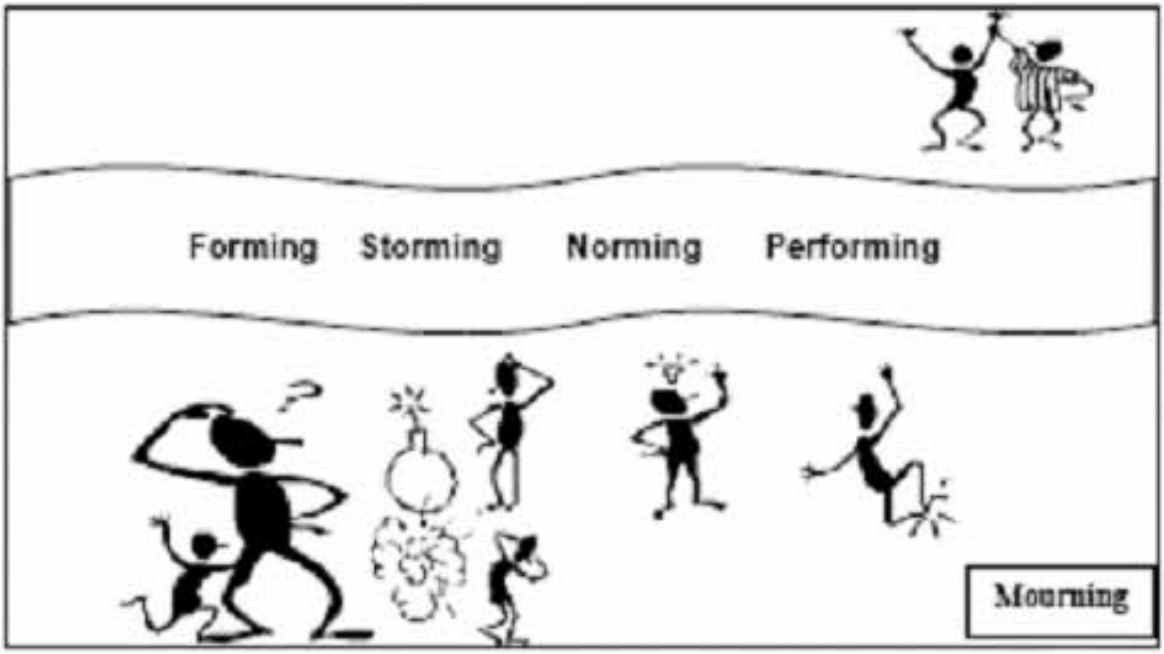


Figure 2.1: Five stages of group development (source: Wageningen International).

2.2 Case studies, role plays and exercises

A Willingness to Change Requires an Open mind!!

2.2.1 Exercise: Barriers and motives to learning

Objective:
To help participants understand more about the factors and conditions which help and hinder learning.

Procedure:
Divide the participants in two groups: Groups A and B. Ask group A to write on a flipchart the barriers to learning. Ask group B to write on a flipchart the motives for learning. After 15 minutes ask both groups to swap their flipcharts and review the output of the other group and add to it. Examples of the output might include the following:

Barriers to learning

- Language
- Environment: Noise
- Norms, privileges and taboos
- Poor facilitation
- Lack of resources
- Fear/confidence
- Power differences
- And more…

Motives for learning

- Creativity
- Critical reflection
- A learning environment:
  - positive feedback
  - addressing participants' needs
- Participation
- Listening
- Culture
- Personal interest
- And more…

2.2.2 Exercise: the paperclip exercise

Objective:
To help participants understand that learning and working in a group can result in more outputs and creative ideas then when working alone.

Procedure:
The participants are asked to write down individually on a piece of paper how a paperclip can be used (5 minutes). Then they share in pairs what each of them wrote down and add new ideas to the list (5 minutes). Finally all pairs are asked to share their outputs in a plenary. The facilitator lists all new ideas and asks what lessons the participants have learned from this exercise. The participants will find out that more ideas are being generated in a group than by each individual.

2.2.3 Exercise: the learning style test

The learning style test is a questionnaire designed to find out the participants' preferred learning style or styles. Over the years people have developed ways of learning that have helped them to benefit more from some experiences than others. The learning style questionnaire will help the participants to pinpoint their learning experiences so that the facilitator is in a better position to select the learning method that suits their specific style.

The questionnaire should take no longer than ten minutes to complete. The accuracy of the results depends on how honest the person is that fills it in. There are no right or wrong answers. The questionnaire is provided below; this can be copied and handed out to participants when performing this exercise.

Learning Styles Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to find out your preferred learning style or styles. Over the years you have probably developed ways of learning that have helped you to benefit more from some experiences than others. As you are probably unaware of these differences, this questionnaire will help you pinpoint your learning experiences so that you are in a better position to select the learning method that suits your style. The questionnaire should take no longer than ten minutes to complete. The accuracy of the results depends on how honest you are. There are no right or wrong answers.

If you ***agree*** more than you disagree with a statement put a ***tick*** in the box next to it.
If you ***disagree*** more than you agree with a statement put a ***cross*** in the box next to it.

1. I often act without considering the possible consequences.	
2. When I hear about a new idea or approach I immediately start working out how to apply it in practice.	
3. I am keen on self-discipline such as watching my diet, taking regular exercise, sticking to a fixed routine, etc.	
4. I take pride in doing a thorough job.	
5. I get on best with logical, analytical people and less well with spontaneous, 'irrational' people.	
6. I'm attracted more to novel, unusual ideas than to practical ones.	
7. In discussions I like to get straight to the point.	
8. I am careful not to jump to conclusions too quickly.	
9. I prefer to respond to events in a spontaneous, flexible way rather than to plan things in advance.	
10. I think that decisions made on a thorough analysis of all the information are sounder than those based on intuition.	
11. I tend to be a perfectionist.	
12. More often than not, rules are there to be broken.	
13. I can often see better, more practical ways to get things done.	
14. If I have a report to write I tend to produce lots of drafts before settling on the final version.	
15. In discussions I often find I am the realist, keeping people to the point and avoiding wild speculations.	
16. In discussions with people I often find I am the most dispassionate and objective.	
17. When things go wrong I am happy to shrug it off and 'put it down to experience'.	
18. It's best to think carefully before taking action.	
19. I don't mind hurting people's feelings so long as the job gets done.	
20. I like meetings to be run on methodical lines.	

How To Work Out Your Score

When you have completed the questionnaire you need to work out your score. After working out your score, you can then interpret the results using the information on the next page. You do this by using the accompanying score sheet which gives each question a coded letter – A, P, R, or T – to record your answers on.

NB. For each of the questions that you have ticked enter one point against the corresponding letter. For example, if you put a tick against question number one record one point against code A. When you have finished add up all the points for each code. The one that has the greatest number of points is likely to be your preferred learning style.

Score sheet		
Q 1.	A	
Q 2.	P	
Q 3.	T	
Q 4.	R	
Q 5.	T	
Q 6.	A	
Q 7.	P	
Q 8.	R	
Q 9.	A	
Q 10.	R	
Q 11.	T	
Q 12.	A	
Q 13.	P	
Q 14.	R	
Q 15.	P	
Q 16.	T	
Q 17.	A	
Q 18.	R	
Q 19.	P	
Q 20.	T	

My Answers

A) .....Total points:

R) .....Total points:

P) .....Total points:

T) .....Total points:

Code with greatest number of points:.....

Code with least number of points:.....

Learning Styles
There are many theories about learning styles. Kolb's (1984) model is based on a cycle that includes active learning and passive learning. These provide both concrete and abstract experience.

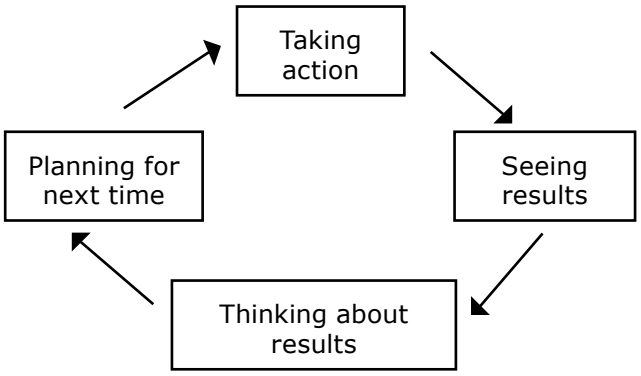
Kolb's inventory identifies learners who prefer:

- ***active experimentation,*** *people who would describe themselves as: 'practical, doing, active, responsible'*
- ***reflective observation***, people who would describe themselves as 'tentative, watching, observing, reflecting, reserved'
- ***abstract conceptualisation***, people who would describe themselves as 'analytical, thinking, evaluative, logical, rational'
- ***concrete experience***, people who would describe themselves as 'receptive, feeling, accepting, intuitive, present-orientated'.

Honey & Mumford (1985) based their learning cycle on Kolb's work. They suggested the following learning styles: **Activist, Reflector, Theorist** and **Pragmatist:**

ACTIVIST:	'I'll **try** anything once.'
REFLECTOR:	'I need **time** to think about it.'
THEORIST:	'If it's **logical** it's good.'
PRAGMATIST:	'If it **works,** it's good.'

Their learning cycle, extensively used today, is as follows:



Where you fit into this cycle, demonstrates your learning style.

Activators or 'do it now' types get straight into the problem. If you are an ***activator*** then you fit into the 'taking action' part of the learning cycle. Activators enjoy challenges and can work quickly. They motivate others, prefer not to spend time planning and are good in a crisis.

Reflectors or 'do it later' types like to approach problems cautiously, think them through and can delay starting. If you are a ***reflector*** then you fit into the 'thinking about results' area of the learning cycle. Reflectors have lots of ideas, are good listeners and get to the heart of the matter.

Theorists or 'do it by the book' types need to know why they are doing something; they get everything organised before they start and are very logical in their approach. If you are a ***theorist*** then you fit into the 'planning for the next time' part of the learning cycle. Theorists tend to like everything 'just so', enjoy complex problems and question everything.

Pragmatists or 'do it from experience' types need to relate the problem to their actions. If you are a ***pragmatist*** then you fit into the 'seeing results' part of the learning cycle. Pragmatists need lots of information and can find it hard to select what is relevant, are highly motivated, see connections and are inventive.

You may find that you have more than one learning style so you will need to adapt the style to the task in hand. This will encourage creativity and improve your learning. If you prefer to work alone do so, but keep in touch with your fellow participants as they may need you. If you like to work in a group, meet up and decide who is doing what by when. Pooling resources is a very effective way of managing your time.

What areas do you think each type of learner needs to develop?

Activator:

Reflector:

Theorist:

Pragmatist:

2.2.4 Exercise: Clarifying our values and beliefs

Objective:
Help participants to better understand and respect individual and cultural differences and preferences.

Procedure:

1. Begin by explaining the importance of mutual acceptance and respect for the development of a good learning climate. Explain that the best way to develop this mutual understanding is getting to know more about the (variety of) values, beliefs and preferences of the fellow participants and becoming involved in the social-cultural reality of the others.

2. Go through the list of 'quickies' one by one. If the group is small all participants may respond to each question; otherwise ask for volunteers to respond to each question.

3. After having gone through the list of 'quickies' you can initiate a brief discussion by asking e.g.: "Which questions were difficult to answer?", or: "What did you learn about yourself or about the group that you did not know before?" Summarize by pointing out that respect for others is based ultimately on respect for and trust in ourselves. By communicating respect we help others to express themselves, to try out new things, to make errors: to learn in a safe environment. Finally the facilitator points out that communicating respect does not mean that we should not challenge each other, confront ideas or discuss. To the contrary, a climate of respect and acceptance of differences makes it possible to express and confront ideas without fear.

4. You can refer to the exercise *'Barriers and motives to learning'* and ask participants to discuss what can be done to create supportive conditions to learning in this group.

Quickies:

- A book I enjoy(ed) very much is .....
- My favourite food is .....
- Something that makes me really sad is .....
- What I expect from a friend is .....
- One thing I want to change in my village/town is .....
- If I found $100 I would spend it on .....
- Something that makes me really happy is .....
- The qualities of a good husband or wife are .....
- The most important thing I want my children to remember is .....
- What makes me angry is .....
- For me the most important thing in life is .....

2.2.5 Exercise: Detecting how adults learn

1. Ask the participants to list three things that they have learnt outside school which are important to them and that affect daily life. These should be things they can remember learning.

2. Ask them to select one of these and carefully think through the whole process of how they learned; make some notes:
   a. Why did they learn it?
   b. Who helped them to learn it?
   c. How was the relationship between them and the person who helped or encouraged them to do so?
   d. In what way did they learn?
   e. Can they remember things or conditions that made learning easier to them or, to the contrary, more difficult?

2.2.6 Assignment: Daily review

It is always good to review the learning process shortly at the end of each day. One participant (indicated by the order of the list of participants) will be asked to focus on two main points:

- Main learning points; a summary of what he/she learned that day.
- The learning process; a summary of your observations on the way the group is working on the learning targets.

Main learning points

- It is important that the participants do not simply relate what they did because all group members have gone through the same process and know this: e.g. "First we had a group discussion about ....., then we ....."
- Instead ask them to share what they have learned today and why that is important for their work: e.g. "I learned today that to distinguish between .....; I also discovered that ....."

The learning process
During the day you as the facilitator can note down observations on the way the group worked together; the learning procedures, the

co-operation in the group, mutual respect and trust. At the end of the day you then summarise these observations so that the group can reflect on it. It is like holding up a mirror for the group. Allow group members to share their feelings and observations about the group process. Attention should be given to positive points as well as points that need improvement. Concentrate on events, not on persons.

Some questions for quick reference

Outputs
Were the *objectives* of this day clearly defined and shared by everyone? Were these objectives realistic?
Were the *working procedures* clearly spelled out and understood by everyone? Were these procedures appropriate?
Could all participants *contribute to achieving the task* (by giving/asking information, seeking/giving clarification, structuring and summarizing findings, etc)?
Do we make sufficient *progress* towards attainment of our learning goals?

Group learning process
Do we *listen* well to each other? Do we all feel *respected* and *accepted*?
Do we *stimulate* each other to *participate* and do we *encourage* each other to clearly express ideas and feelings? Do we all feel personally involved?
Do we have *fun* together and is our *creativity* stimulated? Do we allow people to make errors?
Do we accept *differences* in ideas, values and opinions? Do we tolerate ambiguity and do we explore alternative answers?

The last question that can be asked is "What can be done to improve the learning climate and the attainment of our learning aims?" During the following days of the workshop participants can reflect if the learning climate improves and if learning objectives are being achieved.

2.2.7 Exercise: Belbin team roles test

Team-up (by Christian Kelly)
"No man is an island, entire of itself" (John Donne 1571–1631); we all need the support, encouragement and talents of others to succeed. We also need to know that we can draw on the experience, knowledge, skills and resourcefulness of other members of our team. Rarely are we able to fully complete a task alone. We need to be able to rely on others to provide ideas, keep us on track, recognize the pitfalls, ensure all avenues and resources are explored and exploited, and that the finished product is of the highest possible standard.

To achieve all this, we need to utilize all talents available to us - creating '***synergy***' (cooperative action that produces greater value and effect than the sum of the individual contributions); sharing responsibility and accountability.

The results of team effort can be very satisfying - getting there can be very frustrating.

It would help if we clearly understood our own and each others' preferred way of working as a team-player. It's easy to overlook the value of all those taking part in the achievement of targets and objectives. Think of those working alongside you (internally and externally); what are their specific abilities you have come to admire and rely on and that you normally have to struggle with? Is it their particular knowledge, their special experience, their eye for detail, their persistence, organisational ability, calm control under pressure, their drive and energy, their thoughtfulness and care of others, their clarity of purpose, their ability to relate to and communicate effectively at all levels, or perhaps their capacity to consistently provide stunning new ideas?

And what specific traits do you have that set you apart and help you work well with your team-mates?

In her research at the Henley Management College, Dr. Meredith Belbin determined that for a team to work effectively, eight roles had to be fulfilled. These eight roles were not needed in equal measure, nor were they needed at the same time but if one were missing, the team was unlikely to work as effectively as it could.

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is developed as a tool to determine your own team role. There are seven sentences that you should finish. For each question you can divide ten points between the different answers. If you fully recognise yourself in one of the answers, then you give all ten points to that answer. If you recognise yourself in more answers, you should divide them according to your preference; so give the most points to the answer that matches your behaviour the most and less to those that match your behaviour less. For example 4 points to b), 5 points to g), 1 point to h), no points to the rest.

Fill out the points in the first table underneath the questions, as in this example:

Question	a	b	c	d	e	F	g	h	Total
1	0	4	0	0	0	0	5	1	10

I gain satisfaction in a job because:

a) I enjoy analysing situations and weighing up all the possible choices
b) I am interested in finding practical solutions to problems
c) I like to feel that I am fostering good working relationships
d) I can exert a strong influence on decisions
e) I can meet people who may have something new to offer
f) I can get people to agree on a necessary course of action
g) I feel in my element where I can give a task my full attention
h) I like to find a field that stretches my imagination

My characteristic approach to group work is that:

a) I have a quiet interest in getting to know colleagues better
b) I am not reluctant to challenge the view of others or to hold a minority view myself
c) I can usually find a line of argument to refute unsound propositions
d) I think I have a talent for making things work once a plan has to be put into operation
e) I have a tendency to avoid the obvious and to come out with the unexpected
f) I bring a touch of perfectionism to any team job I undertake
g) I am ready to make use of contacts outside the group itself
h) While I am interested in all views, I have no hesitation in making up my mind once a decision has to be made

When involved with a project with other people:

a) I have an aptitude for influencing people without pressuring them
b) My general vigilance prevents careless mistakes being made
c) I am ready to press for action to make sure the meeting does not waste time or lose sight of the main objectives
d) I can be counted upon to contribute something original
e) I am always ready to back a good suggestion in the common interest
f) I am keen for the latest in new ideas and developments
g) I believe my capacity for cool judgement is appreciated by others
h) I can be relied upon to see that all essential work is organised

My key contribution to a team is:

a) to quickly see and take advantage of new opportunities
b) to work well with a very wide range of people
c) to produce ideas and solutions
d) to draw people out when I detect they have something of value to contribute
e) to follow through and ensure completion of tasks
f) to ensure tasks are completed, even if it means being unpopular for a while
g) to spot advantages and disadvantages of methods and situations
h) to provide a reasoned case for alternative courses of action without bias or prejudice

A possible shortcoming in team working could be that:

a) I am not at ease unless meetings are well structured and controlled and generally well conducted
b) I am inclined to be too generous towards others who have a valid viewpoint that has not been given a proper airing

c) I have a tendency to talk a lot once the group gets on to new ideas
d) My objective outlook makes it difficult for me to join in readily and enthusiastically with colleagues
e) I am sometimes seen as forceful and authoritarian if there is a need to get something done
f) I find it difficult to lead from the front, perhaps because I am over-responsive to group atmosphere
g) I am apt to get too caught up in ideas that occur to me and so lose track of what is happening
h) My colleagues tend to see me as worrying unnecessarily over detail and the possibility that things may go wrong

If suddenly given a difficult task with limited time and unfamiliar people:

a) I would feel like retiring to a corner to devise a way out of the impasse before developing a line
b) I would be ready to work with the person who showed the most positive approach however difficult s/he might be
c) I would find some way of reducing the size of task by establishing what different individuals might best contribute
d) My natural sense of urgency would help to ensure we did not fall behind schedule
e) I believe I would keep cool and maintain my capacity to think straight
f) I would retain a steadiness of purpose in spite of pressures
g) I would be prepared to take a positive lead if I felt the group were making no progress
h) I would open up discussions with a view to stimulating new thoughts and getting something moving

With reference to the problems to which I am subject when working in groups:

a) I am apt to show my impatience with those who are obstructing progress
b) Others may criticise me for being too analytical and insufficiently intuitive
c) My desire to ensure that work is properly done can hold up proceedings
d) I tend to get bored rather easily and rely on one or two stimulating members to spark me off
e) I find it difficult to get started unless the goals are clear
f) I am sometimes poor at explaining and clarifying complex points that occur to me
g) I am conscious of demanding from others things I cannot do myself
h) I hesitate to get my points across when I run up against real opposition

Question	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	Total
1									10
2									10
3									10
4									10
5									10
6									10
7									10

Now transfer the points into the following table:

Question	CO	SH	PL	ME	IM	RI	TW	CF	Total
1	f	d	h	a	b	e	c	g	10
2	h	b	e	c	d	g	a	f	10
3	a	c	d	g	h	f	e	b	10
4	d	f	c	h	g	a	b	e	10
5	b	e	g	d	a	c	f	h	10
6	c	g	a	e	f	h	b	d	10
7	g	a	f	b	e	d	h	c	10
Total									**70**

Add up the points for each team role and read the following descriptions. The text and the questionnaire combined can help you find your favourite team role.

Here's a description of each trait or ***'team type'***:

Resource Investigator (RI): Good at improvising, using many external contacts. Responds enthusiastically to ideas, suggestions, change and challenges. Invariably able to contribute to solutions. Highly developed curiosity. Recognises and takes advantage of opportunities. Tends to be highly active and outgoing. Keen to research all possibilities and follow up innovations or new developments. Enjoys participating in lively discussions. Sharp, quick mind during planning stages.

Tends to be easily distracted. May lose interest once activities are underway. Tendency to blur focus and take group off at tangent. May tend to embrace/foster change for the sake of a new challenge.

Team Worker (TW): Promotes team harmony. Good listener who builds on the ideas of others. Likeable, sociable and unassertive. Responsive to people and situations. Sensitive and empathetic to the needs of the team. Adaptable and flexible. Capable of working well alongside a wide range of characters. Adopts a positive, supportive approach. Keen to understand what motivates people and what they require, to ensure good working relationships.

May lack self-confidence. Reluctant to take a leading role. Indecisive in crises. May be vulnerable to criticism. May appear undemonstrative and views may be overlooked. May lose sight of main objectives while actively pursuing comfortable group environment and harmony.

Plant (PL): Imaginative, intelligent and the team's source of original ideas. Concerned with fundamentals. Individualistic with an unorthodox approach. Serious-minded with a wealth of stored knowledge on a wide range of subjects. Enjoys overturning the obvious and 'accepted' methods. Keen to pursue change and challenges. Seeks new fields to stretch intellect and imagination. Something of a loner, doesn't need the stimulus of others. Prefers to approach problem-solving alone, through careful consideration, lateral- and strategic-thinking processes.

May find it difficult to communicate, particularly with those less bright or imaginative. Tends to become caught up in ideas and may lose track of what is happening. Inclined to disregard practicality or protocol. May become frustrated and withdraw from the group if s/he feels others are not readily accepting his/her ideas. Has little concept of time restraints or deadlines. Requires sensitive handling/nurturing to produce best solutions.

Coordinator (CO): Coordinates team efforts and leads by eliciting respect. Sets team goals and defines roles. Has a highly developed sense of objectives. A ready listener. Open minded and fair to all participants. Always seen as calm and confident, always well controlled. Able to draw people out and encourage team members to contribute. Ability to influence without pressure. Interested in all views, but has no hesitation in making decisions. Provides reasoned arguments. Recognises individual's particular skills and quickly establishes how they might most successfully contribute. Effective team leader. Quick to evaluate situations and respond effectively. Usually decisive. Pulls the team together and maintains control.

Tends to direct rather than participate. May lose sight of objectives if too much conflict between team members. May lack creativity, preferring others to contribute ideas and solutions. Can delay decision-making/problem-solving by being prepared to hear all views.

Completer/Finisher (CF): Sees projects through. Personally checks details. Ensures accuracy and validity. Adopts a clear-headed and orderly approach. Highly methodical and painstaking. Concerned about keeping to schedule and meeting deadlines. Self-reliant and conscientious. Vigilant and seeks perfection. Leaves nothing to chance. Dogged, dedicated and determined in the pursuit of excellence.

Tends to worry about problems. Intolerant of the casual and sloppy. Finds it difficult to let go having completed a task, in case something has been overlooked. Seen as unnecessarily fussy and inflexible. Lacks positivity and enthusiasm. May find it difficult to work on more than one project at a time. May appear to be over-anxious, and may frustrate some members of the team by his/her strict adherence to checking rules and systems.

Shaper (SH): The task leader who brings competitive drive to the team. Makes things happen. Dynamic and pragmatic. Strategic and lateral thinker. Provides goals and objectives. Prefers action to talk. Clear-headed. Extrovert

temperament. Challenges ideas and assumptions. Determined and highly self-motivated. Strong belief in own ability and influence. Fast decision-maker - leaves 'problems' to others to sort out. Task-oriented/ results driven.

Can become impatient if progress of the task is obstructed. Becomes irritated by inefficiency. Works on a short fuse. Tendency to hasty, expedient decision-taking. Risk-taker. Careless of others opinions or views. Usually a powerful presence who may bully his/her way through challenges.

Implementer (IM): Turns decisions and strategies into manageable tasks. Brings logical, methodical pursuit of objective to the team. Uses practical common sense to determine what is required and how it may be achieved. Has sound organisational ability. Applies him/herself diligently to all tasks. Provides structure and control. Regarded as reliable and conscientious. Has an aptitude for practical problem-solving and making ideas work. Competent interpreter - puts others' ideas into action. Remains capable under pressure. Ability to motivate others.

Works well on familiar ground but may have difficulty adapting to new and complex requirements. May lack flexibility if events do not go according to his/her plan. Ill at ease in 'fluid' situations. Unhappy if goals are unclear.

Monitor/Evaluator (ME): Offers measured, dispassionate critical analysis. Keeps team from pursuing misguided objectives. Adopts a highly balanced and prudent approach. Uses careful judgement, based on practical facts and unbiased reasoning. Takes a totally objective view that will fully identify all consequences before taking decisions. Remains purposeful and calm in crisis. Enjoys analysing situations and carefully weighing all possible choices. Checks reliability and validity of arguments.

Tends to lack imagination and may curb the enthusiasm of other team members. Inclined to pursue traditional methods, has difficulty accepting change. May allow over-cautious approach to obscure true objective or delay action.

Conclusions

Now that you know how you prefer to work and where you fit in team situations, take a look at those descriptions that you identified as being *least* like you. Who do you know who closely matches those traits? Since you can't do what they do, be a little more charitable next time you're working together! Everyone, without exception, has a valuable contribution to make to the team effort.

Further resources

- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Team roles and group processes'.*
- *Refer also to the reference list at the end of this module.*

3. Curriculum development

3.1 Theoretical background

3.1.1 A curriculum

A curriculum can be defined as a description of a coherent set of learning activities, and all the materials needed to implement such activities, organized around some specific topic, and expected to lead to the attainment of some specific learning objectives. Designing a curriculum for a capacity building or training programme involves a sequence of steps:

1. Identify the main stakeholder groups to be involved in capacity building activities
2. Identify the needs of each stakeholder group
3. Formulate learning objectives for each main stakeholder group
4. Identify learning activities and delivery mechanisms for each learning objective
5. Identify existing capacity building resources and opportunities
6. Formulate new activities to be developed.

The curriculum may be compared with a toolkit containing the tools required for one specific job. Each of the tools may serve other purposes too, but this combination of tools is especially made and tested for just this specific job. A curriculum can be composed of more than one training module. The time span of the various modules composing the curriculum may vary from one or more hours to several half day sessions, depending on the requirements of the topic, and the starting level of the participants. The separate modules are often the result of careful planning and feedback obtained from the facilitators/trainers and participants based on experiences gained with its application. Such modules should not be seen as a 'final answer'. It should be treated in a dynamic way, making adaptations when new insights and experiences are gained.

3.1.2 Training modules

A training module can be taken out of the curriculum in order to be used in another course, when there is a need to deal with the same topic or problem area as dealt with in the module. We do not need to start from scratch every time we have to develop a new curriculum. The module should be carefully reviewed in the light of the new course in order to adapt the module to the new objectives and context (training situation, learning characteristics of the participants, etc.). A well-defined module will consist of:

1. **Title**: indicating the main topic (problem area) of this module, derived from the general objectives of the training course.
2. **Introduction and overview**: a motivating description and justification of the main concepts (problems) in this module: 'key questions' or 'problem statements'.
3. **Learning objectives**: the type and quality of the expected results of the training activities described in the module.
4. **Session plan(s)**: a description of the learning 'steps' to be followed by the facilitator/trainer and participants, indicating for each step: main concepts, facilitator/trainer and participant activities and duration; preferably alternative learning routes are indicated. Included will be the ***evaluation***, a description of the way(s) participants and trainer will evaluate the results of the learning process, and the evaluation instruments to be used (practical tests, questionnaires, etc.).
5. **Summary of the key points to be stressed**: a discussion on the main aspects of each of the concepts/problems included in the module; these guidelines can be used by the facilitator/trainer as a guide for the preparation of the sessions, as resource materials for group discussions, or as an aid for structuring outcomes of a group discussion.
6. **Educational materials** that will be used during implementation of the module: models, case study descriptions, role plays, exercises, task assignments, discussion questions, audio visuals, together with other required resources: a classroom or garden or laboratories, pencils and paper, media equipment, etc.

3.1.3 Learning needs assessment

Rationale of a learning needs assessment
The first step in designing the curriculum is to conduct a needs assessment. The analysis of organizational and individual learning needs and the characteristics of the potential participants provide the basis for the development of a curriculum. Training is about training of a person on a job in an organisation. Then, there is a job actually performed versus a job to be performed. Both must be described in terms of tasks - tasks that are actually being done, and tasks that should be done in order to improve present job performance.

The gap between the desired and the actual performance has to be assessed. The question is: "What is the actual behaviour of the target group? Are they indifferent and don't do anything? Or are they doing it in a wrong or ineffective way?" Note that desired and actual behaviour are different from official 'job descriptions'. Desired behaviour is determined by overall purpose.

For instance, one purpose of the flyway approach to conservation is the wise use of migratory waterbird populations. Actual behaviour in meeting this purpose can be assessed by actually observing and talking to members of the target stakeholder group and those dealing with them. Desired behaviour to sustain migratory waterbird populations may dictate that hunting and catching of waterbirds should be regulated and enforced based on legislation that goes beyond national boundaries, such as the EU Birds Directive. However, in reality such a strong control and enforcement mechanism is only in place in a certain part of the AEWA region. This 'gap' could be partly met by training; for instance a training programme for decision makers introducing different legislative options.

The important question is what needs to be done/changed in order for the actual behaviour to change into the desired behaviour: "Do the respective stakeholders need certain awareness, knowledge or understanding? Do they lack motivation? Why? Do they need certain skills, like developing a management plan? Do they lack the equipment, or clear instructions or incentives, or worse, are the existing incentives luring them into another direction? Which of these can be tackled by capacity building activities or training programmes?"

A *needs assessment determines the purpose and learning objectives of a capacity building or training programme*. It forms the basis of focused design and evaluation of capacity building and training initiatives. A needs assessment is conducted in order to:

1. Focus learning on what is really important for the job and the individuals involved (and not yet known by the participants) and to avoid that we try to solve problems with training that cannot be dealt with by training alone. It is necessary to formulate relevant and realistic learning objectives.
2. Develop an effective training strategy, select appropriate training methods and arrive at appropriate arrangements for training (timing, duration, food, place, setting, group composition, etc.) well adapted to the needs and circumstances of the participants.
3. Assess the need for required support and follow-up after training.

The assessment is part of a planning process focusing on identifying and solving performance problems. These performances may be related to knowledge, skills and attitude of persons involved. An assessment can be related to organizational and individual performance.

When preparing a new training/capacity building programme we need to gather different types of data in order to:

- Formulate relevant and realistic learning objectives;
- Select appropriate training methods and develop effective curricula;
- Arrive at appropriate arrangements for training (timing, duration, food, place, setting, group composition, etc.);
- Assess the need for organizational change and required support and follow-up after the training.

How to define a training need

A training need is well defined when we can describe clearly:
- what (type of) persons …
- have what kind of problems …
- in performing which tasks,
- implemented to achieve which aims?

Additional information needs
Besides the assessment of the learning needs the training organizer will need information on:

- Relevant characteristics of the target group: How many are there? Of what age, sex, educational background, working experience? Will it be individuals or teams? What kind of restrictions/preferences do they have with respect to the selection of the timing and location of the training, food and lodging, working in mixed groups (e.g. sex, age, staff level, educational level)?
- The resources available for the training programme (or potentially available): financial resources; training facilities, materials and equipment; human resources; information; institutional working relations. With respect to the human resources: training management capacity, availability of qualified moderators and resource persons, sufficient support staff, participating farmers and staff in fieldwork locations.
- The working conditions of the future participant: How do the actual working conditions of the future participants influence the possibilities to apply what will be learned in the course? What other measures are needed to solve the problem? Is the programme or organization willing to take such measures?
- The needs and possibilities for adequate follow-up and support: What opportunities do exist for continued learning after training? What kind of support and advice the ex-trainees will need, and will the programme or organization be able to supply such support? Who else might/should get involved?
- What possibilities/restrictions for monitoring and evaluation of the outcomes and impacts of the training exist in the programme or organization? Can it be implemented by the line staff or do training specialists have to be involved?

3.1.4 Formulation of learning objectives

"If you do not know where you want to go, you easily end up where you do not want to be" (R.F. Mager).

The need for learning objectives
Learning objectives state what will be accomplished as a result of the capacity building or training programme and are defined in light of the needs identified. They arise out of the gaps identified in the process of needs assessment. Learning objectives indicate that the target group will display an understanding of certain concepts, demonstrate a given skill or show a change in attitude. The content, method of delivery, material, and forms of evaluation strategies of capacity building programmes are all derived from identifying the training objectives. Without measurable learning objectives, learning cannot be successfully planned or evaluated.

Well-defined learning objectives will keep all involved on the right track. They provide an important link between the needs assessment and the design and preparation of materials. It helps to assess if the overall objectives have been met and whether the capacity building programme has been successful in meeting the needs of the target group. The learning objectives therefore provide the basis of evaluation.

In converting needs into objectives, three areas of performance may be identified: ***skills, knowledge*** and ***attitude***. Skills-related objectives indicate what the target group can do, demonstrate or perform as result of the capacity building activity. Knowledge-related objectives refer to the target group's ability to identify, define or describe given concepts as a result of the activity. Attitude objectives are less easy to measure although it may be useful to make the desired attitudinal change explicit. It is a useful technique to refer to the learning objectives at key times to ensure that the target group recognizes how the programme is progressing towards achieving the objectives. When the target group knows what is expected of them they can organize their efforts more effectively.

Formulating objectives
The formulation of objectives:

1. facilitates the planning of the training activity, by making it easier to select relevant learning experiences and contents systematically;
2. makes the training more effective and efficient by orienting the implementation: the facilitator/trainer concentrates more on what is really needed and is prevented from straying off, whilst participant learning is stimulated by clarifying for each part of the training what they are going to learn and how they can assess progress made (what they should be able to do if they attain the objective);
3. provides a sound basis for evaluation of the training;
4. improves the impact of the training by concentrating attention on the resulting change in behaviour and action in the field rather than an increase in knowledge and skills as such.

A distinction can be made between the educational aims or general objectives and the learning or performance objectives of a training programme. The *general objective indicates the overall purpose and desired outcomes of that training* (e.g. "to develop an understanding of the principles of selection and formulation of objectives"). General learning objectives state the realistic target of the capacity building or training programme. They are written in an active tense and use strong verbs like 'plan, write, produce' etc. For example: "Participants are able to develop a wetland management plan."

The *learning or performance objectives specify in observable terms what the participants should be able to do at the end of the training* to:

- explain the difference between aims and objectives
- formulate objectives using the three components of performance objectives correctly, and
- demonstrate to colleagues in a convincing way the advantages of writing performance objectives.

Performance objectives are SMART: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, relevant and Timely. A performance objective answers the following question: "Who is going to do What, When, Why (what does it demonstrate), and to What Standard?" i.e. By the end of the training at least 75% of the participants have the necessary skills to prepare a wetland management plan based on the Ramsar guidelines.

Specifying detailed learning objectives is a strong instrument in making learning more effective. However, one should be aware of the dangers:

Overconcentration on specified objectives may make learning so prescribed that spontaneity, initiative and creativity withers;
A tendency to 'lose' those objectives that are less easy to specify and measure in behavioural terms, e.g. sensitivity, problem solving skills, creativity, change in attitude or values, etc.

When formulating a performance objective:

- use active verbs
- specify what has to be performed
- indicate a standard
- specify conditions.

Facilitators or trainers are tempted to formulate objectives in terms of what they themselves are going to do in the training. This type of objective does not tell much about what the participant will be able to do at the end of the training. Hence, it will be better when the objective describes the desired performance of the participant.

Objectives should describe observable behaviour. They often using words like 'understand, know or be aware' when defining objectives. Such words may indicate perfectly what we expect the participant to learn but we cannot observe what happens inside the head. To assess whether the participant 'understands' or 'knows' we need verbs that describe some observable activity. A performance objective consists of three components or characteristics:

1. **The performance:** What the trainee is expected to do upon completion of the training. The performance consists of a verb that denotes the behaviour to be demonstrated and the result of that action that will be assessed.
2. **The conditions:** Under what conditions the participant is expected to demonstrate the performance.
3. **The standards:** Describes how well the participant is expected to perform: how often, how fast, how many.

Table 3.1 List of action verbs that can be used when formulating learning objectives

Knowledge, Acquisition and Utilization	Skill Building	Attitude Change
To identify	To demonstrate	To challenge
To list	To produce	To defend
To compare and contrast	To calculate	To judge
To describe	To adjust	To question
To state	To install	To accept
To differentiate	To assemble	To adopt
To prepare	To operate	To advocate
To recall	To detect	To bargain
To classify	To locate	To cooperate
To categorize	To isolate	To endorse
To chart	To arrange	To justify
To rank	To build	To persuade
To distinguish	To conduct	To resolve
To explain	To detect	To select
To outline	To execute	To dispute
To analyze	To fix	
To evaluate	To lay out	
To formulate	To perform	
To investigate	To sort	
To modify		
To report		
Suspect verbs:		
to know		
to understand		
to be aware of		

See exercise 'Formulating objectives' (section 3.1.4).

3.1.5 Selecting the content

The content of the capacity building or training activities should link directly with areas identified in the needs assessment and the learning objectives. For each objective there is certain information that you can include to reach that learning objective. A good method to decide on how much, and which part of this information to include is to first list all topics that you would like to share on a sheet of paper. Then this information can be classified into three categories:

1. **Must know information**: Without this information, the participant or trainee will not be able to achieve the objective.
2. **Should know information**: Information which will help the participant to reach the objective or it will reinforce the learning.
3. **Could know information**: Information which is of a general nature with regard to achieving the objective such as background and historical information.

You will rarely be able to include everything you would like when you train, teach or share. Providing at least the 'must know' information will make you more likely to be successful in achieving the learning objectives. 'Should know' and 'could know' information can often be presented to participants in the form of assigned readings, hand-outs, homework, or field activities.

See exercise 'Formulating objectives' (section 3.1.4).

3.1.6 Delivery methods

Selecting delivery methods
Once the content has been outlined and the messages have been identified, delivery methods can be selected. Based on the respective target stakeholder groups and the specific capacity building objectives, preferred suitable delivery mechanisms are identified. Since individuals learn in different ways and have different learning styles it is important to use a variety of delivery methods to not only maintain the interest of the target group but also maximize the impact of the messages transferred. Learning methods can be classified in order of appropriateness for learning objectives. So, a lecture may serve well for information transfer and presentation of factual knowledge, while this method may do not so well in development of skills or influencing attitude.

Apart from characterizing learning methods according to knowledge, skills or attitude development, these methods may be scored against the potential of information transfer, interest raising value, information transformation or stimulation to active participant involvement.

Some techniques for conveying information
Lecturing is the most frequently used method for delivering a message. There are, however, a variety of other techniques for conveying information to trainees such as:

Projects**:** Country-based projects can demonstrate how sustainable wetland management can be achieved through the wise use of wetlands. The projects build on the participation of national stakeholders and foster an adaptive learning approach to capacity development. Learning from the knowledge of indigenous stakeholders will be a guiding principle for the implementation of the projects. These projects can substantially enhance cooperation and coordination between relevant ***ministries, other experts*** and ***stakeholders***.

Research on major issues in the environment-development interface and on practical approaches to address them, bearing in mind the development priorities of countries. Such research can be carried out at national, regional and/or multilateral levels.

Training: Led by (a team of) local experts with input (if required) from foreign experts, training projects can enhance the appreciation, knowledge and skills of policy-makers and other stakeholders with respect to the relationship and complementarities between trade, environment and development.

National and regional workshops: When focused on development and environment issues (e.g. economically, socially and environmentally significant policies in relation to the flyway approach to the conservation and wise use of waterbirds and wetlands) workshops can build understanding and collective experience towards the development of mutually supportive policies.

National policy dialogues: Drawing on a wider range of perspectives than workshops, policy dialogues can help raise awareness, and encourage the exchange of perspectives among experts, practitioners and negotiators. Policy dialogues are particularly valuable in the needs assessment phase of capacity building. They

encourage the sharing of existing knowledge and skills.

Regional and international policy dialogues: Sharing perspectives between countries and regions allows countries to learn from the successes and failures of others, share best practices and identify new partners for further capacity building and policy-making efforts.

Networking and information exchange: This can be used to share experiences, provide technical and operational support, and to disseminate the results of capacity building activities. Often one of the most important outcomes of a capacity building effort is the relationships and partnerships it creates.

Practical considerations
The availability of facilities, time and budgets is another important category of determinants. It may be a wonderful idea to use an instructional video if you wish to introduce a new technique or skill. However, unless it will be used by a large number of trainees for a considerable time, you will find that the advantages normally do not outweigh the costs and time involved in producing the video. Instead a chart or sequential diagram will be more cost-effective. A practical exercise whereby all participants can apply and test their new skills may be a desirable component of the training programme, but is also time consuming and requires the availability of the appropriate facilities. If either time or facilities are lacking, you will have to organise something else, for example a method demonstration.

Lastly, it is important to opt for a training method that suits the skills, experience and preference of the facilitator or trainer. For example, if they do not feel very confident to stand in front of a group, then it should be tried to minimise the number of presentations and lectures. The facilitator might be much better in organising and coordinating study tours, practical assignments, group discussions or other more informal methods. The facilitator or trainer should select the training methods that they are familiar with and should minimise the number of 'tricky experiments'.

Sequence of topics for delivery
Once the content is clear and the training methods have been selected the sequence of topics has to be decided upon. How might the various ideas and subjects best be ordered within your programme? Types of sequencing to select within the training programme are:

- ***Chronological sequence***, for example when dealing with scientific discoveries, development of institutions or programmes, etc.;
- ***Causal sequence***, which is closely related to the chronological order, but which emphasises the cause-effect relationship;
- ***Topic-by-topic***, when there is a number of related topics and themes which could be studied in any order;
- ***Concentric circles***, when trying to provide the participants with different perspectives around the same subject, e.g. you as an inspector, you and your team, your team within the organisation, etc.;
- ***Backward chaining***, when the training is aimed at learning of a sequence of activities (e.g. introduction of good laboratory practices) or decision-making (e.g. determining whether an organism is harmful or not), it may be useful to teach the final step first; you might then continue with the previous steps;
- ***Problem-centred sequence*****:** by starting with analysing the problem and then engaging the participants in developing solutions, you may provide them with a realistic context in which they can easily see the relevance of the new skills and knowledge.

Organisational issues
Other important organisational issues that need to be defined beforehand, particularly when more than one trainer is involved are:

- A ***list*** of the main resources and facilities required that will serve as a guide for planning and checking their availability;
- The ***division*** of the main responsibilities for developing and implementing the training activities;
- The ***timing*** of the preparatory activities and dates of implementation.

3.1.7 Planning a learning event or training

When planning a learning event or training, a stepwise approach can be followed:

- *Step 1. Define the basis of the programme*
  What is the main aim of the course? Why is it needed? What is the target group for whom the training is being proposed? What resources will be available? How will responsibilities be divided between the

parties involved? What provisions are made for organizational support and follow-up?

- *Step 2. Pre-train data collection and needs analysis*
  Task and performance analysis: Analysis of the characteristics of the target group, their working conditions, problems and felt needs; which of the performance gaps, needs and problems are amenable to learning?
- *Step 3. Determine the training strategy*
  Define what selection and combination of type(s) of learning activities will be required in order to attain the desired changes; describe the focus of the programme and the educational assumptions on which it is based.
- *Step 4. Formulation of specified learning objectives*
  Specification of the knowledge, attitude and skill aspects of each task to be performed. Formulation of performance objectives for all relevant aspects.
- *Step 5. Development of an effective learning activity plan (including course evaluation)* Development of an effective structure for the learning event or training and determination of coherent and meaningful sessions or modules. Review of experiences and consultation in order to select relevant contents and methods, preparation of the module and session plans (subjects, methods/media, sequence and timing). Selection of methods for in-course and end-of-course evaluation.
- *Step 6. Preparation and pre-testing of materials*
  Preparation and pre-testing of hand-outs, cases, assignments, audio-visuals, manuals, games and exercises, etc.
- *Step 7. Preparation of participants and facilitators*
  Selection and preparation/motivation of participants; selection and training of moderators and resource persons.
- *Step 8. Prepare the learning event or training logistically*
  All the required logistical arrangements are made (board and lodging, transport, printing, invitations, documentation, classroom arrangements, media, excursions, etc.).
- *Step 9. Organization of the impact evaluation and follow-up activities*
  Plan the evaluation of improvements in participants' performance and prepare support and follow-up activities to be supplied to the ex-participants. Plan the reporting (feedback) to the work organization, funding agencies and trainers.

3.1.8 Preparation of a session plan

A session plan helps in planning training activities and in detailing the separate sessions of a larger module. To develop a session plan the following steps can be used:

- **Select the subject, the target group and the learning situation**
  a. The subject should be specific, and the learning objective should be realizable within the time limits given. Do not try to 'cover' a topic that needs much more time to be dealt with thoroughly; determine the characteristics of the target group (e.g. women's clubs, wetland research assistants, project extension officers, district wildlife managers etc.).
  b. Select the learning situation or venue; fieldtrip, classroom, laboratory etc.
- **Define the learning objective(s) of the session** Describe the objective(s) in terms of behaviour: what the participants should be able to do at the end of the session. Define what the participants must know to be able to achieve the objective ('should know' information that reinforces learning), or 'could know' (background information). Concentrate on the 'must know' items.
- **Select the delivery methodology**
  Select method and describe in detail how the session will be implemented. Will the participants work in groups; will they get involved in discussions or a role play; what is expected of them etc.?

The session plan will also include information on:

- the duration of each activity in a session;
- the person responsible for implementing and organizing the session;
- materials and/or logistics to be organized: develop the educational means and media you will need during the session, think about the sitting arrangements for classroom sessions etc.

3.1.9 Summarising the steps in curriculum development

To conclude, the main elements of the curriculum are listed briefly once more:

a) Provide a brief description of ***the participants*** including information on their designation and responsibilities, their background, motivation, etc. as well the number of participants.

b) ***Clearly formulated aims and objectives*** through which you make your intentions explicit for yourself, your colleagues and ultimately the trainees.
c) A summary overview of ***the subject matter*** in line with the objectives and needs and interests of the participants.
d) The ***methods and media*** that you intend to apply and which take into account the needs of different learning styles, the nature of the aims, objectives and subjects, the available facilities, budgets and time, as well as your own preferences and talents.
e) A ***summary of the main organisational issues*** such as the sequencing of the activities, the required resources and facilities, the division of responsibilities and the timing in preparation and implementation.
f) ***Evaluation.***

3.2 Case studies, role plays and/or assignments

3.2.1 Exercise: Formulating objectives

Indicate which of the following objectives relates to knowledge (K), attitudes (A), or skills (S):

The trainee …

1. is able to mention all the airlines participating in the information system (K)
2. can explain the limitations of the system correctly (K)
3. is able to cross check computer-based information with information from written sources (S)
4. determines the landing time of all incoming flights within 2 minutes (S)
5. realizes that travellers' time is valuable and that a correct but quick service is required (A)
6. accepts credit cards only after checking 'the black list' (K)
7. diagnoses all travel problems systematically (S)
8. maintains friendly working relations with the colleagues (A)
9. deals with 'angry' clients in a calm, correct and self confident mode (S).

3.2.2 Exercise: Classify learning methods

Try to classify whether the following learning methods can best be used for knowledge, skills or attitude development:

- lecture (K)
- demonstration (S)
- seminar (K)
- field training (S)
- case study (K, S)
- practical instruction (S)
- role play (A)
- simulation games (S)
- self-instruction programmes (S, A)

Further resources

- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Curriculum development'.*
- *Refer also to the reference list at the end of this module.*

4. Communicating the Flyway Approach

4.1 Theoretical background

4.1.1 Introduction

Environmental communication has become an established field in itself but can easily relate to the decades of experiences, lessons learned and well-established methods and tools of communication strategies in other fields: e.g. agricultural extension, health and sanitation, poverty alleviation strategies etc. All fields make use of a set of generic principles and steps applied in communication strategies. These generic principles and steps are applied in this session, starting with an explanation on what communication actually, followed by more background information on advocacy and what steps are needed for the development of an effective advocacy strategy. This session also provides feedback on the difference between advocacy and lobbying and will try to integrate as much as possible the aspects of learning dealt with in Session 1: Learning (section 1).

4.1.2 What is communication?

The German organisation GTZ describes communication as ***dialogue***, enabling people to understand the key factors of their physical, social, economic and political environment and their interdependence so that rising problems can be solved competently. Communication by definition incorporates ***feedback***, whereas information does not. Hence, communication is the transmission 'belt' between information dissemination and action planning.

Wageningen International defines communication as:

> ***"the process of sending and receiving messages through channels in order to establish common meanings between a sender and a receiver."***

Effective communication only occurs if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit. This means 'the truth' is not what the transmitter says but what the receiver *understands*. In other words, how does the receiver digest the information, how does the receiver give meaning to the words and in fact how does the receiver *learn*.

4.1.3 A bit of history

Early theoretical models of communication from the 1960s simply saw the communication process as an exchange of messages from a sender to a receiver with a lot of importance given to the sender and the channel used for the transmission. Since the 1970s this model has undergone a 180 degree shift with more emphasis given to the communication process itself, understood primarily as an exchange of meanings and of the social relationships that have derived from such exchanges. Especially from agricultural and rural development research and through lessons learned from this field, the perspective on communication has changed. Communication is considered as a social process designed to bring together agricultural technicians and farmers in a two-way process where people are both senders and receivers of information and 'co-creators of knowledge'.

Communication versus Information

Communication is a two-way process in which data and information are sent and received between two or more parties, each with an inherent knowledge and understanding about:
1. *how the data and information are to be used,* and
2. *each other (sender/receiver).*

Information is basically data which is more or less a passive commodity with little inherent value unless it enriches one or more of its recipients, either in terms of knowledge or in some other, material way.

4.1.4 Communicating the flyway approach

Species Action Plans and flyway networks
As in agricultural extension, there are also examples in 'Communicating the Flyway Approach' that show the importance of audience involvement or at least understanding stakeholders, although for migratory species often the stakeholders come from far and wide. Several Species Action Plans have been developed in close consultation with a wide range of stakeholders (see Module 2 section 2.2), often involving specific workshops to which representatives from range states are invited. There are also special networks for some species, such as for the Northern Bald Ibis *Geronticus eremita* (see Module 2 section 9.3.3).

Site management plans and Site Support Groups
At the site level, conservation is always most effective when stakeholders are closely involved in the management and use of the site. An example provided in Module 2 section 4.2.3 is the Djoudj National Park in Senegal, where intensive stakeholder involvement took place in the development of a management plan. Previously, the park had been established along 'military' lines, with local communities evicted from parts of the designated area, resulting in a lack of cooperation and respect between local communities and government-appointed management. The situation significantly improved after co-development of new management procedures with stakeholders.

Several IBAs in Africa have Site Support Groups, local community based organisations that play an active role in various aspects of site management and/or monitoring, and related programmes, such as raising awareness.

Under the Wings Over Wetlands project, stakeholder involvement is a key focus for some of the project's demonstration sites. At the Aden Lagoons, Yemen, the Yemeni Society for the Protection of Wildlife (YSPW) is leading the updating and implementation of an integrated management plan with the close involvement of major stakeholders. The project includes an education and public awareness component, led by an Education Coordinator, and a number of events such as workshops and guided visits help to further engage local stakeholders (Figure 4.1).

Stakeholder interests and communication as a learning process
As such, communicating the flyway approach is in essence about knowing which different actors are involved at what stage, and knowing that each actor has different perceptions, interests and maybe even 'hidden agendas'. Understanding and applying the flyway approach is an essential basis for determining which communication instruments should be used. Knowing what should be changed has to be combined with how change should be brought about.

Communication, when it is done well, does not only benefit the 'recipient'. It also benefits the 'sender'. This aspect of communication is often overlooked. We tend to think of communication as a process of teaching others – or of telling others everything we know ('spread the good news!'). But communication is also a process whereby the 'senders' themselves can *learn* a lot. If we think strategically about the communication process, we can maximise our own benefits too. The issue of learning is dealt with in Session 1: Learning (section 1) of this Module but is also reflected upon in this session.

Figure 4.1 Conservation education and awareness activities with schools: an organised visit to the Aden Lagoons, Yemen in 2008 (photo: Safwan Al-Sagheer, Yemen Society for the Protection of Wildlife).

4.1.5 The barriers to communication

A message has not been communicated if the message has not been received by the other party. The great German writer Johan Wolfgang von Goethe once said: "No one would talk much in society if they knew how often they were misunderstood by others…" Luckily, a lot of communication research has been done, so we have therefore learned that there are many barriers to effective communication. The advantage of knowing that there are barriers enables us to 'deal' with them. What are these barriers to communication? The barriers to communication should be discussed during a

workshop in some detail, but the main barriers are described below:

Barriers to communication

- Culture, background and bias
- Ourselves
- Message
  - Language
  - Paralanguage
- Perception
- Assumptions
- Stress
- Environmental barriers
- Noise

Culture, background and bias
We allow our past experiences to change the meaning of the message. Our culture, background and bias can be good as they allow us to use our past experiences to understand something new; it is when they change the meaning of the message then they interfere with the communication process.

Ourselves
Focusing on ourselves, rather than the other person can lead to confusion and conflict. The "Me Generation" is 'out' (not appropriate) when it comes to effective communication. Some of the factors that cause this are defensiveness (we feel someone is attacking us), superiority (we feel we know more that the other), and ego (we feel we are the centre of the activity).

Message
During transmission of a message two items will be received by the receiver:

- Content: actual words or symbols
- Context: the way the message is delivered.

Content: Distractions happen when we focus on the facts rather than the idea. Our educational institutions reinforce this with tests and questions. Semantic distractions occur when a word is used differently than you prefer. For example, the word chairman instead of chairperson, may cause you to focus on the word and not the message. We all use and interpret the meanings of words differently, so even simple messages can be misunderstood.

Context: The way the message is delivered known as ***paralanguage, non-verbal communication*** or ***body language***, e.g.:

- Tone of voice
- Gestures
- Facial expression
- Be aware! We often trust paralanguage more than language!

Perception
If we feel a person is talking too fast, not fluently, does not articulate clearly, etc., we may dismiss that person. Also, our preconceived attitudes affect our ability to listen. We may listen uncritically to persons of high status and dismiss those of low status.

Assumptions
We take it for granted that the impulse to send useful information is automatic. Not true! Too often we believe that certain information has no value to others or they are already aware of the facts.

Stress
People do not see things the same way when under stress. What we see and believe at a given moment is influenced by our psychological frames of references - our beliefs, values, knowledge, experiences, and goals.

Environmental
Bright lights, an attractive person, unusual sights, or any other stimulus provide a potential distraction. ***Noise*** is especially distracting: equipment or environmental noise impedes clear communication. The sender and the receiver must both be able to concentrate on the messages being sent to each other.

4.1.6 Overcoming the barriers to communication

Tools for overcoming barriers to communication
For effective communication it is important to make a planning that involves a strategy to overcome these barriers to communication. The following 'tools' are very important: ***listening***, ***questioning*** and providing ***feedback***. Especially as facilitator, trainer, 'advocate' or communicator of a certain issue in general you have to be very aware of your ability to listen, to question and providing feedback. It sounds all very logical indeed, but it is one of the most difficult tasks to undertake when communicating the flyway approach to conservation.

When developing an advocacy strategy we come back to the barriers of communication and the tools that help to overcome these barriers. Last but not least there is a very important issue that needs to be addressed when talking about communication. It is the issue of *body language*; this is discussed after having described listening, questioning and feedback.

Tool 1: Listening
Listening is about more than techniques for hearing the words of a speaker; it is about connecting to the deepest concerns and intrinsic worth of that person. We could also say that we receive the priceless gift that accompanies listening: the challenge to change *our own* attitudes. But we will come back to that when discussing advocacy. First some guidelines on active and effective listening:

Guidelines for effective listening

- **Concentrate on hearing and understanding the other**
  Do not start preparing your answer whilst the other is talking, but concentrate on the other person and try to understand what he/she means to tell you. Pay attention to more than the words and watch gestures, facial expression, hesitations, etc. to pick up the emotional value of what the speaker says.
- **Do not stop listening when you hear some keywords (red flags)**
  You will lose contact with the speaker and fail to understand him/her.
- **Do not think too easily that you can predict what the speaker knows or wants to say**
  It is better to listen and find out for sure whether it is true or not.
- **Do not pretend that you understood what the speaker says when you do not**
  It will help yourself and the others in the group when you explain to the speaker where and when you got lost and to ask for a clarification. Questions for clarification will also help the speaker to explore all sides of a problem.
- **Do not become defensive and do not interrupt or argue**
  … with the speaker as soon as he/she challenges one of your favourite ideas, values, points of view. Continue listening and find out the viewpoints of the other person so that you do understand better, can learn, and can respond constructively.
- **Check regularly**
  … whether you really listened well and whether your interpretation of the words of the speaker is right. A good way to do so is restating or summarizing the essential arguments and information given. A good summary is short, gives only the essential elements of what the speaker said, invites the speaker to react, and correct if necessary.

[See exercise 'Listening pairs' (section 7.3).

Tool 2: Questioning
Questioning is at the heart of communication, and therefore also important for facilitation, teaching, training and advocacy. In nearly all training methods questions play an important role. Almost any training technique (lecture, plenary discussion, small group work, case study, games etc.) is only as effective as the questions that come with it. Questioning is one of the most effective means to stimulate thought processes and learning.

Different kinds of questions elicit different kinds of responses. That goes for communication in general, but especially being an advocate for a certain issue or a facilitator or trainer, questioning can shape your training or advocacy process. Purposely selecting a question type can perform the function that you have in mind for that specific moment or that moment in the training:

Types of Questions

1. **Generating or recall questions**: Questions that ask for data: What, who, when, where? The participants in the discussion or training are asked to mobilize their knowledge, former experiences, and to share them with their colleague participants.
2. **Analyzing or comprehension questions:** Questions that stimulate participants to manipulate information: to relate facts and detect relationships: how, why, under what conditions? Such questions lead to understanding of underlying relations, causes and consequences.
3. **Interpretation or evaluative questions**: Questions that ask to evaluate the information, to attach meaning to it, to draw conclusions with respect to possible or required action to

be taken: To what conclusion does this bring you? How do you evaluate the situation? What action should/could be taken to solve this problem? The participant is asked to state and support his/her views on the analyzed issue.

Wherever possible questions should be prepared in advance and answers anticipated.

In general these questions *should*:
- be well-chosen
- arouse curiosity
- be of personal concern for the participants
- lead to creative thinking
- be made use of
- be visualized.

These questions *should not*:
- lead to yes/no replies
- be ambiguous or difficult to understand
- lead directly to 'right' answers
- be answered by the trainer/sender of the message/advocate him/herself
- be changed once stated
- put to the same persons all the time.

One should be aware when to select an open or a closed question. Closed questions lead to a search for one single response, e.g. asking someone to multiply 2 and 2, or asking an opinion about a specific situation. Open questions stimulate search for any number of feasible solution or actions.

Questions normally are used in *series*:
- ***Problem-solving***: a series of questions in which the type of questions changes with the stages of the problem-solving process (gathering information about a problem, analysis of causes, search for possible solutions).
- ***Probing*****:** a series of questions which are addressed to the same participant to help this participant dig deeper.

There are two types of probing:
- ***Prompting***: the use of short hints or clues (orally or visually) to stimulate the thinking of the participants.
- ***Clarification***: the participant is asked to explain, elaborate or clarify his/her answer.

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation

The facilitator or trainer may redirect questions of participants:
a. Towards other participants in order to stimulate participant-participant interaction (rather than trainer-participant interaction) and to promote, group problem-solving.
b. To the same and other participant(s) to stimulate independent analysis of the problem and to solicit creative thinking.

Contributions of participants in a discussion, event or training should always be used. The facilitator should not use participants' answers only as a starting point for his/her own explanation without integrating participants' contributions. Unexpected or 'off the road' answers should not be brushed aside.

Tool 3: Giving feedback

When a person wants to change a certain behaviour s/he needs information about the strong and weak points in the other person or group's behaviour but also needs to know the strong and weak points of his/her own behaviour. The reactions of the different actors in a process to old or new behaviour are the main sources of information. Without realizing it, persons interacting with each other continuously provide feedback through gestures, facial expressions, etc. in reaction to what the other does. This type of feedback is sometimes very clear but often rather difficult to understand. Facilitators, trainers and speakers in general will at times give explicit and individual reactions to someone in order to assist him/her to develop the behaviour (e.g. a certain skill) that s/he wants.

Feedback, when given in a correct way, stimulates and encourages the receiver (because s/he realises the progress made) and directs further improvements. Some guidelines for giving feedback are the following:

Guidelines for effective listening

1. Concentrate on hearing and understanding the other
   Do not start preparing your answer whilst the other is talking, but concentrate on the other person and try to understand what he/she means to tell you. Pay atten¬tion to more than the words and watch gestures, facial expression, hesitations, etc. to pick up the emotional value of what the speaker says.

2. Do not stop listening when you hear some keywords (red flags)
   You will lose contact with the speaker and fail to understand him/her.

3. Do not think too easily that you can predict what the speaker knows or wants to say
   It is better to listen and find out for sure whether it is true or not.

4. Do not pretend that you understood what the speaker says when you do not
   It will help yourself and the others in the group when you explain to the speaker where and when you got lost and to ask for a clarification. Questions for clari¬fication will also help the speaker to explore all sides of a problem.

5. Do not become defensive and do not interrupt or argue
   … with the speaker as soon as he/she challenges one of your favourite ideas, values, points of view. Continue listening and find out the viewpoints of the other person so that you do understand better, can learn, and can respond constructively.

6. Check regularly
   … whether you really listened well and whether your interpretation of the words of the speaker is right. A good way to do so is restating or summari¬zing the essential arguments and information given. A good summary is short, gives only the essential elements of what the speaker said, invites the speaker to react, and correct if necessary.

Importance of feedback
Evaluation during a course or event can have several functions and may serve various purposes, such as:

- a check on understanding
- a check on learning process
- a self-assessment as well as a trainer assessment
- as a reinforcement of the learning itself.

Feedback has to be specific with regard to the subject addressed by it. Moreover, for the sake of being better understood, it is wise for the one who gives feedback, to:

- indicate which observation is the basis for the feedback remark,
- inform how this feedback was interpreted,
- explain the effect he/she observed.

Avoid judging peoples' behaviour or expressions without a serious check of the observation you made and the interpretation you assigned it, because both steps precede your judgement and may interfere with your final appreciation!

Do not refrain from giving feedback, as feedback may provide the most useful learning opportunity.

Points to remember when giving feedback

- We can only give feedback helpfully to a person if they know that we accept and appreciate them as a person.
- It is important that an atmosphere of trust and mutual appreciation be established when feedback is given. This can only exist if we give genuine, positive as well as negative feedback.
- Feedback should only be given if the person wants to know how others see him/her and has asked for feedback. It should be offered, not forced upon a person.
- Feedback should deal with what a person did, i.e. their behaviour, not their motivation.
- It is often best if we can present negative feedback as our own problem, a sharing of our personal feelings when something happened. For example, "I felt squashed and humiliated when you interrupted and brushed aside my suggestion just now", not "You always try to make people feel they have nothing to contribute". (Only the person concerned really knows why they acted as they did).
- Each person should express only their own feelings and not assume that the whole group felt that way. Others can say so for themselves if they did.
- Feedback should deal with things that can be changed. "I would find it easier to listen if you made fewer points at one time". Not "Your accent drives me mad', or "I do not like the shape of your …!"

4.1.7 Body language

When discussing communication, we have already mentioned that it is important to think about the gestures you make, the facial expressions etc. Many researchers stress that **80%** of communication is body language. If that is the case it is understandable that we have to take very good care of the way messages are delivered! … especially being a trainer, or an advocate for a certain issue, e.g. the promotion of the flyway approach to conservation.

The use of the eyes, gestures, facial expressions and the tone of the voice all have more impact on a conversation than the actual words. This is what we call the paralanguage (referring to the barriers of communication).

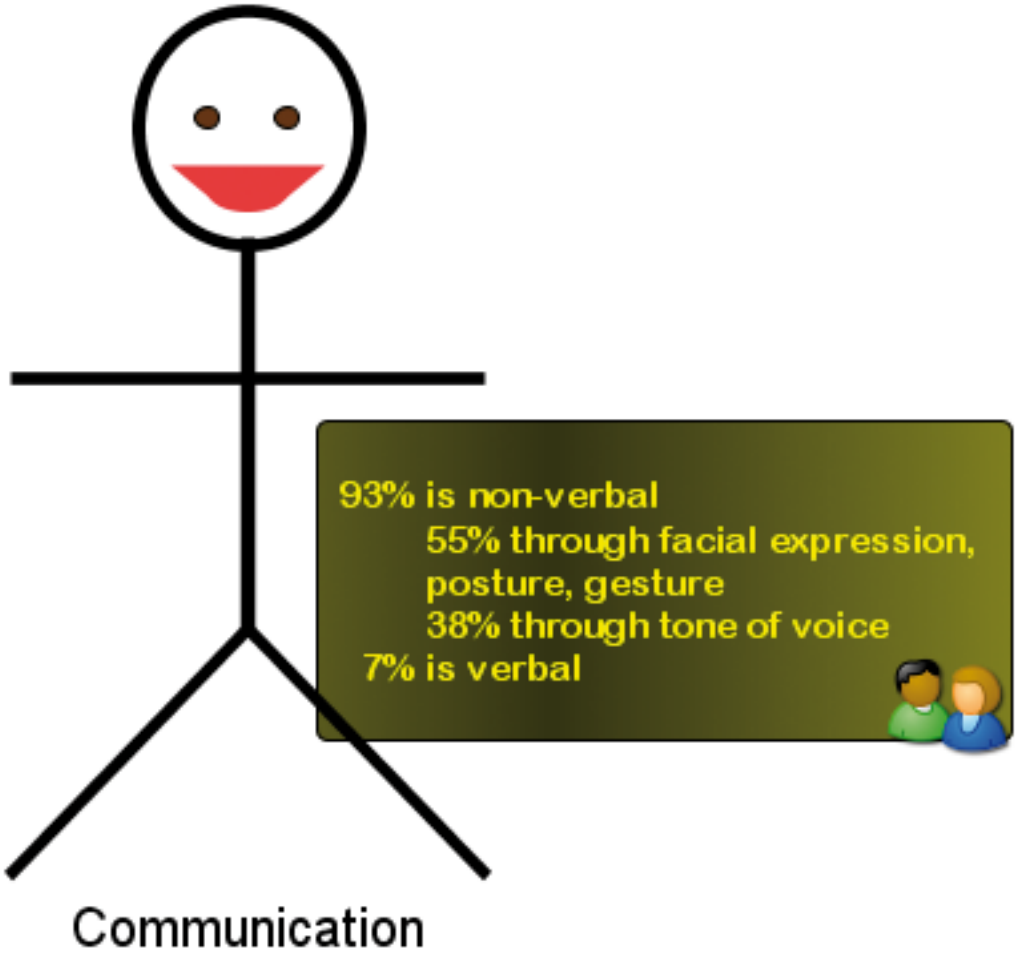
Every culture has its own body language. For example how people greet each other varies. In American and European cultures steady eye contact communicates that you are listening, in some African and Asian cultures prolonged eye contact can be considered too assertive or intimate.

If as communicators attention is paid to the use of our own body language, we can develop ways of communicating that we are listening, we are interested and reduce the chances of unintentionally insulting others cultures.

It is very important for all communicators to be disciplined in the observation of body language. To watch for 'the unsaid' is as important as listening to the verbal discussions. The posture of the speaker, the shifting of an arm or leg, the downward glance, the change of tone or the facial expression are hints to the unspoken feelings or issues. Through body language a speaker, facilitator or 'advocate' can gather useful information about how the parties are responding.

These forms of communication offer the communicator the opportunity not only to address the issues at stake but to understand and meet the inner needs that drive and motivate the conflict or issue.

*Now that we have discussed the very basics of communication, we need to focus more on **advocating the flyway approach**, as that is what this session is primarily focussing on. However it is important to be aware that the issues raised about **learning**, **listening**, **questioning**, **feedback** and **body language** are extremely important for **advocacy**, for communicating the flyway approach and to have an impact at institutional level. Also, the session on **curriculum development** gives very important tips in that respect, especially the PowerPoint presentation and checking training needs assessments. Lastly, for effective communication, you need to make an analysis of stakeholder interests and needs: communication will only be effective when it is relevant for all parties involved.*



5. Advocacy

5.1 What is advocacy?

5.1.1 Communication and advocacy

The title of this module is 'Communicating the Flyway Approach to Conservation'. That means we need to know something about the background of how people communicate, but also what they do with this information after receiving the message. So we need to know a bit about how people learn, or in other words how they digest information and make meaning of it. Partly that has been covered in Session 1: Learning (section 1), where we gave more attention to how adults learn and the different learning styles they have. In one of the exercises we also showed the benefit of learning together - how much more expertise you obviously have together. But learning together means you have to be a bit of an advocate sometimes, i.e. you have to communicate for a cause; for example, communicating why it is essential to first do an environmental impact assessment before building a visitor centre in a protected wetland area.

Communication involves planning, developing visions, setting objectives, monitoring, adapting and evaluation. These steps will be discussed later in this session (section 6.1). Communication is a dynamic mixture of listening, learning, reflecting, giving feedback and advocacy, and sometimes lobbying. Advocacy is a term that needs some further introduction.

5.1.2 Definitions of advocacy

Advocacy is extremely important when we discuss 'communicating the flyway approach'. Advocacy is the act of arguing on behalf of a particular issue, idea or person. An advocate is a person who does this. But, this 'dictionary definition' is actually not the definition that many organisations still use. Recent research therefore describes advocacy much more holistically (e.g. Tearfund 2002) and sees different roles of the advocate, which Wageningen International would more describe as the *facilitation* of a process. Still we also agree that it is important to address these roles whether to see them as facilitating roles or advocate roles.

Seeing advocacy more broadly will also result in a broader definition or definitions that might even differ from organisation to organisation. The rapid growth of advocacy training in the last decade has generated a wide variety of definitions, approaches and strategies. Some definitions refer to policy change or the technical aspects of advocacy while others explicitly refer to power. Most definitions include *who* does advocacy and *who* is meant to benefit from advocacy.

A wider perspective on what advocacy means and what it means to different experts and organisations will help you in developing a planning process to communicate the flyway approach. When you read the selection of the many existing definitions, you understand that advocacy is not just about getting to the table with a new set of interests, *it is about changing the size and configuration of the table to accommodate a whole new set of actors*, which is in fact facilitating a multi-stakeholder process.

Effective advocacy, challenges imbalances of power and changes thinking, it results in *learning* together with these actors. It requires different roles of the advocate in the process of developing a vision and a strategy together with stakeholders. Some definitions of different organisations and experts are given in Box 5.1.

Box 5.1 Some definitions of advocacy used by different organisations

Advocacy is seeking with, and on behalf of, the poor to address underlying causes of poverty, bring justice and support good development through influencing the policies and practices of the powerful (Tearfund)

Advocacy is the act of arguing on behalf of a particular issue, idea or person. An advocate is a person who does this (GTZ)

Advocacy is the process of using information strategically to change policies that affect the lives of disadvantaged people (anonymous)

Advocacy is about using power and influence to persuade others, who usually have greater power and influence in terms of money, force and authority, to do what you want them to do (anonymous)

Advocacy – 'What the process involves is not defined but it must include education of either the powerful or the powerless' (World Vision International)

Advocacy is the process of influencing key decision-makers and opinion-formers (individuals and organisations) for changes to policies and practices that will work in poor people's favour (Action Aid)

Many definitions of organisations and experts provided are more focussed on poverty reduction, which in many countries is extremely important regarding the wise use of wetlands and the protection of Important Bird Areas, for example. A Peruvian activist said: 'Part of the confusion about trying to define advocacy has to do with the way the concept was imported from the outside as if it were a new technology – as if we didn't already *know* advocacy'.

Regarding communicating the flyway approach, what would be a fitting definition of advocacy?

[Refer to the exercise 'Defining advocacy' (section 7.4).

Nature oriented organisations will have their own description for advocacy. As stressed in Module 1, it is extremely important to have an agreed definition on what a flyway is and the application of the word flyway, as different regions apply the word flyway in different ways. Together with your stakeholders you need to come to an agreed definition or, better, a definition that is *well-understood* by everyone. Not only the concept 'flyway' needs such an *understood* definition, also 'advocacy' needs to be understood by all stakeholders involved.

Advocacy is:
Defend interests
Make someone heard
Influence the powerful

Goal of advocacy is:
Win your cause for benefit of the target group

Entering an advocacy planning process requires an assessment of what different stakeholders understand when talking about nature, conservation, bird migration, ecological networks, corridors, flyways, international agreements etc. If definitions are not clear, and not understood, you can make a perfect planning but your planning will be bound to fail…

5.2 The basics of advocacy

Instead of being led by trying to define advocacy it is good to have some basics of advocacy outlined:

1. Advocacy is about influencing people, policies, structures and systems in order to bring about change.
2. It is about influencing those in power to act in more equitable ways.
3. Advocacy can be done directly by those affected by injustice or on their behalf, or by a combination of both.
4. Anyone can undertake advocacy work – it does not need to be left to professionals or experts.
5. Advocacy work includes many different activities such as lobbying, mobilisation, education, research and networking.
6. It can be undertaken alone, with a group of people or as part of a network.
7. It can be spontaneous or carefully planned, a one-off intervention or an ongoing process.
8. It tackles the root causes of poverty and injustice or the unwise use of resources.
9. It can help to generate more resources for other development work.

Be aware!
Advocacy has to recognise that less powerful stakeholders are the agents of change in their own community, because some roles taken in advocacy might further disempower people by speaking for them, especially without consultation, involvement and agreement. Therefore it is important that we address the roles of an advocate. We will do so in the paragraphs below. When planning your advocacy process it is important to realise the existence of the three approaches in advocacy:

- Advocacy **for** those affected by a situation
- Advocacy **with** those affected by a situation
- Advocacy **by** those affected by a situation.

5.3 The roles of an advocate

Advocacy takes place at many levels, wherever there is a relationship. It varies according to the issue and the types of groups involved (from international level to family level). Situations, problems and levels, all require different roles of an advocate. As an advocate to promote the application of the flyway approach to conservation you need to consider many different issues. You have to deal with the situation at a local level (protecting e.g. a wetland of international importance, thus protecting the habitat of many migratory birds and perhaps other species), to deal with regional governance and institutional setting, as well as governance at national level. Besides your wetland or Important Bird Area is part of an ecological network you aim to protect - a network needed for migratory birds. As such you need to deal with institutional settings and agreements across different boundaries at international level and engage in a process with stakeholders having very different backgrounds. This requires setting up a planning process for different target groups and calls for different roles in advocacy.

Figure 5.1 shows the different roles an advocate can take up (adapted from Tearfund 2002). Later on we will also discuss the different steps needed regarding advocacy and the different roles required as an advocate or facilitator (which is not necessarily the same).

= affected party = targets/those in power = advocate/facilitator

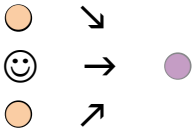
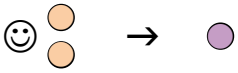
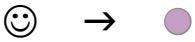
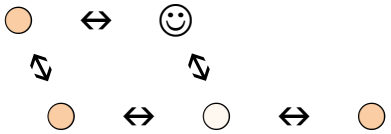
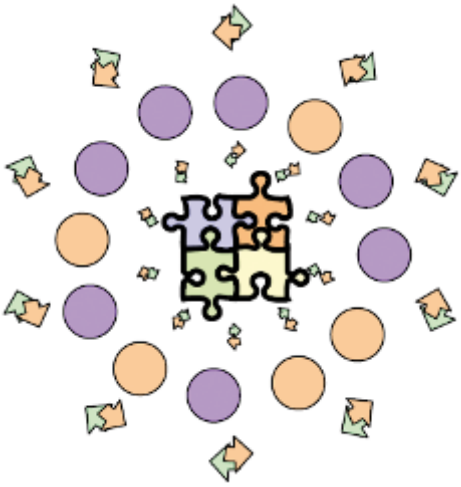
Role	Characteristic	Visualisation
Represent	Speak for people	
Accompany	Speak with people	
Empower	Enable people to speak for themselves	
Mediate	Facilitate communication between people	
Model	Demonstrate the practice to people or policy makers	
Negotiate	Bargain for something	
Network	Build coalitions	
Facilitate	Facilitate the process between people	

Figure 5.1 Possible advocate roles (adapted from Tearfund 2002).

5.4 'Advocacy and Power' and 'Advocacy and Rank'

5.4.1 Power and rank

When discussing advocacy it is vital to discuss not only the roles of the advocate but also some of the characteristics and roles of your 'target' or the ones 'in power'. These 'targets' of our advocacy work have power and they also have a 'sum of privileges' or a certain rank which are actually given by society (Buchanan & Badham 1999).

Power can be defined as having the political, legal or financial resources to be able to influence a particular course of events. Some persons or even organisations are also ranked higher in power. Partly, simply because they have power, but sometimes having a higher rank, making the person more influential, is provided by or agreed to by society. An example: you obtain a certain rank because of your role in a formal hierarchy or experience you have. A director gets a higher rank than his/her secretary. He/she has more power, this is simply the situation, it is considered a high situational rank. Maybe society gives a man an even higher rank thereby increasing his influence to change situations. So in addition to the ***situational rank*** of being a director, the level of power the director has gets higher because he is a man. Gender, age class, ethnicity, appearance, these are all called ***social ranks***. In addition the director might be self confident, which gives him a high ***personal rank***.

All together, 'our director' has become a very influential person: partly because he simply has a high rank in the hierarchy of his organisation or company, and partly because he himself and the society around him give him a high rank in terms of power. Having to deal with a rather influential director is helpful if he shares your view of the importance of environmental protection, but challenging or difficult when he aims to drain a wetland area important for migratory birds and focuses on economic development only.

A lot of time may be wasted if you focus on someone with official power (high situational rank) if someone else is making the decisions behind the scenes (high social rank and in addition maybe a high personal rank).

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation

Role plays are a very illustrative way to show differences in power and whether you also deal with additional ranks.

5.4.2 Key issues about power

Some ***key issues*** about power ***outlined*** - important issues for you as an 'advocate' …

- Power is the ability to get something done, even if you may be prevented from doing so by your circumstances.
- Power determines who makes decisions and what decisions are made.
- Power has three faces – ***open, closed*** and ***invisible***, which roughly correspond to the three types of advocacy (***for, with*** and ***by*** those affected by a situation).
- It is important to engage with all three faces of power, and not just the open face (advocacy for others).
- Everyone has power, but the three main types we often see are those displayed by public figures making decisions: ***economic power***, ***authority*** and ***power of force***, and these are often abused.
- There are many other, often hidden, forms of power (i.e. giving people a higher rank in terms of power, as we discussed above), including information or expertise, organisation or connections, and having a legitimate voice. In this sense, everyone has power. Collectively we have more power than we do as individuals.
- Powerlessness may occur because people are in a position where they cannot use their power, or where others do not recognise the power they have.
- ***Advocacy is about using power and influence to persuade others, who usually have greater power and influence in terms of money, force and authority, to do what you want them to do.*** It involves understanding and making the most of the power you already have and using your power in a legitimate way.

Power and your role as an advocate

- Hold people to account for their use of power
- Try to change the use of power
- Gaining access to power for those who are excluded
- Help people to see what forms of power they have (the first step to empowerment).

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation

To be able to tackle the different dimensions of power, it is necessary to understand who holds the power in your situation, both formally (situational rank or who has the power) and informally (social or personal rank or who actually has the power). Mapping power relations is a helpful tool to discuss and to analyse the situation.

Participants cut out a circle of paper for each of the groups with the size of the circle relating to their perceived level of influence or power. Arrange them according to their relationships with each other. If possible, participants should first identify the types of power each group has, and then how participants may be in a position to influence them, either directly or through others.

[Please see the section on advocacy strategy development, Step 2, the Venn Diagram tool (section 6.2.2).

5.5 Advocacy and politics

5.5.1 Defining politics

When the word ***politics*** is mentioned it will usually produce a wide variety of animated reactions. Some will say that it should not be touched. Others will embrace it….

Trying to define a controversial issue like politics needs in fact an exercise as we did when trying to define advocacy. For regional adaptation the following exercise could be applied:

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation

Participants brainstorm, in pairs, the first things that come into their mind when they think about politics. They write these on flash cards. Lead a discussion based on the answers given. Then split participants into three groups. Give each group a definition of politics as shown below and ask them to answer the question 'Who is involved in politics?' based on the definition they have been given.

As this issue is controversial, it may be necessary to summarise the discussion and ensure everyone is happy before moving on.

Possible definitions of 'politics'

- Politics (capital P!): The governing of a state or country
- politics: The interaction of all forms of power
- politics: The art of living together in a community

5.5.2 Key points of 'politics'

Politics is the exercise of power and the interaction of people with power.

- The narrow definition of Politics (with a capital 'P') refers to the governing of a state or country and is limited to professional politicians.
- The broad definition of politics (with a small 'p') considers the interaction of all forms of power, which happens wherever there is a relationship. Everyone is therefore political and has the potential to influence what happens in their lives, their communities and their countries.

As environmentalist, activist, pacifist, gender specialist etc. you need to use politics to bring about change in society.

5.6 Advocacy and lobbying

5.6.1 Difference between advocacy and lobbying

Although most people use the words interchangeably, there is a distinction between advocacy and lobbying that is helpful to understand. When individuals or organisations advocate on their own behalf or on behalf of a certain issue, they seek to affect some aspect of society: they appeal to individuals about their behaviour, employers about their rules, or the government about its laws. Lobbying refers specifically to advocacy efforts that attempt to influence legislation. Lobbying is trying to influence policy through direct contact with policy-makers.

Lobbying
Systematic informal efforts to influence decision makers or people with power.

- Systematic: planned, not incidental
- Informal: not to be confused with formal procedures, but influencing through informal processes (e.g. personal, not public, no media present)

5.6.2 Typologies

The position of Advocacy in the sphere of influencing:

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Means towards objectives</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Awareness Raising</td><td colspan="4">Influencing</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Capacity Building</td><td colspan="3">Advocacy</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Lobbying</td><td rowspan="2">Common advocacy</td></tr>
<tr><td>Direct</td><td>Indirect</td></tr>
</table>

5.6.3 Advocacy planning

Interactive policy-making
Increasingly there is a trend towards interactive policy-making. This move away from a 'persuasive advertising approach' demands careful communication planning. It requires a strategy that involves tools like public meetings, consultations and round tables for stakeholder engagement. The process of articulating priorities, interests and rights through planning advocacy is as important as the act of claiming them through political organising. Besides it is important to identify which 'advocate role' fits best to the situation.

Advocacy planning is the development of an overall change strategy. It is, in fact, a long term plan that embodies a vision and reflects where you are, where you want to go and how you can get there. A medium term plan with activities aimed at influencing the policy environment and public opinion would be called a *campaign*. The campaign's activities are intended to achieve some of your advocacy strategy objectives. Short-term activities within a larger change strategy, designed for a specific moment and opportunity, are referred to as *tactics*, *actions* or *activities*. They could include research and media work to shape the campaign and capture the attention of people in power in relation to your issue. But short term or long term, effective advocacy results benefit from a well developed planning process.

Advocacy planning also of course involves impact assessment to monitor your impact, thus enabling you to change your strategy, campaign and/or activities as necessary.

Planning cycles
There are many ways to visualise and describe a planning cycle. One of these cycles is the cycle developed by WaterAid (Figure 5.2). Wageningen International has adapted the cycle by adding *adapting* and *monitoring*. It does not matter which planning cycle you use, you just need to be aware that you go through different phases; these phases mostly do not follow a chronological order: the phases might run in parallel but might even mean going one step forward and two steps back.

In a planning cycle, you always start up a certain process because of an issue, you then start to make a proper analysis of the situation, which includes a thorough analysis of the stakeholders involved, the problems or issues at stake and the cause and effect relations these issues or problems might have. Based on cause and effect mapping you will address the main issue(s) at stake to set your objectives and choose your strategy and set your 'targets'. Non-stop you have to go back and monitor, engage with stakeholders whether the developed strategy fits the problems and issues discussed. Maybe time has also caused new issues to come up or solved some of the problems you identified in the first

analysis. Monitoring and adapting remains a constant factor of attention, also for advocacy.

Planning as we learned from the past needs involvement of stakeholders, in fact planning is all about communication, especially listening and understanding. But when planning an *advocacy strategy*, effective communication is the focus of attention (e.g. how to communicate the necessity of applying the flyway approach to conservation) next to the main issue you want to address. An advocacy planning process therefore also requires a proper planning of the design of your message and the advocacy approach you will follow.

5.6.4 The advocacy planning cycle

The planning cycle below is the cycle we recommend for use during workshops that will support participants to develop a stepwise approach for developing an advocacy strategy for the application of the flyway approach to conservation. It will guide us through the different phases as described in the paragraphs above.

Figure 5.2 Planning cycle (source: WaterAid).

Using the planning cycle to develop an advocacy strategy: flyway approach considerations
The steps outlined in the planning cycle all contribute to the development of an advocacy planning strategy. We will now go through the different phases in the advocacy planning cycle and discuss the different steps of developing a strategy for Communicating the Flyway Approach (section 6).

However, it is first worth mentioning that the flyway approach to conservation does present some difficulties when applying these methods. This is because the issues, objectives, targets, messages, resources and approaches are needed at different parts of the flyway. Further, the allies and partnerships will need to be forged, perhaps simultaneously, in different countries, and the advocacy plan may need to be split into separate plans for different critical sites along the flyway.

Planning for conservation of the Sociable Lapwing
This is best illustrated by an example; let's look at the Sociable Lapwing *Vanellus gregarius*, a globally threatened declining migratory bird, which breeds on the Central Asian steppes (Figure 5.3). There are two populations, one which migrates through the Middle East and

Figure 5.3. A young Sociable Lapwing *Vanellus gregarius* that has been fitted with colour rings at its birth site in the steppes of Kazakhstan (source: Maxim Koshkin, ACBK).

Figure 5.4. Migratory routes of two Sociable Lapwings *Vanellus gregarius* from the breeding ground in Kazakhstan to non-breeding destination areas in Sudan (map: Johannes Camp).

spends the northern winter in north-eastern Africa, the other moving south-east to northern India and Pakistan. If we look at the population that visits Africa, it is known that some key issues affecting the conservation status of the lapwing include:

- Reduction in breeding habitat through conversion of grassy steppes into arable land
- Increasing aridity in Central Asia
- Disturbance in breeding area
- Hunting in the Middle East on migration

However, very little is known about the conservation status of the lapwings in Africa, where they mainly occur in Sudan and Eritrea. This lack of information is also an 'issue'. Objectives and targets can be set for these key issues; indeed a framework for action and measurable objectives are provided in the Single Species Action Plan for Sociable Lapwing (AEWA 2004, CD 4). However, range states are then encouraged to develop their own national action plans for the species, as clearly the activities needed will be very different in each area; there is no breeding in Africa, so no need to focus attention on protecting breeding habitat there or consulting with local people about nesting areas etc.

Some advocacy activities will need to take place at the international level; this in fact has been aided for the Sociable Lapwing by satellite tracking, whereby individual birds were tracked moving from Kazakhstan through the Middle East to Sudan, and back again to Kazakhstan (Figure 5.4). This provided incentives for advocacy at different levels, and encouraged communication between researchers in Sudan and Kazakhstan, for instance.

When looking through the advocacy strategy development process in chapter 6 it is thus important to think each of these steps might be achieved at a flyway level. For migratory birds, advocacy is needed at the site level, the national level and the whole flyway level.

Further resources

- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Advocacy'.*
- *Refer also to the various advocacy references listed at the end of this module.*
- *Sociable Lapwing Single Species Action Plan (AEWA 2004): http://www.unep-aewa.org/publications/technical_series/ts2_sociable_lapwing.pdf.*
- *Wings Over Wetlands project: www.wingsoverwetlands.org.*

6. Advocacy strategy development

Being strategic means:

- having a long-term vision
- building alliances
- having a goal- and action-oriented approach
- setting priorities
- having a logical consistency in unfolding elements of the strategy step-by-step
- managing activities, budgets and human resources systematically.

6.1 Introducing the 10 steps of advocacy strategy development

6.1.1 Lessons learned

There are many lessons learned in advocacy strategy development; some of them are well known:

- Plan the communication strategy ahead, taking research, continuous M&E (monitoring and evaluation), process documentation and an exit strategy seriously.
- Start locally at a modest level, and link issues raised, problems addressed and solutions proposed to existing trends, services and potentials.
- Make use of upstream compatibility of media, e.g. theatre, video, TV.
- Diversify the operational levels, e.g. local theatre, city newspaper, and national TV or radio
- Use participatory approaches in media production, management, training etc. to increase local ownership and credibility and, hence, programme effectiveness, significance and sustainability.

But how to use these lessons learned, apply best practices and develop them as a strategy? The 10 steps of advocacy strategy development as described below will serve as a guideline for 'Communicating the Flyway Approach to Conservation' and will support the application of lessons learned.

6.1.2 Introduction to the 10 steps

The 10 steps for advocacy strategy development are derived from the advocacy planning cycle. Each step also includes the description of tools, which will be applied to a certain extent during a workshop. The steps correspond to the phases in the cycle. The description of the steps shows also the corresponding phases of the planning process. Monitoring and Adaptation is very important for all the steps. As such the constant monitoring forces you to look back at all phases (and steps) you went through. Step 1 involves, for example, the identification of issues at stake. It goes without saying that also in Step 9 these issues have to be reflected again.

It is important to stress that step 7, 8 and 9 are the steps not taken into account in the advocacy planning cycle. These steps focus on the actual implementation of the action plan.

Step 10 evaluates the actual planning as well as the implementation process, whereas the last phase in the advocacy planning cycle focuses more on the preparation of a monitoring and evaluation plan.

6.2 The 10 steps of advocacy strategy development

The 10 steps of advocacy strategy development (adapted from GTZ's approach)

Stage 1 Assessment	1. Situation analysis, problem identification and analysis 2. Actors and the analysis of their Knowledge, Attitude and Practices 3. Setting objectives
Stage 2 Planning	4. Communication strategy development 5. Participation of strategic groups 6. Media selection and mix

Stage 3 Production	7. Message design 8. Media production and pretesting
Stage 4 Action and Reflection	9. Media performances and field implementation 10. Process documentation and Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E)

Stage 1 Assessment

6.2.1 Step 1: Situation analysis and problem identification

Step 1 Situation analysis and problem identification

The situation analysis, which includes a thorough stakeholder and problem analysis, is the starting point for a good advocacy planning design. It is the process of understanding the status, condition, trends and key issues affecting people and people's livelihoods, ecosystems or institutions in a given geographic context at any level (local, national, regional, international). Many lessons learned and applied techniques from Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) are extremely useful to carry out a situation analysis.

Question: Do you know any 'PRA' tools? Did you ever work with one or maybe more tools?

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation

- Ask participants which tools they know and whether they can explain the tool and why this tool is useful for situation analysis (which includes stakeholder analysis).
- Check http://portals.wi.wur.nl/msp for an overview of existing tools and methods other than PRA.
- The outcomes of the stakeholder analysis in Step1 can, at the same time, easily be combined with an analysis of Knowledge Attitudes Practices (KAP) of the actors or groups concerned (Step 2) and the formulation of situation specific communication objectives (Step 3).
- During a workshop (see Module 3 PowerPoints), situation analysis should be discussed in more detail, e.g. to illustrate how stakeholder analysis is part of situation analysis.

Tools for situation analysis and problem identification

Cause and effect mapping or problem tree

Purpose: To understand the contributing causes or reasons for a particular problem or issue, or to identify effects or impacts of a particular change.

Steps:

- Start by putting the topic – with a symbol, photograph or in words – in the centre of a group (on the ground or a large flip chart). To work well, the topic must be specific.
- Ask what happened as a result of that activity (or trend/event), both positive and negative. These consequences are noted as symbols or with words and placed on the diagram to show how cause and effect are linked, with arrows or lines.
- If quantitative information is needed, then questions can be asked about the amounts related to each impact that has been identified.
- You can also ask if the impact has been the same for everyone and symbolise that on the map, with different groups having their own symbols. Repeat the exercise with an agreed frequency.
- You can use past diagrams for comparison to generate a discussion on why changes might be occurring and how the rate of change is progressing.
- If several flow diagrams are made with different groups and aggregation is required, they can be compiled into a single diagram, which then forms the basis of discussion (e.g. as in Figure 6.1).

Results from the stakeholder analysis and problem identification can also be presented in the form of a problem tree, as in Figure 6.2, which shows a problem tree in relation to fish production.

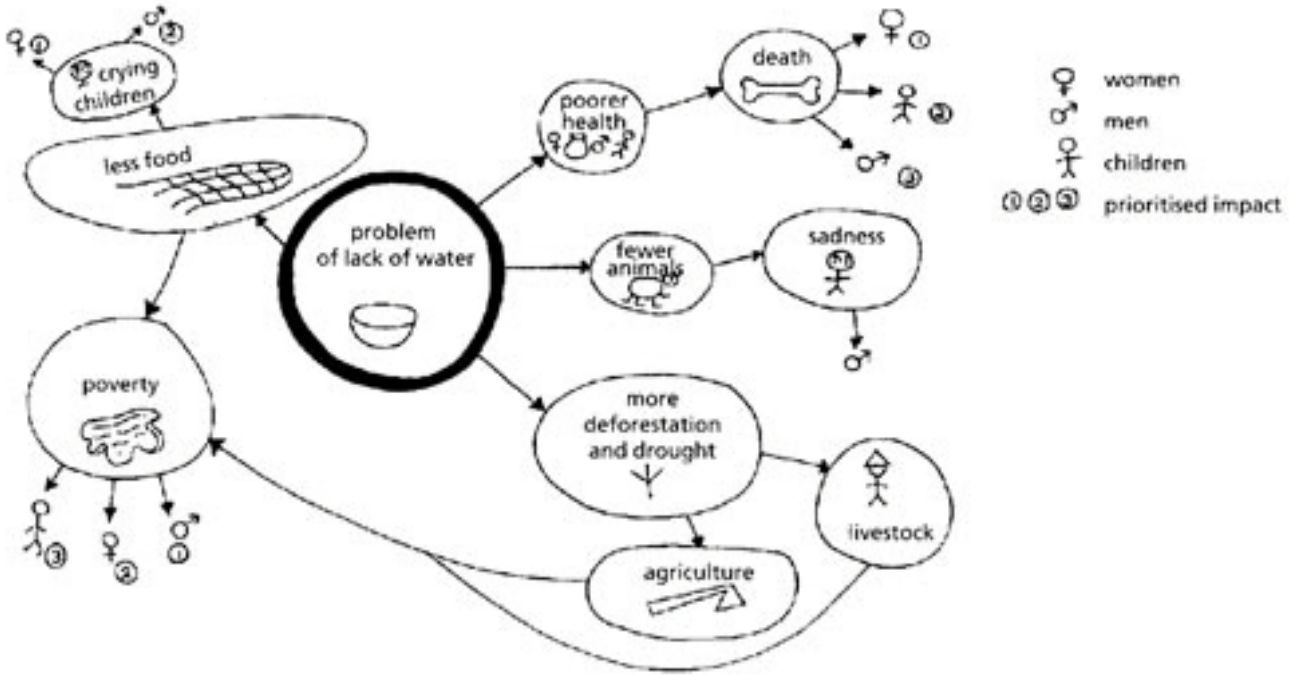


Figure 6.1 Example of a cause and effect flow diagram (source: IFAD).

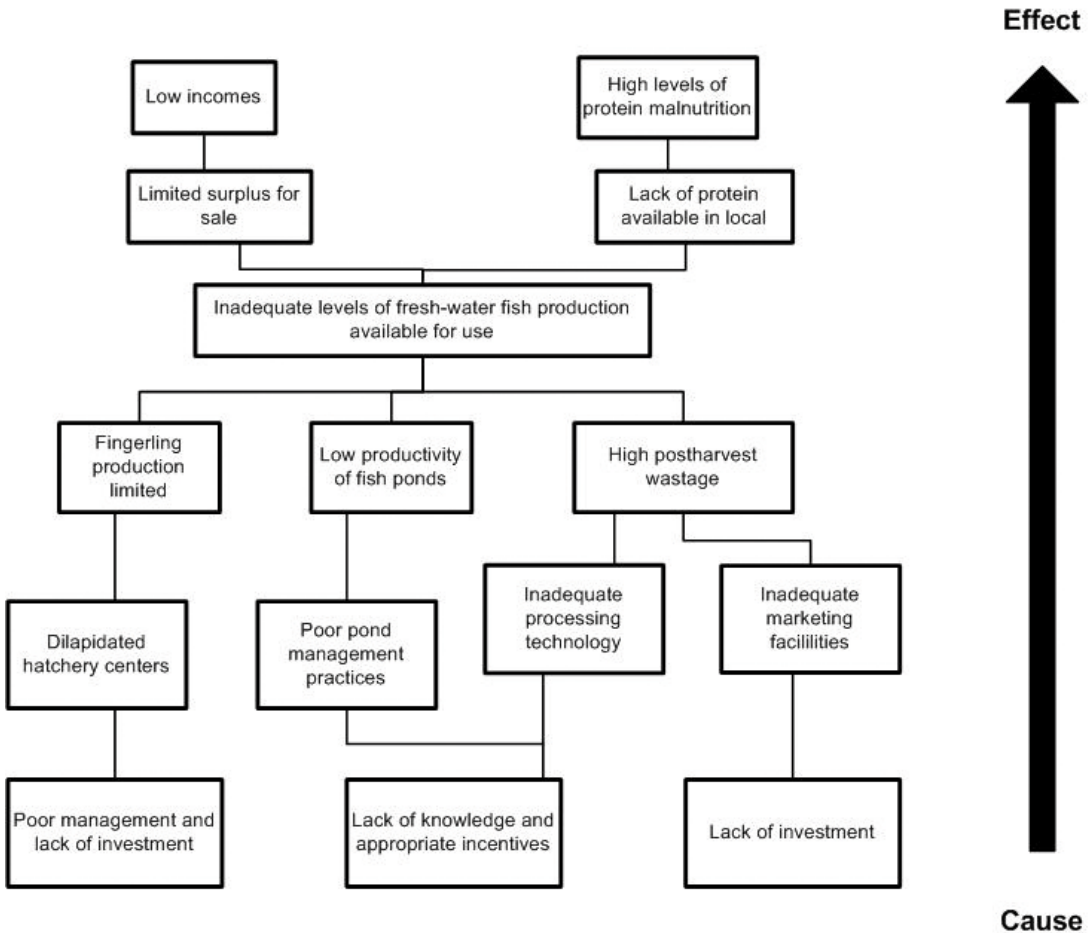


Figure 6.2 Example of a cause and effect problem tree in relation to fish production (Source: European Union).

Developing a problem tree for the Great White Pelican

Problem trees are also useful tools to use in the flyway approach to conservation, and this is illustrated though an example of the Great White Pelican *Pelecanus onocrotalus*. The Great White Pelican occurs across the AEWA region in four main populations (Figure 6.3). It is associated mainly with freshwater wetlands, though it is also found in brackish and coastal wetlands in some parts of its range. It feeds almost exclusively on fish, often by cooperative fishing. Pelicans breed in colonies, usually on islands free from predators, and they are gregarious in all stages of their life cycle, also having communal roosts (Figure 6.4). When two weeks old, young collect in crèches and after four weeks walk and swim freely.

Its conspicuous vulnerability and breeding habitat requirements make protection increasingly necessary for its survival. Northern populations are migratory, with many birds migrating through the northern Rift Valley, which forms a bottleneck. In some northern breeding sites, birds arrive when the wetlands are still partially frozen. In parts of Africa, birds move and breed rather irregularly, mainly in response to water level changes.

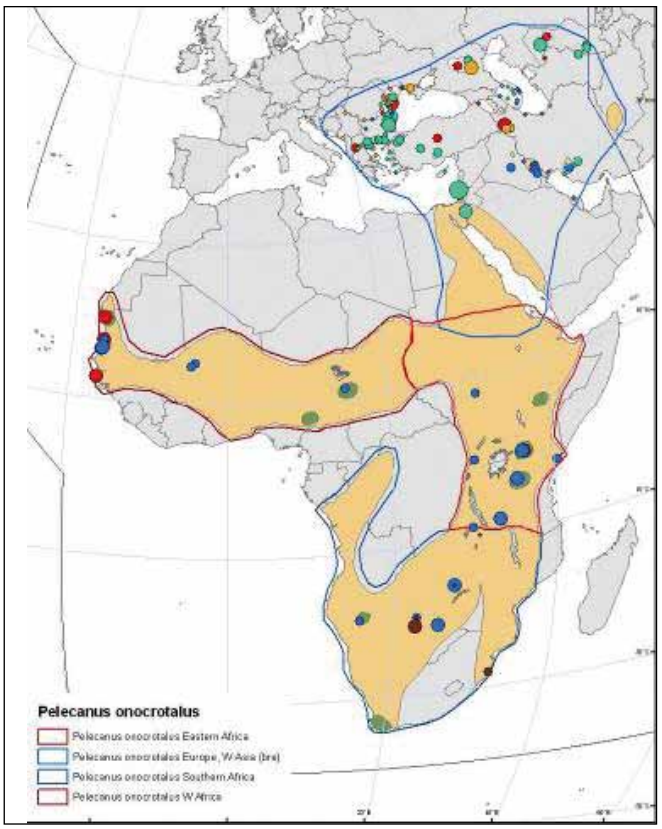


Figure 6.3 Distribution of the Great White Pelican *Pelecanus onocrotalus* in the AEWA region.

Figure 6.4 Great White Pelicans *Pelecanus onocrotalus* at a communal roost near their breeding site at Djoudj, Senegal; pelicans are excellent at soaring, and use this flight method especially on migration (source: Wetlands International Africa Office).

The main threats are habitat destruction, depletion of food supplies, electric power lines, persecution and disturbance. Pollution, flooding, disease, etc. could also have devastating effects especially given typically large colonies. It is sensitive to disturbance, and easily abandons breeding colonies after having been disturbed. Implementation of efficient wardening is urgently needed for many breeding colonies. It is a protected species in all countries of the Western Palearctic, where it has continuously declined since the first half of the nineteenth century.

Based on this background information, and drawing on other sources, we can develop a problem tree for the Great White Pelican, as shown in Figure 6.5. The main problem identified is the 'declining population of the Great White Pelican'. This refers to an overall decline in the global numbers of birds. The causes of decline are shown below the problem, whilst the effects are shown above it. We will use this example later on in converting the problem tree into an objectives tree and in selecting an advocacy strategy.

Further information on the Great White Pelican is available in the BirdLife Species Fact Sheet: http://www.birdlife.org/datazone/species/index.html?action=SpcHTMDetails.asp&sid=3809&m=0. Information on all migratory waterbirds in the AEWA region can also be accessed via the Critical Site Network Tool: http://development-maps.unep-wcmc.org/wow/Default.aspx.

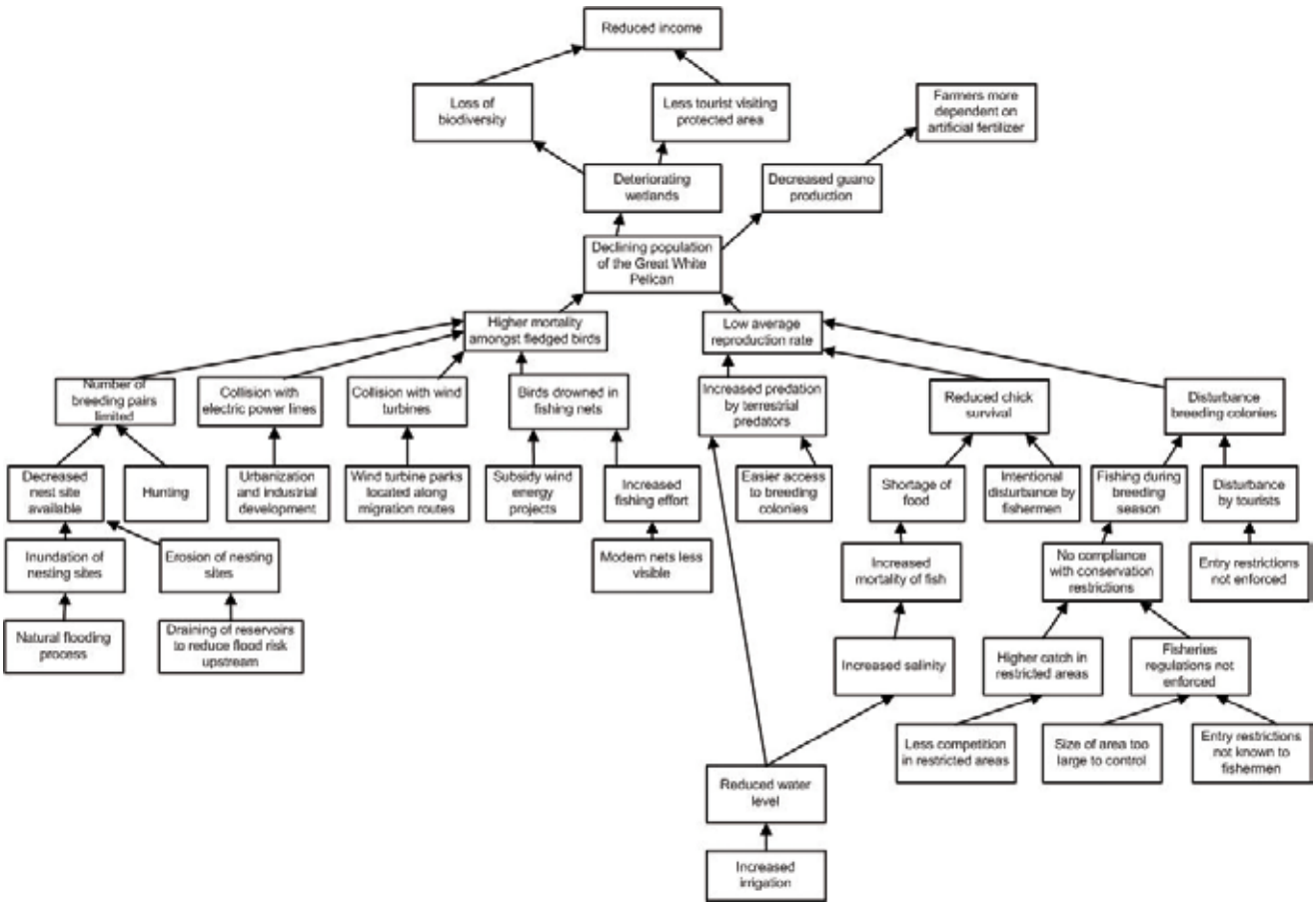


Figure 6.5 Hypothetical example showing a Problem Tree for a declining population of the Great White Pelican *Pelecanus onocrotalus*.

Tools for stakeholder analysis

Stakeholder analysis matrix

Adapted ***stakeholder analysis matrix*** (Figure 6.6) used as part of the Goal Oriented Project Planning (GOPP):

Stakeholder group	Characteristics	Interests	Problems faced	.....	.....
e.g. - Ministry of… - Community x around wetland y - Researchers ...	What are important features of the stakeholder group (e.g. governmental, NGO etc.)?	Which interests does the stakeholder group have?	Please relate to your problem tree and check which problems specifically are related to that stakeholder group.	Other issues related to stakeholder group important regarding the existing situation.	…

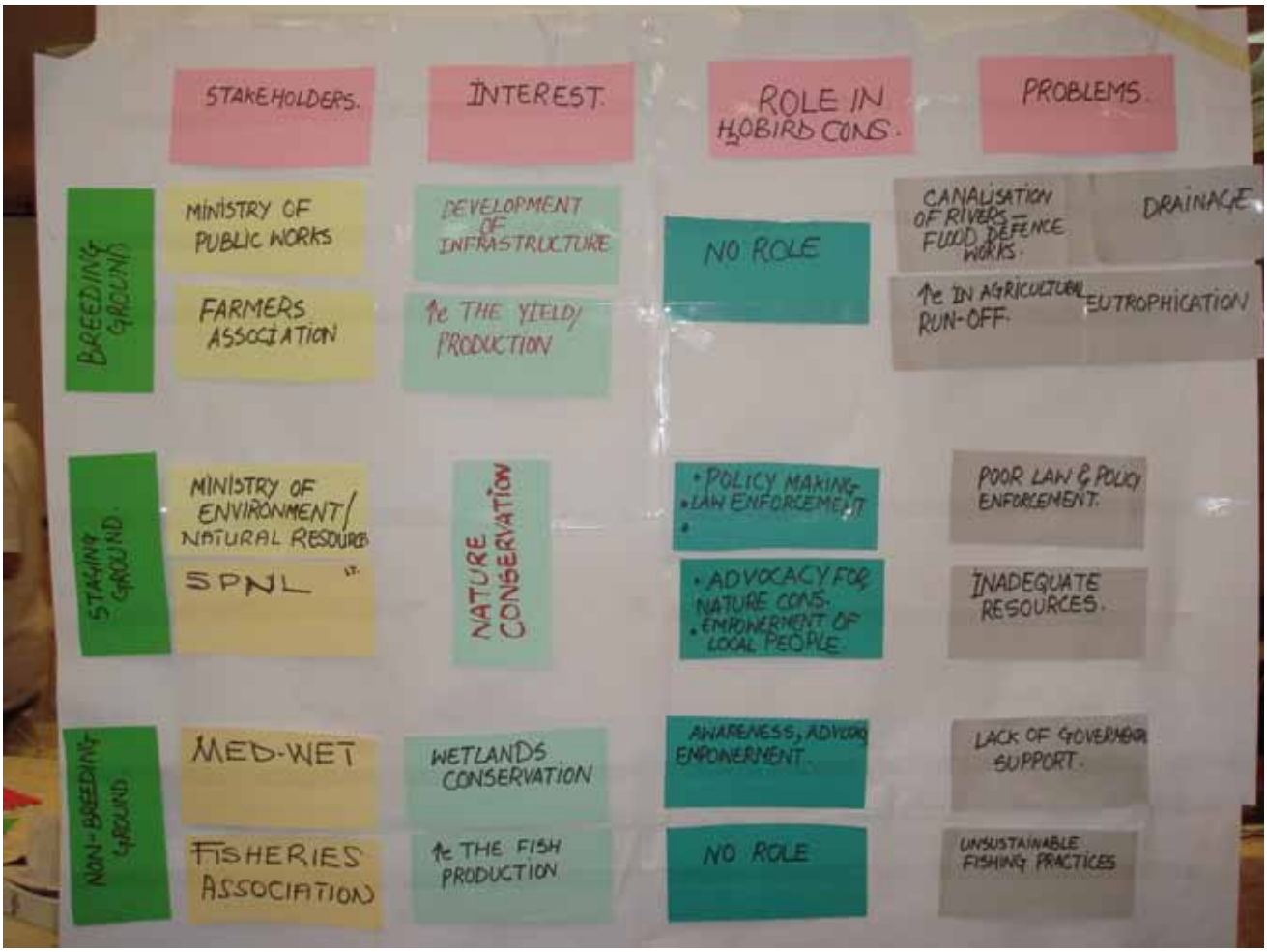


Figure 6.6 Stakeholder matrix of the flyway of the Ferruginous Duck *Aythya nyroca* (photo: Ingrid Gevers).

Venn diagram

Purpose: A Venn diagram shows those individuals or organisations that are important with regard to the main problem identified. It illustrates how these stakeholder groups interact with each other or overlap and the influence/ power of each, to the issue being evaluated.

Construction of the Venn diagram:

- The border of the rectangle shows the issue at stake.
- The circles inside the rectangle represent the stakeholder groups that are important to involve with regard to the issue; not just 'important' stakeholders (because who decides who is important?), but stakeholders that are having an impact on the issue or are affected by the issue).
- The size of the circle shows the influence/ power that stakeholders have regarding the issue: the larger the circle, the larger the influence.

These are illustrated in the simple diagram below and through an example from the Iraqi Marshlands developed during a United Nations training workshop in 2005 (Figure 6.7).

Example of a Venn diagram

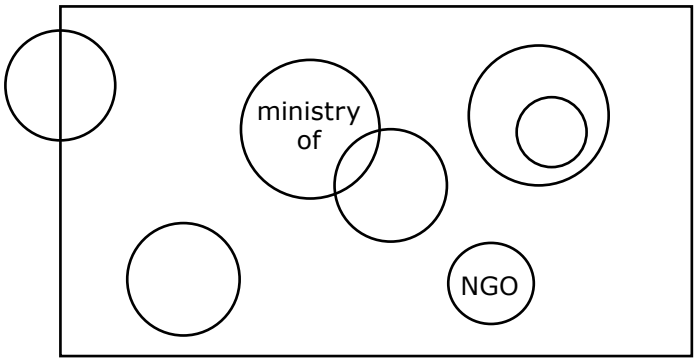


Figure 6.7. A Venn diagram used to illustrate stakeholders for the Iraqi Marshlands (photo: Tim Dodman).

6.2.2 Step 2: Actor Analysis

Step 2 Actor analysis - Knowledge, Attitude and Practices analysis

Step 2 is actually part of stakeholder analysis, as given in Step 1. Step 1 includes a thorough analysis of the stakeholders (their characteristics, interests, problems they face, resources they have, the power or influence they have etc.). However in advocacy planning it is important to focus a bit more on the knowledge stakeholders have, their attitudes and skills they possess; this is the focus of Step 2.

Question: Why is it important in advocacy planning to analyse Knowledge, Skills and Attitude?

Said does not mean **heard**
Heard does not mean **understood**
Understood does not mean **accepted**
And **accepted** does not yet mean **done**

Taking the flyway approach as an example: Actors might be aware of the flyway approach, but the aim is that some of the actors are able to apply this approach. To change people's practices or skills, raising awareness about the flyway approach is not enough. An assessment of people's knowledge, attitude and skills is essential to see how to move forward from awareness to adoption. At the same time the communication strategy needs to be tailored to the existing gaps or needs.

We go back to the problem tree and see whether the problems identified are related to a lack of knowledge or skills, or whether a change in attitude is needed.

Tool for Knowledge, Attitude and Skills assessment

The problem tree provides the basis for a useful tool focused on Knowledge, Attitude and Skills – the KAP survey (Knowledge, Attitude and Practices survey). This is best illustrated by using an example. Based on a problem tree focused on river pollution, we will assess which problems are related to a lack of knowledge or skills, and which problems require a change in attitude (Figure 6.7, Table 6.1).

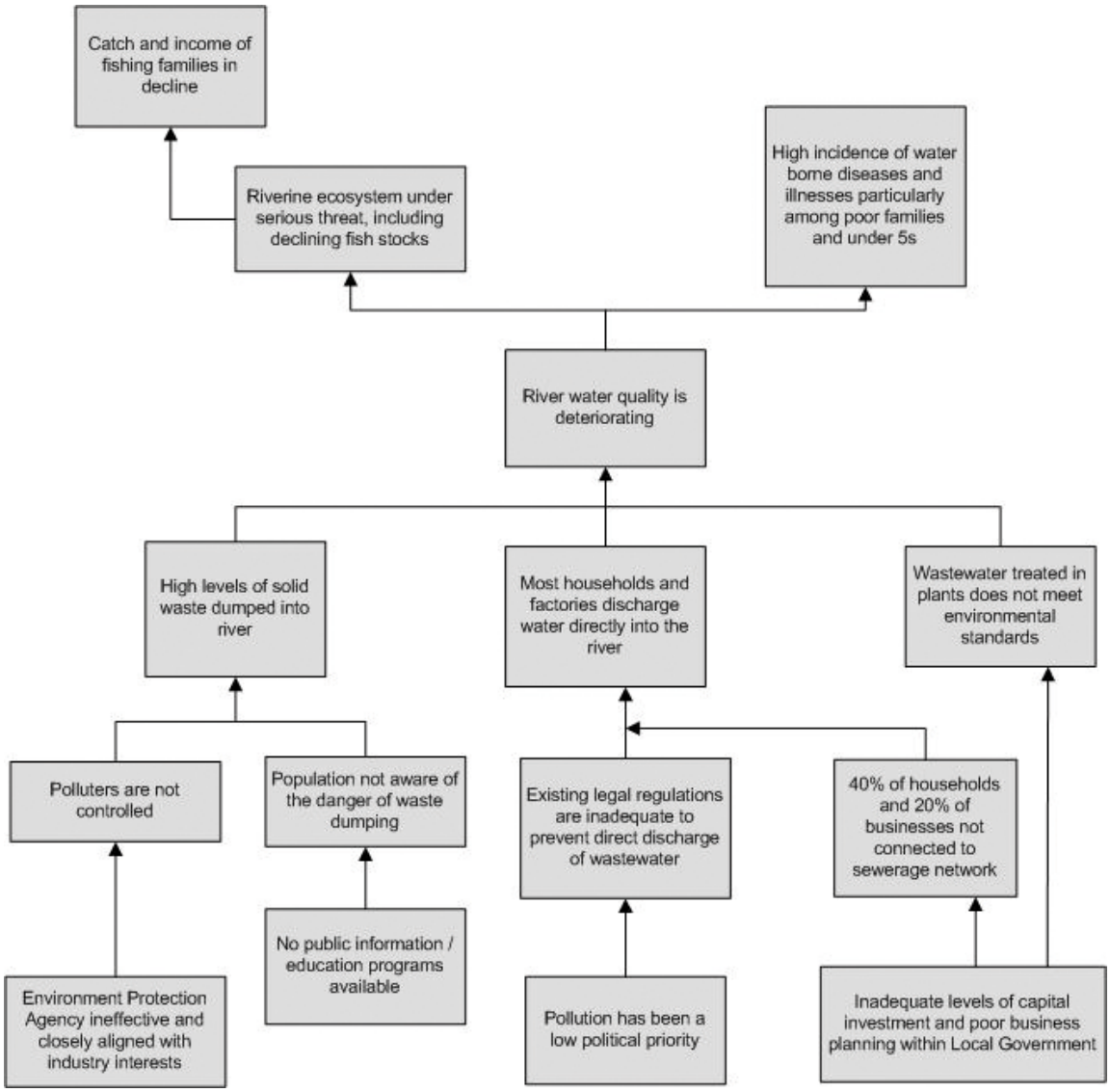


Figure 6.8 A problem tree based on river pollution (source: European Union 2004).

Table 6.1 Example KAP survey

Problems identified by the situation analysis (examples!)	Problem identified related to KAP (examples!)	Problem related to
• Most households and factories directly discharge wastewater into the river.	• There is low awareness of the high environmental impact of direct wastewater discharge in the river on the whole basin (including its wetlands).	KNOWLEDGE
• Farmers spray pesticides in their agricultural fields in the buffer zone of the wetland.	• Farmers spray pests based on their 'natural instinct'.	ATTITUDE
• School curricula are old fashioned and do not integrate environmental care.	• School curricula are not adapted by teachers.	SKILLS

6.2.3 Step 3: Setting objectives

Step 3 Setting objectives

A communication objective describes an intended result rather then the process of communication itself. In 'Communicating the Flyway Approach', the communication objective will be specific to the flyway approach. Communication objectives should be very specific and aimed at increasing knowledge, influencing attitudes and eventually changing practices.

Awareness: Basic information about the new idea and how others use it.
Interest: The innovation to be applied to personal values and life style.
Trial: Preliminary attempts to practice the innovation and evaluate its usefulness and impact.
Adoption: Acceptance and commitment to a change in practice.

Within a project life cycle of an innovation, from awareness to adoption communicators or advocates distinguish the following categories: early innovators (10%), early majority (30%), late majority (40%), laggards (20%). This is a fact you have to deal with, but there are tools that will help to make objectives acceptable. In the first place it is important to develop the problem tree or issue analysis map with all stakeholders. This problem tree will be translated into an objectives tree.

Be aware!
It should be pointed out that ***communication objectives*** are ***not*** usually the same as the project or programme goals which are expected to be the ultimate result of the whole communication strategy ***plus*** other supporting outputs. The achievement of the communication objectives is necessary, but not a sufficient condition for achieving the project or programme goals. Hence, communication objectives should:

- Reflect the conservation policy, programme or project goals;
- Respond to the needs of the programme and its target audience; and
- Help to solve the problems encountered in achieving such goals.

In Step 2 we introduced a KAP analysis; this is now used to set the objectives for the advocacy strategy. In fact you 'translate' your advocacy problem tree into an advocacy objectives tree.

Figure 6.9 A rich picture showing a vision of how the Iraqi Marshlands might be in the future (photo: Tim Dodman).

Figure 6.10 Drafting a rich picture for the Ferruginous Duck *Aythya nyroca* (photo: Ingrid Gevers).

Tools for setting objectives

Visioning

Purpose: To develop a shared vision of what a group would like the outcome of a project or evaluation exercise to be.

Visioning helps people think creatively and let go of immediate problems. It is also a way of finding common ground between conflicting interests. Tools for visioning include developing a ***rich picture*** or ***guided dreaming***. These tools can be used, for instance, to pictorially present a vision of how a wetland might function in an ideal situation (or in the future) and how it might be impacted by threats or conflicting uses. Examples of rich pictures are provided in Figures 6.9 and 6.10. See also Module 2 Figures 3.30 and 3.35.

Objectives tree

Analysis of objectives is a methodological approach employed to:

- Describe the situation in the future once identified problems have been remedied;
- Verify the hierarchy of objectives; and
- Illustrate the means-ends relationships in a diagram.

The negative situations of the 'problem tree' are converted into solutions, expressed as 'positive achievements'. You could describe this conversion as the translation of the problem tree into an objectives tree. This is best illustrated through an example. Here, the river pollution problem tree (Figure 6.8) is translated into an objectives tree. As mentioned earlier, the communication objectives are not usually the same as the project

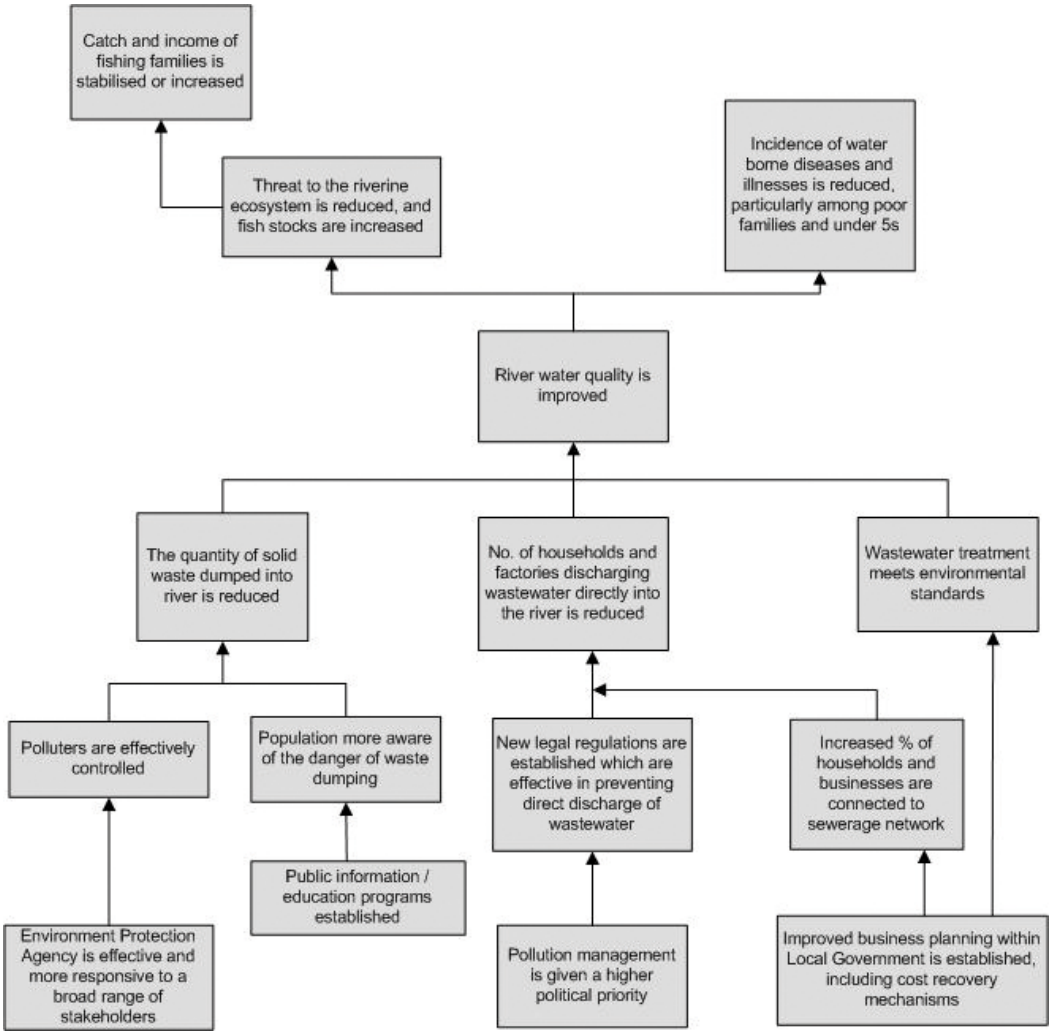


Figure 6.11 River pollution objectives tree; this is based on the river pollution problem tree (Figure 6.8), with 'problems' turned into 'objectives', e.g. the problem 'polluters are not controlled' results in the objective 'polluters are effectively controlled' (source: European Union 2004).

or programme goals, which are expected to be the ultimate result of the whole communication strategy plus other supporting outputs. This means your communication or advocacy objectives are supposed to *support* the overall programme or project. Figure 6.11 shows the translation of the river pollution problem tree into an objectives tree.

Setting SMART objectives

Objectives have to be formulated according to SMART principles: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant/Realistic and Time bound (or Timely or Time-bound). This means that the descriptions of both project/programme and communication objectives need to be made comprehensive and specific and reflect the actual scope of the programme. SMART in more detail:

- **Specific: *What exactly are we going to do, with or for whom?*** The programme states a specific outcome, or a *precise* objective to be accomplished. The outcome is stated in numbers, percentages, frequency, reach, scientific outcome, etc. The objective is clearly defined.
- **Measurable: *Is it measurable, can we measure it?*** This means that the objective can be measured and the measurement source is identified. If the objective cannot be measured, the question of funding non-measurable activities (of a project) is discussed and considered relative to the size of the investment. All activities should be measurable at some level.
- **Achievable: *Can we get it done in the proposed timeframe/in this political climate/for this amount of money?*** The objective or expectation of what will be accomplished must be realistic given the market conditions, time period, resources allocated, etc.
- **Relevant: *Will this objective lead to the desired results?*** This means that the outcome or results of the programme directly supports the outcomes of the agency or funder's long range plan or goal (of a project).
- **Time-framed: *When will this objective be accomplished?*** This means stating clearly when the objective will be achieved.

Now, how to formulate such a SMART objective? Below is an example of a good way to formulate your objective:

> By ../../.... [WHEN] , ... [WHO/ WHAT, include a number that you can measure] will have ....., [HOW, WHY (remember to specify results)].

Now we go back to our KAP analysis to set SMART objectives for the problems we want to address for advocacy, and in this way we are able to develop our advocacy strategy. For this we will use the example of the case study of the Great White Pelican again. We start first with translating our problem tree into an objectives tree to see which targets need to be reached in general. Then we check again which problems are related to a lack of knowledge and skills of a certain target group and whether at the same time there might be a need for a change of attitude.

Great White Pelican Objectives Tree

We already know the problem tree for the Great White Pelican, as shown in Figure 6.5. We now have to 'translate' the problem tree into an objectives tree, which can then form the basis for the development of SMART objectives (Figure 6.12).

Great White Pelican KAP survey

In order to develop our Advocacy Plan we need to identify how problems identified relate to the lack of knowledge and skills of a certain target group or whether some problems need a change in attitude of a target group. Of course some problems might require new skills or knowledge as well as a change in attitude. However, try to be as specific as possible!

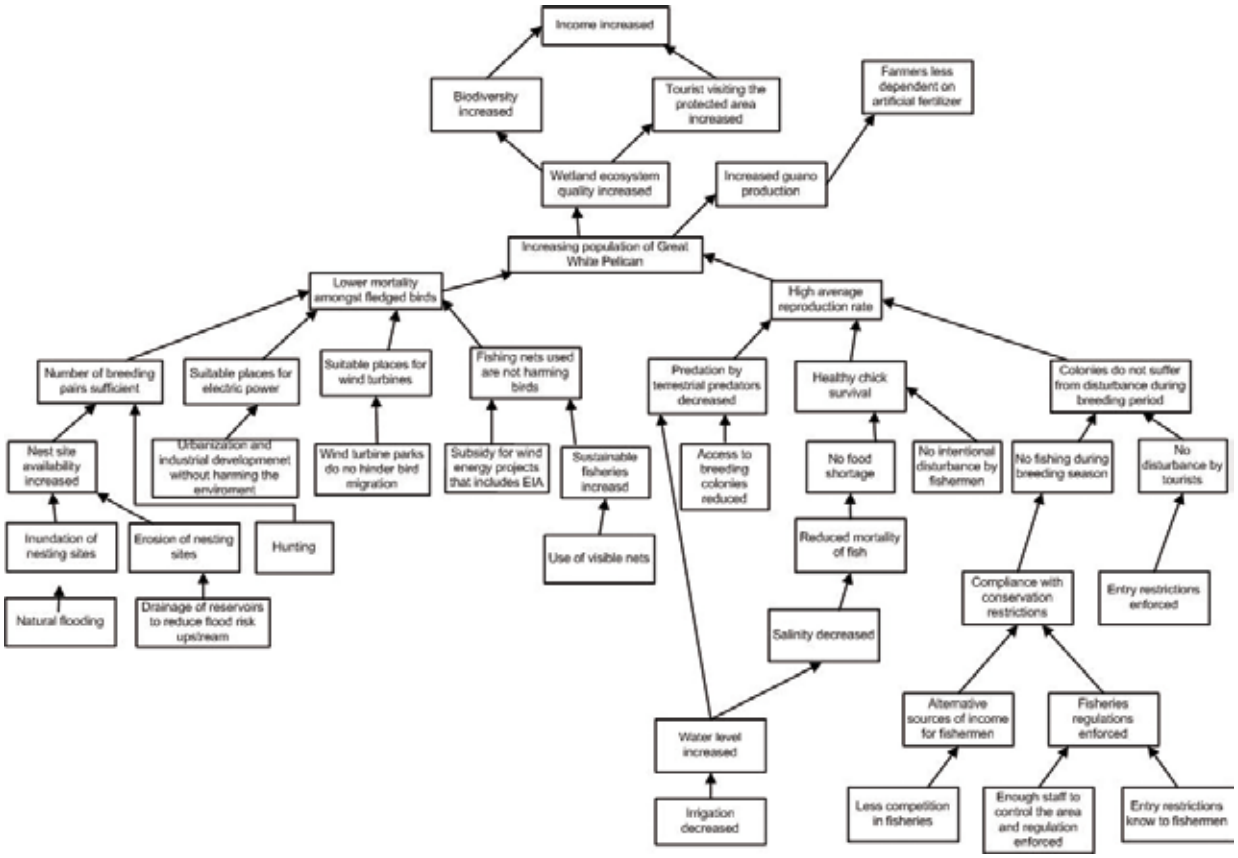


Figure 6.12 Objectives Tree based on the hypothetical example of the Problem Tree for a declining population of the Great White Pelican *Pelecanus onocrotalus* (Figure 6.5).

Table 6.2 Advocacy objectives developed through a KAP analysis for the Great White Pelican

Problem identified out of the situation analysis (examples!)	Problem identified related to KAP (examples!)	Problem related to	Advocacy objectives
• Increasing number of wind energy projects along migration route.	• There is low awareness on the migration routes of the Great White Pelican.	KNOWLEDGE	**Objective 1:** By August 2010 85% of the policy makers understand the exact migration routes of the Great White Pelican and the importance to protect these routes. **Objective 2:** By September 2010 all Environmental Impact Assessments include longer term observation periods of migration routes which are not biased by investors' interests.
• Fishermen fish in restricted areas where Great White Pelicans breed.	• Fishermen focus on short term benefits.	ATTITUDE	**How would you formulate a SMART objective that addresses attitude?**
• Increased dependency of farmers on artificial fertilisers.	• Farmers do not apply good agricultural practices	SKILLS	By December 2010 at least 20% of the farmers along the White Pelican migration route apply good agricultural practices.

Stage 2 Planning

At this point, enough baseline data on problems, needs, actors, project and communication objectives are available to put all information in a context. The effectiveness of an environmental communication strategy depends very much on its planning which should be specific and systematic.

Strategic planning reflects the beneficiaries' identified problems and needs and the way information, education, training and communication will be used in solving such problems or meeting the needs. Such a plan must outline the management actions to be taken in implementing the strategy. Strategic planning can be operationally defined simply as the best possible use of available and/or limited resources, i.e. time, funds and staff to achieve the greatest returns or pay-off, i.e. outcome, results or impact.

Planning has to include ***strategy planning*** i.e. what to do and ***management planning*** i.e. how to make it happen

The process of developing a strategic advocacy plan can be divided into two major parts. The first part is the process of strategy development planning which comprises the first eight steps of the communication strategy as outlined above, i.e. up to and including message design, media production and pretesting. The second part is the process of management planning. When a plan for a strategy is completed, it must be translated into action. At that stage, the task of a communication planner shifts from strategy development to management planning. Even though these steps will not be implemented until later, they need to be planned at this stage.

6.2.4 Step 4: Communication strategy development

Step 4 Communication strategy development

During the process of stakeholder analysis, problem analysis and the identification of potential objectives, views on the potential merits or difficulties associated with addressing problems in different ways will have been discussed. These issues and options then need to be more fully scrutinized to help determine the likely scope of the project before more detailed design work is undertaken. The type of questions that need to be asked and answered at this stage include:

- Should all the identified problems and/or objectives be tackled, or a selected few?
- What are the positive opportunities that can be built on (e.g. from the SWOT analysis)?
- What is the combination of interventions that are most likely to bring about the desired results and promote sustainability of benefits?
- How is local ownership of the project best supported, including development of the capacity of local institutions?
- What are the likely capital and recurrent cost implications of different possible interventions, and what can realistically be afforded?
- What is (are) the most cost effective option(s)?
- Which strategy will impact most positively on addressing the needs of the poor and other identified vulnerable groups?
- How can potentially negative environmental impacts best be mitigated or avoided?
- …
- …

To move forward from the analytical stage into the 'real' planning stage is in some respect the most difficult and challenging, as it involves synthesising a significant amount of information and then making a complex judgment about the best implementation strategy (or strategies) to pursue. In practice a number of compromises often have to be made to balance different stakeholder interests, political demands and practical constraints such as the likely resource availability.

Nevertheless, the task is made easier if there is an agreed set of criteria against which to assess the merits of different intervention options.

Key criteria for strategy selection could include:

- Expected contribution to key policy objectives, such as poverty reduction or economic integration.
- Benefits to target groups - including women and men, young and old, disabled and able, etc.
- Complementarity with other ongoing or planned programmes or projects.
- Capital and operating cost implications, and local ability to meet recurrent costs.
- Financial and economic cost-benefit.
- Contribution to institutional capacity building.
- Technical feasibility.
- Environmental impact.

Tools for communication strategy development

Although we would like to address all problems identified, in most cases project budgets force us to make choices: we have to select which strategy to go for. Back to the objectives trees again - identify for your own situation which criteria are relevant to take into account when defining and choosing your strategy. In other words, which branch of the objectives tree will provide most benefits according to your list of criteria? (Criteria might be time, costs, sustainability etc.). As such you may choose for a 'wastewater strategy' or a 'solid waste strategy' regarding the tree in Figure 6.13.

For the case study of the Great White Pelican, the strategy might focus on the branch dealing with 'the mortality of fledged birds' or the 'reproduction rate', as selected in Figure 6.14.

Be aware that your criteria for strategy selection for the overall programme or project might not always result in selecting the strategy that you could actually have most influence with your advocacy or communication team. Still, influence/impact through advocacy is often seen as a very important criterion!

For example, your advocacy team might have chosen to focus on the 'reproduction rate' branch, because reflecting on the objectives formulated during the KAP analysis phase, they agreed that increasing awareness and knowledge of fishermen will have a good chance to reach the 'high average reproduction rate' objective. Overall it might still be decided (based on certain selection criteria) to focus on the branch of 'mortality amongst fledged birds'.

Once the overall strategy has been decided, then it is important what communication strategy to choose per objective.

The KAP results of Step 2 need to be used for planning and developing a communication strategy. Under Step 3 we came up with Table 6.2. This matrix should of course include all problems identified; we just took out three problems as an example.

Assuming that our project cannot address all the issues identified (usually caused by financial boundaries or time limits), a cluster or branch of objectives needs to be selected as the project focus; in the Great White Pelican example we will choose the one dealing with 'lower mortality'. For one of the advocacy objectives (Objective 1), the related strategies have been scored or ranked in Table 6.3.

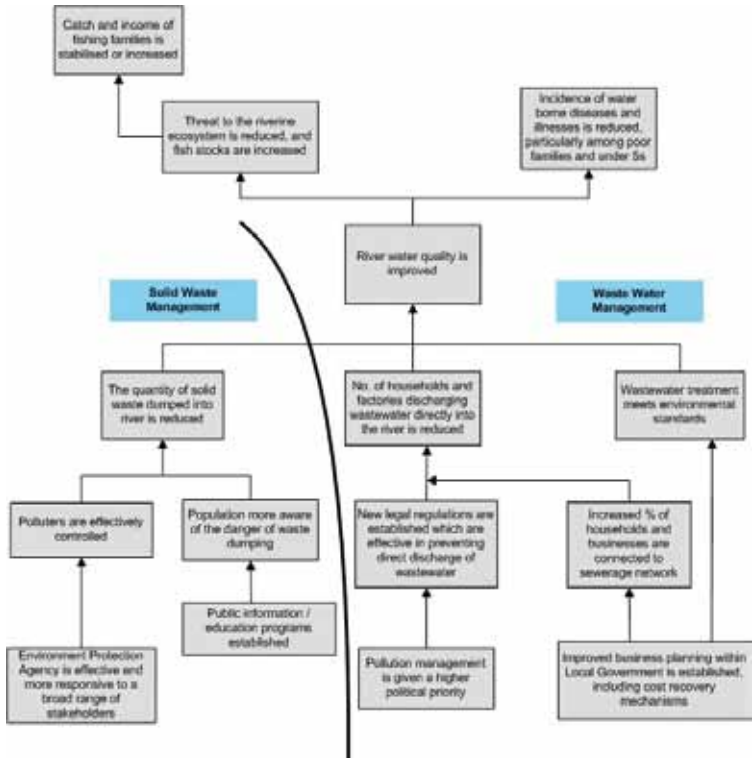


Figure 6.13 Selecting a strategy from the objectives tree for river water quality (Figure 6.11) by focusing on different sets of objectives. The strategy to the left of the line is a 'solid waste strategy', whilst to the right of the line is a 'wastewater strategy' (source: European Union 2004).2004).

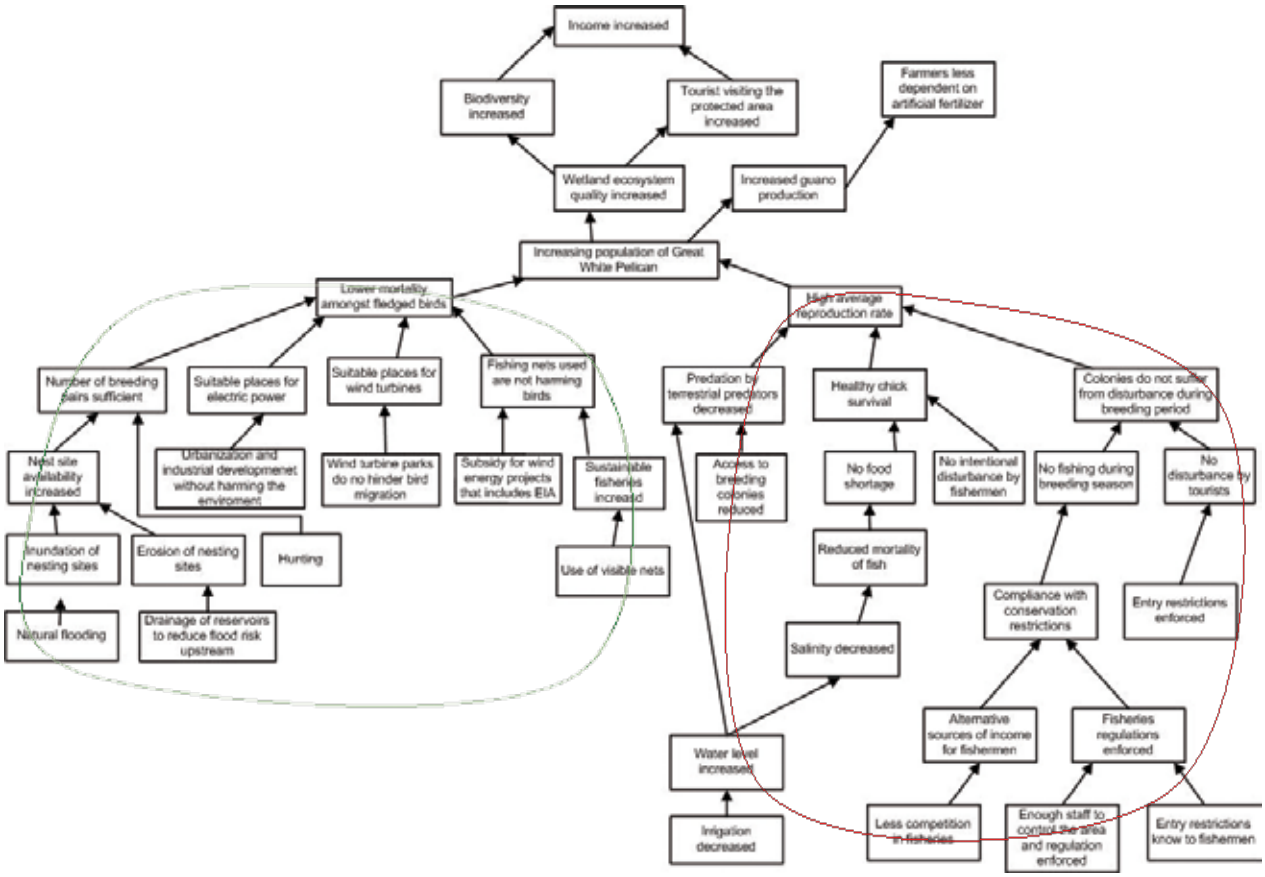


Figure 6.14 Selecting a strategy leading to an increasing population of the Great White Pelican *Pelecanus onocrotalus*.

Table 6.3 Ranking strategies for Objective 1 of the Great White Pelican example

Objective	**Target group**	**What do they know about the issue (K)**	**What is their attitude (A)**	**What skills could they contribute (P)**	**Their real Priorities (Interests)**	**Influence in decision making**
Objective 1: By August 2010 85% of the policy makers understand the exact migration routes of the Great White Pelican and the importance to protect these routes.	Policy makers	They know little about the impact of wind turbines	Probably willing to adapt their behaviour although they might see only the short term benefits	Not applicable	Economic development	Very influential
Required action:		Awareness campaign, Training programmes, Lobbying	Awareness campaign, Training programmes, Lobbying	N/A		
Required action and expected impact:						
Awareness campaign		High	Medium	N/A		
Training programme		Low	Low	N/A		
Lobbying		Medium	Medium	N/A		

Instead of High, Medium and Low, you could also choose to use numbers to show the impact per strategy.

6.2.5 Step 5: Participation of strategic groups

Step 5 Participation of strategic groups

Going back to your stakeholder analysis and checking whether you are still involving the right stakeholders is an important part of your monitoring. Besides, maybe you can make allies with those in power.

The participation of strategic groups is a crucial element in the development of an advocacy strategy, because people will not change their environmentally relevant practices if they do not have a say in planning, implementing and evaluating the action for change. That is why it should be considered as an individual step in the mainstream of the entire process. But, like planning or evaluation, participation should be a continuous, not a one-shot effort. The keyword here is ownership. It should be taken literally in terms of media products and communication processes not for or about people but with and by the people themselves.

This procedure safeguards project or programme sustainability and achieves the media mix that is best suited to the socio-cultural circumstances. It is difficult to 'own' TV, video, or radio because of the financial, technical and skills levels involved. It is much easier to 'own' a people's theatre production or other community media that are managed and produced by local means and geared towards local ends. This does not imply, however, that participation should be constrained to the local media, because strategic alliances with mass media should be strengthened.

Participation of all stakeholders throughout analysis, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation is essential.

Be aware!
Participation also leads to partnerships, alliances and even short-term coalitions, which can greatly enhance advocacy by bringing together the strengths and resources of diverse groups to create a more powerful force for change.

Whichever form the collaboration takes, some key factors must be taken into account or the partnership will fail. The most important of these is transparency: it is vital that each of the partners in the alliance or network understand the others' objectives, even if they do not share them fully. It is also necessary for the various groups to share a common purpose or overall goal, so that there is some common ground between them, even if the techniques and approach differ.

6.2.6 Step 6: Media selection and mix

Step 6 Media selection and mix

The effectiveness of a communication strategy largely depends on the ability of its messages to catch the attention of and be understood by the target audience. Therefore, messages must be designed to suit the specific characteristics, educational and intellectual horizon and the aspirations of each group of intended beneficiaries; (refer also to session 1, personal learning styles). Also, messages should fit the media selected; this is why they should not be formulated early on in the strategy development. (Also reflect again that a message has not been communicated unless the message has been received).

Urban populations are especially burdened with an 'information overload', so messages need to be strategically 'positioned' so that they 'stand out' from the others. They might otherwise not be noticed even though they are relevant and useful to the target audience.

The media selected should be appropriate to the audiences':
- information-seeking habits;
- preferred information sources;
- media access;
- media consumption patterns;
- communication networks; and
- group communication behaviour.

<u>*A general approach to multi-media selection*</u>
<u>Select and use a medium:</u>
- for a single or specific purpose rather than for different goals;
- that has a unique characteristic or particular advantage which is useful to accomplish a specific purpose;
- which the target audience is already familiar with and has access to;
- which can easily accommodate 'localised' messages;
- that can be locally developed, produced and

operationally supported;
- that complements and reinforces others used in the same strategy while offering distinct functional strengths and emphases.

Be aware!
- No medium is effective for all purposes or target beneficiaries;
- A communication strategy usually has various information, educational and communication objectives;
- Different media and communication channels complement and reinforce each other;
- Strategic planning means to select 'which medium or combination of media should be used for what purpose by whom in order to deliver which specific messages to whom'.

Multi-media mix
Experience and research show that using a combination of mass, group and interpersonal communication is most cost-effective (Eschborn 1999).

Tools for media selection

Brainstorm the different media that can be used to reach your objective and outline the appropriateness of the media for each target group.

Some of the most common media tools used for advocacy are:
- Meetings
- Negotiation
- Project visits/demonstrations
- TV
- Radio
- Drama/theatre
- Audio cassettes
- Reports
- Letter writing
- Leaflets and news sheets
- Video
- Slides
- Press
- Posters
- Email/Internet

Question: For communicating the flyway approach, which media seem most appropriate in your region?

For weighing pros and cons of the selected advocacy media the following matrix below could be useful (Table 6.4). The matrix is most effective when used per objective (and the related strategy that you have chosen to reach the objective, e.g. awareness raising) and for one target group only.

Table 6.4 Matrix for weighing pros and cons of selected advocacy media

Pros and Cons of selected advocacy tools					
	Potential to reach target group	Potential number of people reached	Cost- effectiveness	Participatory potential	...Any other criteria that are important to take into account
Radio					
Slides					
Interpersonal meetings					
Posters					
Etc.					

Stage 3 Production

6.2.7 Step7: Message design

Step 7 Message design

Referring to the section of communication, we mentioned already that a message has not been communicated unless it has been received by the sender. You could at the same time say message effectiveness is a function of the reward the message offers and the effort required to interpret it. Hence, the effectiveness of a communication strategy largely depends on the ability of its messages to catch the attention and understanding of the target audience.

For the message to be successful, it should follow the ***KISS AIDA*** principle that is often used in social marketing: ***Keep It Short*** and ***Simple*** in order to catch the audience's ***Attention***, raise its ***Interest*** and instigate ***Desire*** that will lead to ***Action*** in relation with a desirable sustainable practice. These points of orientation are derived from well-established findings from development communication and rural sociology: Any change process follows a pattern from awareness via interest and trial to adoption or rejection. In addition, the

information should also be accessible, accurate, verifiable, complete, timely, and relevant.

Tools for message design

Media – Message – Audience Checklist

A Media – Message – Audience Checklist is a simple but useful tool for capturing the key features of different media types, as illustrated in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5 A Media – Message – Audience Checklist for the Great White Pelican example

Media Type	Main message	To reach objective...	For whom (which stakeholder group)
Poster	For a bright future for our Pelicans – keep them breeding	By 2010, 80% of the tourists visiting the wetlands will not enter restricted breeding areas.	Tourists
Video			
Sticker			
Etc.			

6.2.8 Step 8: Media production and pretesting

Step 8 Media production and pretesting

Messages should be pre-tested carefully per media and per target beneficiary, especially visual information for (semi-) illiterate beneficiaries, also for cost- and time-saving reasons.

Stage 3 Action and Reflection

6.2.9 Step 9: Media performances and field implementation

Step 9 Media performances and field implementation

This is the point in the strategy process where management planning takes over from strategy development as the main task of a communication specialist. One of the worst problems in communication strategy implementation is the untimely delivery or even unavailability of inputs or services required for adoption of the recommended practice changes or actions by the target beneficiaries, who have been motivated and persuaded beforehand. This may lead to frustration among members of this group and ultimately undermine the credibility of the strategy.

Tools for media performances and field implementation

The most important tool to develop is a timetable per media and stakeholder group. Consider the most appropriate events, occasions, times and places. Try to cross fertilize various media and communication channels (e.g. the emotional appeal of radio or television with the factual impact of leaflets and brochures).

Example of a simple timetable

Objective	Target	Activities	Indicators	Timing	People responsible

Checklist

- Are you ready to implement your plan? Are you clear about your objectives? Do you have your evidence and solutions in place? Do you know your audience? Do you have good contacts among your influential target groups? Do you know what activities you are going to carry out? Have you decided what advocacy style or approach you are going to use?

- What are you expecting from your partners/ allies? Are you sure of their motives and goals? Do they enhance your credibility? What will happen if they drop out of the picture?
- What resources (financial, technical, human) are available? What are the implications for your plan? Do you need to build some training activities into your plan?
- How will you coordinate and monitor the different approaches you are using? Do you have a plan for integrating them and avoiding bottlenecks?
- Are there any risks? How will your activities affect the reputation of your organisation? How might it affect your funding to do other activities? Might you lose valuable staff? Could other current partners no longer wish to work with you? What can you do to mitigate any negative outcomes?
- What would you do if…? What are your alternatives, contingency plans or fall-back positions? External conditions may change and you may have to rethink your plans – build in flexibility so you are prepared for this.

6.2.10 Step 10: Monitoring, Evaluation and Adaptation

Step 10 Monitoring, Evaluation and Adaptation

Monitoring, evaluation and adaptation will be continuous efforts of communication planners and advocates. Realise that your planning cycle is a dynamic process and needs continuous adaptation! Stakeholders might change, problems or issues might change or might be solved naturally, etc.

The following questions will be helpful to monitor, evaluate and adapt:

Reflecting problems/issues
Whose problem is being discussed?
How relevant is it to the audience?
Is the topic well understood: causes, dynamics, etc.?
What is the overall context of the problem?
Do research results reflect reality?
Does the problem/issue generate emotion: interest, anger, etc.?

Choice of media
How appropriate is the media choice regarding the audio-visual literacy of the audience?
Is there an information overload or shortage?
Does the media choice help to strengthen the message?

Effects
Is the message oriented towards people, not projects?
Does the media choice respect the culture and sensitivity of the audience?
Does the message boost self-confidence and self-help?
Is the message and its delivery non-patronizing and non-propagandistic?
Are the messages heard, understood and accepted, and, most importantly, do they motivate and mobilize the people to modify their behaviour and take action?

Further resources
- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Advocacy'.*
- *Refer also to the various advocacy references listed at the end of this module.*

7. Advocacy case studies, role plays and exercises

7.1 Exercise: Active listening

A small story about being a bus driver

You are a bus driver bringing people from Amman centre to Azraq wetland. At first the bus is empty but at the next stop eight people get on: 2 men, 3 women and 3 children. Both men carry binoculars and they have brought boots. At the second stop one person gets off and six get on. Four of them bring a bird identification guide. At the third stop nobody gets off or on. At the fourth stop eight get on. Five of them are very excited to visit the marshes and hope to see the Pintails that have just arrived from Europe on their way to Africa. At this stop six people get off. At the fifth stop three women with their kids get off and nine other bird watchers get on. What is the name of the bus driver?

Answer: 'Your Name'.

7.2 Exercise: Your role in communication

Objective:
Reflecting about your own role and position in interaction with others, and learning how you can influence relationships in a team.
Requisites: theory of Leary-Cuvelier, pen, paper
Number of participants: starting from three
Time: 20–30 minutes

Self-steering has to do with a lot of issues: responsibility, freedom of choice, positions, roles, your own values and standards. We will focus on the positions you take in a discussion. Our framework for this exercise is the interaction theory of Leary-Cuvelier.

When you interact with people ask yourself:
- In which positions and roles do I find myself in daily social contacts? (e.g. initiative, dominant, oriented towards good social relations, oriented towards the task that has to be accomplished)
- In which fields of Leary's Rose do I usually function in a team?

Think about a specific situation in which the communication wasn't going easy.

Group Assignment

Put the Rose of Leary–Cuvelier schematically on the floor (6 pages marked with 'giving', 'receiving' etc., as in Figure 7.1). Play the following situation in groups of four (three team members, one observer):

Explain to the participants that they have been asked to develop a communication strategy to implement the flyway approach to communication. They are meeting each other for the first time on this particular assignment. While they are discussing, three of them stand on (or move towards) the field of Leary's rose that corresponds to the communication in the team (e.g. Giving, Resisting).

After 10 minutes discuss:
- How did you experience the different positions?
- What effect did the behaviour of the others have on you?
- What was most productive for you?

Variation:
Move individual team members into other positions and ask them to communicate corresponding to the field he/she is being positioned in.

In a plenary reflect on the original expectations and the actual group experience.

The interaction rose of Leary–Cuvelier

One way of viewing the behaviour of people within a team is to look at the roles which are needed for the team to function well, and to determine which roles are filled and which remain untaken. A team needs to have a balance between the different roles which individuals play. The characteristics of an individual's personality make one more or less suited for one or more roles. But whether or not all the roles in a team are actually filled and whether the roles are filled by the most suitable individual, depends on the dynamics within the team and effective communication between its members.

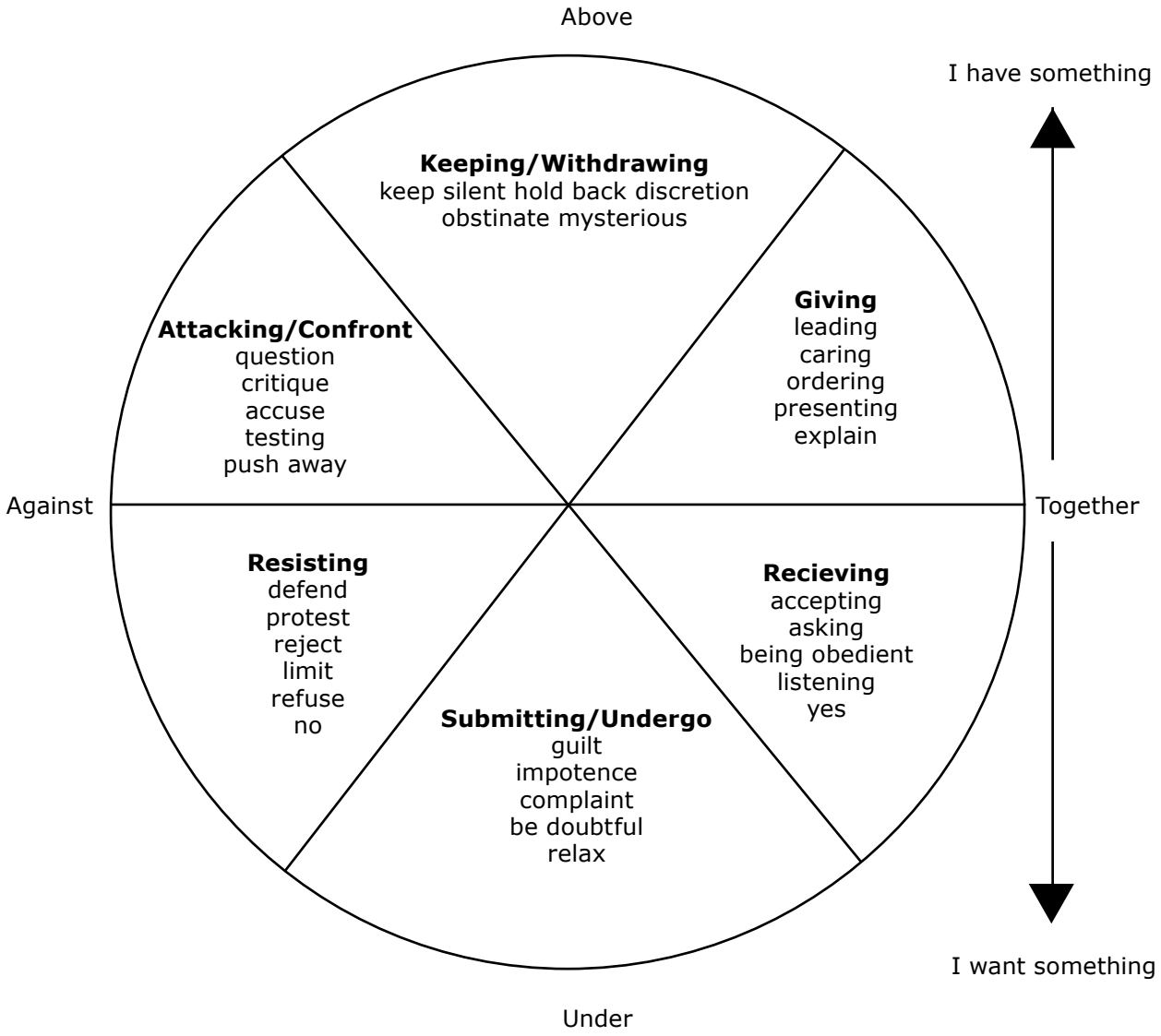


Figure 7.1 The interaction rose of Leary–Cuvelier.

The interaction rose of Leary-Cuvelier in Figure 7.1 shows us how we can analyse the communication between persons. Thanks to this model we can break through some interaction - and especially reaction - patterns. It can be used to look at any form of interaction (meetings, discussions, ...) and help us to reflect which role we preferably like to take, or it can teach us to take on different roles in order to reach our objectives.

The way in which a person takes on a role and positions him- or herself towards others determines his or her relation with those others.

During interaction between individuals in a team we can distinguish between two fundamental axes: giving and receiving and being focussed on cooperation or competition (concurrence). The combination of these axes gives us different positions. Someone can prevent the giving and receiving and be resistant. They can also withdraw instead of give, reject instead of receive or destroy what they received.

When we combine the axes, we come to 6 positions or fields in communication, each with its typical characteristics. Every person changes position according to the specific situation they are in. By understanding the different positions and their characteristics, you get more insight into communication and the dynamics of a group.

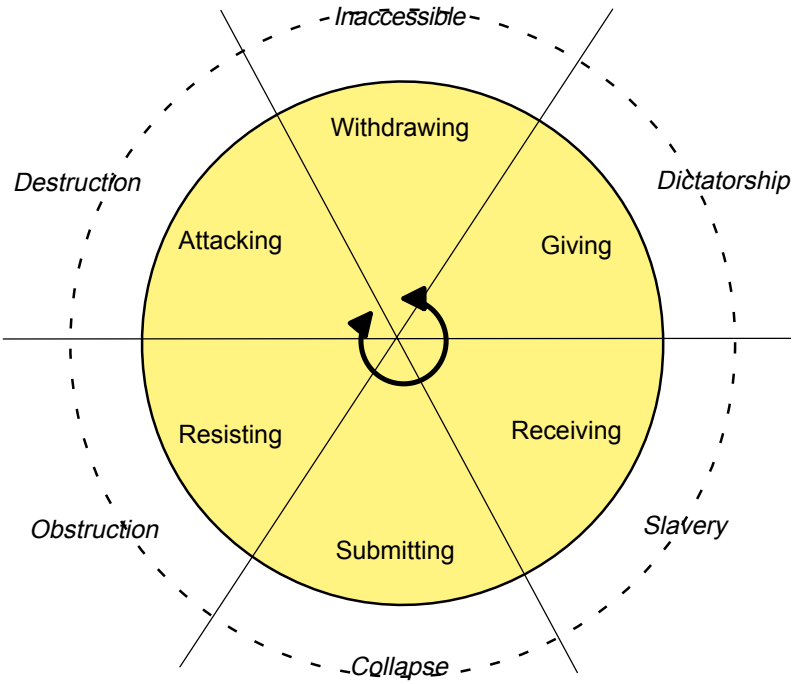


Figure 7.2 Extremes in team dynamics within the Leary-Cuvelier Rose.

The six positions (or fields) in communication (Leary-Cuvelier)

Relationship + Leading = Giving
This is the field in which individuals take initiative, guide or steer events, and call for others to work with them.
Symbol: the Lion

Relationship + Following = Receiving
Here we find people who take over other's initiatives, accept direction and guidance and carry out other's instructions.
Symbol: the Horse

Autonomy + Leading =Attacking
Here we find those who offer criticism, demand change and challenge leadership.
Symbol: the Eagle

Autonomy + Following = Resisting
Here we find those who no longer accept what they are offered, say no, who will not fall into line.
Symbol: the Ram

Leading + (Autonomy/Relationship) = Withdrawing
Here we find those who are no longer willing to give or to take, who turn into themselves and await further developments.
Symbol: the Owl

Following + (Autonomy/Relationship) = Submitting
Here we find those who let things happen to themselves without participating in the decision or taking responsibility for it.
Symbol: the Turtle

The internal dynamics of a team seeks to fulfill all these fields and to ensure that they are in a natural balance. In teams which function at their best, the members understand that all the positions must be filled and the team members are aware of the field from which each individual operates. In this kind of team the members have the freedom to change roles to suit the circumstances.

In teams that function less effectively some of these areas are forbidden or taboo (for example, resistance, leading or attacking). However, the forces continue to work, even if they are forbidden to the members. The effects can then find their way into the work of the team and show themselves in a distorted way. Another characteristic of an ineffective team is when one or more of the team members are stuck in one field and cannot (or do not want to) leave it. Since the positioning in one field always calls for a reaction in another field (complementary or opposing), one can influence the total dynamics of a team from each position.

Going to extremes…
When the dynamics in a team become fixed or frozen and individual members hold onto one field, there is the danger that this positioning becomes extreme. In the complementary fields, other members of the team may then also react with extreme behaviour, e.g. Giving becomes Dictatorship or Receiving becomes Slavery (Figure 7.2).

7.3 Exercise: Listening pairs

It is common that when we disagree with someone, we have the most difficulty listening to them. This exercise is to help develop the skill of listening (even when we disagree) and provides a way of finding out if we are truly listening to others. The exercise should be used after a group knows each other fairly well.

Procedure

1. A. Each person is asked to find a discussion partner. They are then asked to discuss a subject, but after each one has spoken, the other must summarize to the speaker's satisfaction what has just been said, before they may give their own response or point of view. Note: In this exercise each pair chooses for themselves the topic they will discuss.
   Or:
   B. Each person is asked to choose a partner and the facilitator gives a controversial topic for them to discuss. Again, after each one has spoken, the other must summarize to the speaker's satisfaction what has just been said. Only then may (s)he give her or his own response or point of view on the subject. Possible topics are: 'Power imbalances created culture and society'; 'Traditional knowledge is more or less lost; it is not an opportunity anymore for the future'; 'Climate change is just a trend on a huge timeline'.

Tips for trainers and issues for regional adaptation
There will be (controversial) subjects specific to the region, make use of them!

2. After either exercise 1A or 1B, the facilitator should ask the group what difficulties they experienced in listening, and list these on a flipchart paper.
3. Then ask what they can do to improve communication in the group. Write answers on another flip chart paper.

Time: About 1 hour
Materials: flipchart paper, tape, markers.

7.4 Exercise: Defining Advocacy

Purpose
Advocacy involves activities directed at different audiences, goals and strategies. Developing a common definition can improve communication in the advocacy planning process. The purpose of this exercise is to deepen people's thinking about what advocacy is, and to reach a common definition to guide the planning.

Process
(Time: 1–2 hours)

1. Divide participants into small groups and ask them to discuss the following questions. Their thoughts should be noted on flipchart papers to share with the group in plenary.
   - What is advocacy?
   - Name three outcomes of effective advocacy.
   - What kinds of activities does advocacy involve?
2. In the plenary, ask participants to identify three to five similarities among the groups' responses to the first question and three to five differences. Write the similarities and differences on two different sheets of newsprint and discuss.
3. Ask participants to debate and agree on the four or five most important outcomes and activities and circle these.
4. If you have extra time, discuss the definitions on the next page. Highlight the key characteristics of the different definitions.
5. Conclude with a brief reflection about whether and how the discussion changed participants' understanding of advocacy.

Further resources
- *This chapter is supported by the PowerPoint presentation 'Advocacy'.*
- *Refer also to the various advocacy references listed at the end of this module.*

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