Foreword

This Handbook Manual is meant to serve as a guide to people interested in facilitating forest forums. The forum needs to be seen as a platform where issues are raised and discussed, where information is made available by those who have it to those who need it. This Handbook Manual seeks to provide information based on past experience on best practices / processes for organizing forest forum that enable effective community representation and participation on the one hand, and providing communities with fundamental information on rights and responsibilities, power dynamics, policy and legislative provisions on the other hand. If applied well, the Handbook should build communities capacities to be leading their own discussions, asking their own questions, seeking answers and drawing their own action plans for getting things done. It should make communities proactive in forest and natural resource governance rather than passive and helpless citizens looking on as their natural resources get depleted and leaves them even more impoverished.

We wish to say “thank you” to the European Union for funding the Governance Initiative for Rights and Accountability in Forest Management (GIRAF) project under which 180 Community forest forums were facilitated in 30 Districts across 7 regions in Ghana. We acknowledge and appreciate their interest in forest governance in Ghana.

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The project team is grateful to the EU for the immense financial support provided for the realization of project objectives.

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**USER GUIDE**
This is a guide for the facilitator who can choose the topics according to the target group and the time available. Each module contains some notes for the facilitator’s preparation, some exercises and resources to be distributed.

Different stakeholders or resources persons should be involved in the forest forums:
- Civil society organisations
- Representatives of sector agencies such as the various ministries and the forestry commission
- Gender desk officers
- Women’s groups
- Farmer groups
- Security agencies
- Traditional authorities, etc

A variety of methods can be used during forest forums. Sessions should be as participatory as possible to facilitate adult learning. Where possible and appropriate, a mix of any of the methods below can be applied:
- Presentations
- Group discussion and exercises
- Role plays
- Buzz groups
- Expert speakers
- Audio-visuals

Handouts can also printed out and distributed among participants who can use them.
Introduction

Over the years, a number of initiatives have been put in place to ensure multi-stakeholder participation in forest sector governance. Within the framework of the Akosombo series, stakeholder consultations on forest policies started in 2002 and recommended the establishment of forest forums to engender public participation in policy development and implementation in the forest sector. Under the Forest Sector Development Programme II (FSDP II), financial and technical support was provided for the establishment of about 11 district forest forums. Since then, some NGOs have continued to establish more district forest forums. In the bid to improve forest communities’ livelihoods and forest sector governance, generally, civil society continues to advocate government support for forest forums.

The Governance Initiative for Rights and Accountability in Forest Management (GIRAF), a 4-year EU-funded project sought to develop “practices, skills and dialogue structures for increased transparency and accountability of resource management”. The project targeted 45,000 forest-dependent people living in 90 communities in 30 rural districts in the Brong-Ahafo, Central, Eastern, Northern, Volta, Western and Ashanti regions of Ghana that lack institutional access to policymaking processes. It was implemented by four partners: Civic Response, Friends of the Earth, Centre for Indigenous Knowledge and Organizational Development (CIKOD) and CARE International.

The GIRAF Project directly addressed the facilitation of multi-stakeholder support for forest law enforcement, governance and trade and the specific anticipated obligations of the Ghana and EU FLEGT agreement in the overall context of poverty reduction; improvement of transparency and accountability in the forest sector by enabling district and landscape level public audits of Forestry Commission, industry, District Assemblies, Traditional Authorities and donor interventions in Ghana’s forest sector; sharing of Ghana’s Voluntary Partnership Agreement lessons with civil society organisations in Central and West African countries involved in the FLEGT/VPA process; and strengthening of national NGO led advocacy and media campaigns in support of FLEGT and the specific obligations of the Ghana and EU FLEGT agreement.

This handbook is intended to serve as a quick reference and guide to facilitators of forest forums as well as all those involved in multi-stakeholder processes aimed at enhancing natural resource governance, particularly at the community and district level.
Civic Response is a leading natural resource and environmental (NRE) governance policy advocacy organisation working to entrench resource rights.

Founded in 2003 in Accra, Ghana by a group of activists with experience in resource rights campaigns both locally and globally, Civic Response undertakes activities which address the policy needs of communities who depend directly on natural resources, particularly forests. Civic Response is actively engaged in the global climate change discourse especially as it relates to forests.

Civic Response is currently the host organisation for Forest Watch Ghana, a national campaign vehicle of over forty (40) Civil Society Organisations and individuals undertaking policy advocacy on inequities of tenure, resource management and enterprise rights which undermine development and biodiversity.

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Facilitating Community and District Forest Forums

Objectives:

- To present a background to forest forums
- To outline a process for setting up and running forest forums

INTRODUCTION TO THE FOREST FORUM

Background

Ghana’s forest sector is in crisis. The country lost 80% of its forest cover between 1909 and 1990. Substantial areas of natural forest remain only in about 216 forest reserves but even these have been affected by serious degradation. Over the ten years from 1990 to 2000 forest degradation actually accelerated with some of the remaining reserves losing as much as 90% of their forest cover. For example, Tain 2 forest reserve established in 1934, lost only 11.3% of its forest cover between 1934 and 1991, a span of 57 years. Between 1991 and 2000, Tain 2 forest reserve lost 78.6% of its forest cover within 10 years. Similarly, Pamu Berekum forest reserve established in 1932, lost 51% of its forest cover between 1932 and 1991 and 99% between 1991 and 2000.

Putting forest management in place was easier within the forest reserves as government had responsibility and control over the reserved areas. The forested land outside the reserve are owned by local communities, families and individuals and used for a variety of purposes including agriculture, collection of NTFPs, fuel wood and hunting. The future of forest resources outside forest reserves depends heavily on the land users, land owners and government’s policy on extraction, use and management of the resources. Community land interests are vested in the stool, represented by the chiefs however, land administration in Ghana is a very complex issue with the complexity beginning right from the local level which directly influence agricultural practices and rural poverty.

The Forestry Commission (FC) is a public body responsible for the regulation of utilisation of forest and wild life resources, the conservation and management of these resources and the coordination of policies related to them. It thus plays the dual roles of being the regulator and the manager of forest and wildlife resource or what could be described in local parlance as being both the player and the referee. In playing the role of the decision maker and “judge”, the FC has excluded the resource owners and local resource users from the decision making process on natural resource use and management. Stakeholders excluded from a process have no incentive and motivation to ensure the sustained flow of benefits for other stakeholders while they lose out. Thus the FC’s effort to promote sustainable forest resource management and protection of forest reserves through enrichment planting, forest plantations, banning of illegal chain saw operations, fines and forest patrols by forest guards does not appear to have worked as it excluded the interest of the forest fringed communities who could have played those roles much better. Specifically,

- the approach of using external forest patrols gives the impression of protecting the forest from the forest fringe communities – the owners of the resources
- FC’s management styles excluded the forest resources users and forest fringed communities from any management responsibilities, ownership and benefit sharing schemes
- Forest fringed communities and civil society organisations hardly have access to updated forest information they need to work with.

The forest fora network is the latest strategy of the FC to bring on board all stakeholders in forest resource use to dialogue, share information and be involved in the decision and policy making process on forest resource use, governance and management.
Forest Fora Network

The Forestry Commission which is responsible for forest policy, laws and regulations enforcement on the use and management of forest resources is concerned about the alarming rate of forest loss and in collaboration with FSDP II to established forestry fora network concept in 2002 as an option to address the concerns and issues contributing to forest resource depletion.

The forest fora network is to facilitate the establishment of linkage and networking among civil society actors, resource owners, communities, the timber industry, public sector institutions, politicians and policy makers to:

1. Share and exchange ideas and proposals for inclusion in policy analysis and implementation
2. Provide opportunities for the voice of different stakeholders to be incorporated in the forest and land policy decision making process
3. Monitor and evaluate progress and impacts of policy implementation
4. Create channels for information flow among civil society (CS) actors, resource owners, communities, industry and the Forestry Commission (FC)
5. Create opportunity for CS to ask the Forestry Services Division (FSD) pertinent questions on forestry issues and get answers.
6. Facilitate linkage between sub District, District, Regional and National forest forums and strategies for influencing national policy
7. Promote active participation of Members of Parliaments, Traditional Authorities, District Assemblies, Timber Associations and FC in discussions on forest sector issues so as to be well informed and make informed decisions with respect to land and tree tenure and sustainable forest resource management.

The Forest Forum is therefore a platform or space which Civil society (including community based groups) voice and ideas for civil society action have the potential to emerge, subject to civil society institutions having access to information on forest sector issues. Communities needs access to information on the mandate of the FC, understanding that mandate, forestry laws and the policies as well as access to information on benefit sharing, allocation of Timber Utilisation Contracts and Timber Utilisation Permits to be able to play their management roles effectively. The process is to generate spontaneous external pressure to make the FC more effective and responsive.

Process to establish Forest Forum

The forest forum is at multiple levels beginning with community through district, regional (or zonal) and national. The national forest forum is the apex. Representatives from Community Forest Forums will be elected by their constituents and their capacity built to present their issues at the district forest forum. Similarly representatives from the DFFs will be elected by their constituents and their capacity built to present their issues at the regional or zonal forest forums and similarly, to the national forest forum (NFF). The representatives of the various constituencies to the various levels of forest forums are obliged to report / feedback to their constituencies so that they can develop action plans to implement the outcomes and follow up actions from the forest forums.

The first step in facilitating a Community Forest Forum (CFF) is using the PLA tools identify key community institutions and helping them independently to discuss their forest governance issues. A list of the issues are developed and prioritized. 2 representatives are selected / elected to present the issues at the CFF. A mock presentation is done by the 2 selected people as part of their capacity building to present the issues at the CFF.

Some of the possible actors for the various forums are:

Community Forest Forums:

» CBOs: farmers groups, artisans in the wood industry, chain saw operators, small scale agro-processors, small scale miners, charcoal burners, fishmongers association and hunters.

» The memberships of CBOs in the forestry sector are predominantly people whose livelihoods depend directly on natural resources. They are groupings of community members who came together as a result of a common economic interest and therefore adequately represent their constituencies. Their activities are located off and on reserve. While farming activities are limited to the off reserve areas, chain saw operation, small scale surface mining and collection of cane and rattan for furniture is done both on and off reserve. Most of them are victims of unfair access to resources and exclusion from benefit sharing schemes from forest resources they had nurtured and maintained on their farms and therefore have no incentives to conserve them.
Traditional Authorities: Stool Land Chief and sub chiefs, opinion leaders

Traditional Authorities are traditionally, the custodians of forest resources on stool lands. Their major source of income is from the royalties from the timber, mining and ground rents collected and disbursed on their behalf by the Office of the Administrator of Stool Lands (OASL), however, traditional authorities have been pushed to the wall as they find their source of income consistently undermined by the benefit sharing schemes put in place by government so chiefs are therefore taking what they can while it lasts and have no incentive to conserve the resources on their stool lands.

Media: Community Radio operators

District Forest Forums:

Assemblmen/women from District

Assemblmen and women serve as the link between the communities, the District Assemblies and other institutions of local governance. They have the responsibility of reconciling the various diverse issues in their communities, distilling these issues from the various segments of communities for the attention of those who must deal with them and bring feedback to the people they represent. They have to play the role of the mediator and create the opportunity for their constituents to make their voices heard

Traditional Authorities: Paramount Chiefs and their sub chiefs in the area

Civil Society: NGOs in the NRM and Environment sector in District; representatives from Community Institutions

Media Houses

Media Houses and journalists have a responsibility of bringing issues in the forestry sector out into the public domain and for the attention of those needing the information for effective decision making. They also have to collaborate with others to advocate for a change in policy reforms where it is ascertained that the policies are not addressing the issues at stake. Journalists are expected to follow up on issues of abuse of rights and violation of laws to their logical conclusion of administration of justice.

Government Institutions: Forestry Services Division, MOFA, District Assembly;

Regional / Zonal Forest Forums

Representatives of Assemblmen/women from Districts

Representatives of Community Institutions

Representatives of NGOs

Representatives of Traditional Authorities

Representatives of Media Houses

Government Institutions: Forestry Commission, MOFA, Regional Coordinating Council; preferably the Coordinating Director and Planning Officer

National Forest Forum

Community Representatives

Civil Society /NGOS representatives

Traditional Authorities Representatives

Forestry Commission

MOFA

Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources

Media Houses

Judiciary, the Police, Members of Parliament and Timber Associations

Pre Forest Forum sensitisation and consultative workshops

A one-day independent consultation workshop is held with each of the CS actors under the CFF and DFF (except the government institutions) to sensitize them on the rationale for the forest forum and to agree on dates for the district level forest forum. Through the use of appropriate facilitations such as “open space” or (any other appropriate tool) participants are led to bring up burning issues they wish to lead discussion on. The issues raised are grouped under appropriate critical topics areas as agreed by participants. Participants may go into groups based on the number of topics to be discussed and those who felt comfortable to lead the discussions in the groups may do so. There was flexibility for participants to move to other groups and contribute to the discussions if they felt they had exhausted their contributions in any particular group.

These consultations will prepare the various actors to participate meaningfully in the Community and District forest forums without feeling overwhelmed by the presence of elite participants.

At the end of each sensitization workshop, participants from each group will select representatives who will represent them at the Community and District forest forum and present their issues. Their choice of who
Represented them should be based on a set of criteria discussed and agreed upon by the group. Some of the criteria may be ability to:

- Articulate their views objectively
- Mobilize and provide feedback to constituency
- Lead the implementation of follow up action plans

**Follow up Actions in between forest forums**

Action plans are developed at each forest forum with roles and responsibilities assigned. Some of these could be following up on issues of abuse of community rights by timber companies, non-payment of compensations by timber companies; the need for FSD to bring such companies to book and report at the next forest forum etc. Representatives from the various groups should take lead responsibility for the implementation of the follow up action plans.
Chapter Two

Political economy

Objectives:
» To help participants understand the wider context in which decision-making on natural resources takes place
» To understand the trends in forest sector decision-making and practices

Introduction
Political Economy is a tool for analysis. Political Economy comes in many forms and variations. It will be used in this training manual to help users understand the governance of natural resources and more specifically the forest sector in Ghana. It will also help to appreciate the roles and powers of various stakeholders particularly communities in the sector. It is supposed to give a birds-eye view of the sector - the fiscal regime, and power relations between and among the various players in the sector.

Political Economy (PE) is about the processes that establish, sustain and transform economic and political relationships over time (Collinson 2003). PE takes the historical approach where trends and patterns of decision-making and power relationships are examined over a period. In much more radical forms PE looks at the exploitation of the masses or the working class by the property owning class or the bourgeoisie though political and economic systems. This radical view posits that the best option for the ordinary people or the masses is a total remake or reordering of the relations.

Political Economy takes the historical approach in developing analysis, thus it looks to history and the present. Therefore PE is evidence-based and not normative or based on speculation or expectation.

Overview of the forest sector in Ghana
The forest sector has been a key contributor to the national economy of Ghana. An average of €174 Million was generated by the forest sector between 2002 and 2006 from the export of timber and wood products. In 2011, the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) estimated that the sector contributed GH¢1,549 million (equivalent to 2.8% of GDP) to the national economy. In terms of economic contribution, forestry and logging accounted for 3 per cent GDP in 2009 and contributed US$240.9 million (representing 7.6 per cent) to total export value. It is estimated that about 120,000 people are formally employed by the forest and wildlife sector, and it serves as a source of livelihood for about 2 million people. There are 84 sawmills and 12 companies with plywood capacity in the formal sector.

These few statistics highlight the wealth of the forest sector. The value of the sector however is expected to be at least more than twice this value captured in statistic for many reasons:
» Most of the lumber in the domestic market for instance, is largely illegal and does not contribute revenue to the national coffers;
» the value of wildlife and other non-timber forest products are estimated to contribute at least USD250 million annually but difficult to capture because mechanisms to capture such revenue generated from the informal sector is weak;
» allocation of timber rights through competitive bidding and accompanying revenue generation is not enforced;
» non-payment of Timber Rights fees by concession holders for concessions converted into TUCs after the coming into force of TRMA in 1997;
» Failure of Ghana’s Forestry Commission to enforce quarterly review of stumpage fees;
» Subsidization of timber industry operations by state and resource owning communities.

Furthermore of unsustainable management of the country’s forest land resources, wildlife and fisheries is estimated to be 10 per cent of the Gross Domestic Products. Hence to some extend the real benefits from forest resource are in a deficit.

In the pre-colonial era, most Europeans competed among themselves for trade in natural resources and...
other products from the local people. The Europeans exchanged guns and gun powder, wine, glass, clothes and other products for mainly gold, slaves, timber and other such resources. During this time chiefs or traditional rulers or family heads had greater control over the use of natural resources.

These merchants eventually organised themselves into trade associations and requested their home countries to provide them with an administrative setup to provide security for their trade. Hence Captain George Maclean, was invited by the Merchants to the Gold Coast not to declare the Gold Coast as a colony, but rather to better organise the trade systems and ensure peace and security among the then warring kingdoms. This administrative setup was financed by these merchants and they grew as the trade boomed. The colonial administrative setups had enhanced powers just as trade boomed. Coastal towns who hosted these European merchants who were in need of protection from the kingdoms from the hinterlands developed treaties of protection with the British. One such treaty which is the bond of 1844 which though was intended to provide stability and protection to the coastal nations, it eventually usurped their sovereignty and hence the subsequent creation of the colony. The purpose of annexing the kingdoms of the hinterlands was motivate by many reasons including territorial expansion by the colonialist and more importantly, to effectively control trade in the whole of the country. The colonial policy was that the colonies were responsible for the upkeep of the colonial administrative setup in the colonies. For this reason taxes were imposed not only on European merchants but also on local traders and coastal towns who paid for their protection. The colony was to serve as the source of raw materials for the booming industries in Europe.

The British Colonial Administration adopted the indirect rule system as a means of governance. This was because the local elite including chiefs and the educated few strongly resisted direct control by Europeans. Various incentives and powers granted by the colonial administration to traditional authorities or chiefs enabled them to control resources. On some occasions traditional authorities could be appointed or fired at the orders of the colonial governor. The colonial administrative system through very subtle means eroded the powers of traditional authorities over their control of resources in favour of the central government.

Under the Native Authority Ordinance (1927) Traditional Authorities were recognized as land owners and therefore exercised formal native authority over lands. However the Forest Ordinance (1927) vested in government the power to constitute and manage forest reserves. This begun the process of power erosion of traditional authority and the control lands and resource form local to central authority. From 1951 onwards, further developments in legislation served to seal the alienation of chiefs from their own lands.

Political independence did not fundamentally change the structure of the forest sector as centralized control continued. Land appropriate under the colonial administration became state lands. The powers of central government over resources became more formalized and statutory. Furthermore, while the industry and politicians continued to reign in the bulk of profits from the sector, local resource owners and local communities received marginal benefits. Policy did not generally change irrespective of the ideological orientation of successive governments. The balance of power among the various vested interests in the Sector did not change in any significant way. The strongest force in the sector still remained the industry.

Government is mandated to make manage the forest estate. It is responsible for implementing the legal framework and making administrative laws. Furthermore it makes policy and control the fiscal regime. The FC and the FSD on behalf of the parent ministry is mandated to prescribe behaviour for resource management, resource management, performance monitoring, propose taxes. It also collects revenues and determines how much is distributed between them and the other stakeholders. These functions have been described as conflicting. The regulator despite all this is faced with several challenges. The commission is overstretched both administratively, personnel and resources. They cannot maintain effective presence in all forest areas in the country. The government is also plagued with official corruption, poor relations with communities and the pervasive influence of industry. These do not enhance their quality of delivery.

The industry - with its financial edge, political muscle and historical advantaged position they enjoy continue to dominate the sector. Through their strong links with politicians, they successfully influence, stall or frustrate policy implementation and fiscal regime revisions, among others and have contributed significantly to how the sector is regulated. This has led to a regulatory capture.

The following are the taxes that are paid by industry:

1. Stumpage fees –(Tax)
2. Timer Rights Fees (still hanging) -(Tax) and
3. (Export levies) (Tax)
4. Concessions Rent
5. Stock survey charges
6. Property mark fees
7. Log Measurement and Conveyance Certificate and
8. Wood Product Export Inspection Certificate

That tax level has been considered as low. The state collects these fees some of which are distributed with other stakeholders in the forest sector. It has however been noted that stumpage fees has been a major tassel between the state and the industry with government backing down on previous attempts to increase the fees. As a result the state is unable to fully capture the optimum revenue possible from the sector. The informal sector is however largely out of the tax net, but has the potential of contributing about 75% of stumpage through NTFP. The industry employs about 100,000 people in 1997 but it has reduced about 50% as at 2008. About 11 million people live in forest areas of which about 67 per cent of their livelihoods are supported by forest activities. Industry however though their effective organisation is more likely to influence sector policy and regulation.

Local forest owning communities are in a realm different from both the industry and government. They continue to gain very little from the existing regulatory and fiscal arrangements in the sector. Policies and legislations have discriminated against them with respect to resource access and financial benefits. On the contrary, policies and legislation have favoured industries unlimited access to resources. Forest resource owning communities hardly participate in forest policy development processes though they are perhaps the most significant players in the sector. The systematic suppression of their rights and opportunities has deprived them of major livelihood improvement. Their lack of exposure and their inability to easily access information to inform their positions have been exploited by forest managers to their disadvantage. The power relations and knowledge between government and industry on one side and local communities can be likened to a giraffe and a goat trying to reach the branches of a tree 3meters above ground level.

The power disparity in not only vertical, but also exists at the local community level where trickles of the financial benefits returned to communities as royalties is captured by the local governments and traditional authorities. Traditional leaders have also captured the decision making around use of such royalties and other benefits. The current regulatory framework for the sector seems to support this imbalance. The Constitution for instance in Article 267:6A advances a portion of royalties to traditional authorities “for maintenance of the stool in keeping with its status”. The interpretation has however been conflicting and has usually ended up in the private pocket of traditional authorities. District Assemblies on the other hand receive the largest share of royalties (55% of what is designated of resource owners), However, due to the absence of clear guidelines for disbursement and use of royalties, such revenue have been considered as internally generated funds and used for recurrent expenditures.

To understand the nature of the regulation and governance of the forest sector therefore, it is critical for communities to have clearer understanding of the competing vested interests, the power imbalances and its consequences, and to provide communities with a lens to view polices, regulations and practices in the sector. Political economy analysis is thus useful to this extent.

Group Exercise

Facilitators should ask these simple questions to commence the discussion.

» What does the picture of the blind men and the elephant say to you?
» Who are the stakeholders in the forest sector?
» What are the interests of the identified stakeholders and what benefits do they get from using forest resources?
» Who enjoys the best of the benefits and who has control over decision making in the forest sector
» On the other hand and who is least influential?
» What can be done to reverse this power relation?
» What can communities do?
a. Show the illustration of the six blind men and the elephant and ask:
>
“What does this picture say and what does it mean”?

This elephant is an illustration of John Godfrey Saxe’s poem which an adaptation of an Indian folk tale. From the responses emphasise the following:

a. That in Political Economy Analysis you only consider the history and the present situation. What is! What should be or what has be to be or what is expect to be are not the kind of responses needed

2. That you can only have a good understanding of the sector (the elephant) only if you combine the perspectives of all the various stakeholders (represented by the blind men)

b. If the elephant represents the forest and the blind men represent the various interests then:
>
“Who are the various interests in our forest resources?”

The position of District Assemblies can be contended. They are supposed to bring development to the doorstep of every Ghanaian and every area and for that reason they belong to the ground level. On the other hand they are representatives of government and only implement policies that are developed from the central government, though they have opportunities to adapt it to the local needs. Wherever they may be positioned, it is important to reiterate the fact that royalties comes to the District Assemblies by virtue of the face that resources were taken from there, hence it is supposed to compensate for the lost resource.

Generally classify the interests into the categories below. Ask probing questions to draw participants to all the actors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External interests (the interest here could be grouped into three)</th>
<th>Donors – All the countries that give aid for to help us manage our forests. Including the EU, China, World Bank, IFC, and all the others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Government and non-government Organizations – the United Nations and its specialized divisions like UNESCO, UN Forum on Forests. etc, the Africa Union, ECOWAS and INGOs like Green Peace, Conservation International, FERN, Friends of the Earth, Global Witness and such others</td>
<td>Transnational corporations – who import wood from Africa for their products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### National Interests
The Ministry, the Forestry Commission and all its divisions, the EPA,

### Industry
All the timber companies who are members of either Ghana Timber Association or Ghana Timber Millers Organization,

### Resource fringe communities
Traditional authorities, NTFP collectors, hunters, charcoal burners, forest fringe, farmers, chainsaw operators, District Assembly*.

#### 1. If these are the stakeholders in the sector, what are the interests/benefits of these actors?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Interests</th>
<th>Benefit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Global conservation &amp; sustainability, Political control of forests, Social justice, profits,</td>
<td>Cheap cost of timber and wood, more wealth for their counties or businesses (this is true with donors, conservation NGOs and businesses),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>Revenue for development, command and control over forests, resource sustenance,</td>
<td>Revenue to the state for development,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Access to timber, low taxes,</td>
<td>Super profits for their businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource fringe communities</td>
<td>For livelihood sustenance</td>
<td>Environmental services and sometimes small development projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2. Based on the benefits and the interests, who has greatest control over decision making in the forest sector and who is least influential.

From the subsequent discussion participants will be drawn to the conclusion that industry obtains the best of benefits while forest fringe communities get the very least of benefits. Note the following:

- SRA’s are the main direct benefits to communities. They rarely benefit from the royalties that are disbursed to stools and traditional authority. Also the district assemblies mostly use royalties for recurrent expenses and not always for development projects in communities where the resource was extracted.

- There is a strong link between benefits and power. Benefits such as wealth from profits mean more money and greater economic power to distribute favours to politicians and forest managers when they need to convince them. It also means they can hire the services of very good lawyers, lobbyist and run expensive advertisements that support their cause. Politicians on the other hand depend on votes to maintain remain in office. Their political campaigns are expensive hence they need the money which can be easily provided by companies.

- Also point needs to be made that industry is well organised and their organization enhances their position in the sector. The Ghana Timber Association (GTA) and the Ghana Timber Millers Organisation (GTMO) have successfully blocked attempts by the forestry commission to increase stumpage fees since 2004. This is contrary to law which mandates the commission to do this review quarterly.

Power is used in this training to mean “the ability to get things done”. This should not be confused with authority. Authority is power that is institutionalized and backed by law. For instance an individual may arrest anyone who he suspects of harbouring criminal intent. A policeman on the other hand has the authority to arrest anyone who disturbs the public peace. Industry may prevent new taxes on the forest sector by threatening to cut jobs or relocating their businesses. That is power—the ability to shape policy in their favour. Parliament on the other hand has the authority to make laws. If industry is shaping forest policies they have the power, but not the authority.

In the USA “the timber industry spend $8 million in campaign contribution to preserve a logging road subsidy worth $458 million. Thus a 5,725% return on their investment.

#### 3. What can be done to reverse this power relation? What can communities do to reverse this imbalance?

This question demands responses on what should be done? The following should be emphasised from the responses.
Reassure participants that the status-quo has been created over years hence a reversal in this power relations is possible.

Emphasize the power of community – numbers and organisation. Though a revolution is not recommended, the Arab Spring that swept across North Africa and the Middle East affirms the point that organized citizens protest can bring down powerful autocratic regimes.

Government obtains its power from the people and therefore must be responsive to the will of the citizens or the people and not just industry as the status quo is. The 1992 constitution emphasises this fact hence citizens should also begin to make these demand on the government.

“We the people of Ghana, in exercise of our natural and inalienable right to establish a framework of government, which shall secure for ourselves, and posterity the blessings of liberty, equality of opportunity and prosperity...” 1992 Constitution

They should understand again that the process of decision making is a political process where industry, government officials, external community and local communities are making their own demands. Communities can only be heard when they make their voices heard and this can be done through engagement with forest managers and using their number 1 advantage -their sheer numbers.

An abridged version of the Poem of the six blind men

John Godfrey Saxe’s (1816-1887) version of Blind Men and the Elephant:

“It was six men of Indostan, To learning much inclined, Who went to see the Elephant (Though all of them were blind), That each by observation Might satisfy his mind.”

The First approach’d the Elephant, And on its broad and sturdy side, and said the elephant is very like a wall!

The Second, felt the tusk, said the elephant is very like a spear!”

The Third approach’d the animal, and felt its trunk within his hands, and said the elephant is very like a snake!”

The Fourth reached out an eager hand, And felt about the knee: and said the elephant is very like a tree!”

The Fifth, who chanced to touch the ear, and said the elephant is very like a fan!”

The Sixth seized its tail and said the Elephant is very like a rope!”

And so these men of Indostan Disputed loud and long, Each in his own opinion Exceeding stiff and strong, Though each was partly in the right, And all were in the wrong!
Chapter Three

Forest Policy

Objectives:

» To enable participants understand the background to sector policies
» To enable participants raise relevant questions about the distribution of forest resources
» To present a framework for analysing policy

Training Materials:

» Flipchart stand and paper
» Markers
» Masking tape
» Copies of the 1994 Forest and Wildlife Policy

Introduction

Some have argued that Ghana’s 1994 Forest and Wildlife Policy (FWP) is an excellent document and provides most of what the sector needs to progress. However, since its coming into force in 1994, it has remained a public relations instrument designed to relieve the pressure that resulted from the scandals of the late 1980s. Beyond addressing donor concerns at the time, the state has not done much to implement the Policy beyond handing over forest resources to the timber industry for logging. Key aspects of the Principles, Objectives and Strategies of the policy were largely not implemented. Under the management of the Forestry Commission, Ghana’s forest resources declined from 8.2 million hectares to less than 1.5 million hectares in less than a hundred years. The last 2 decades have seen the worst form of forest loss with a number of forest reserves losing their entire forest cover. The state and forest owning communities continue to subsidize the operations of timber companies as the state has failed to operationalize the award of timber rights through competitive bidding (so as to realize the maximum value from the resource) preferring to award timber rights through administrative permits to favourites. In addition, the state and resource owning communities continue to lose revenue as the state failed to review stumpage fees quarterly as directed by the TRMA and the FWP.

FWG estimated that the financial loss from the non-enforcement of the policy and laws backing is in the region of one hundred million dollars annually.

Group Work

(Participants break out into groups of seven and discuss the questions below)

What is your community’s vision for their forest resources?

This question can be answered by discussing the following:

» What is the present condition of the forest resources in your community?
» What are the reasons for the present state of your forest resources?
» How would you like your forest resources to be looking like 15 years from now?
» What actions are required to make that happen?
» Who should do what and when?
» Where will you find the resources to carry out your plans?

There is the need for a framework within which to develop capacity to respond to changing global and domestic political economy and the changed position of forestry within this. For example, with Ghana’s
assumption of oil and gas production, timber will eventually cease to be a significant revenue source. The implications of this phenomenon for the forest sector need to be considered.

An effective policy should drive change and provide concrete solutions to Ghana’s forest sector crisis. There should be systems in place for effective policy planning and implementation.

The 1994 Forest and Wildlife Policy in review

There are both global and domestic drivers for policy review.

The global drivers include the following:

» There is a structural convergence of global markets for food, fuel and fibre. Finance capital is able to move very quickly towards the production of the commodities that have the highest market value. This means that the market value of the arable land from which these commodities can be produced is increasingly based on the value of the highest valued commodities.

» There are really no unutilised (and especially arable) land left outside of the world’s forests and especially its tropical forests. New lands for infrastructure, production and settlement can only come from forests. We are seeing the beginnings of the greatest land grab in history for various agenda. Land grab is taking place on a large scale in West Africa.

» There is new financing for “forestry”. Climate change is receiving global attention as the new funding mechanism. Industrialists have also taken advantage of opportunities provided by REDD+ to increase pollution as they can offset their pollution by financing green technology or plant trees in a developing country somewhere in the world. This attitude is taking attention away from the real solutions to addressing climate change: drastic reduction in fossil fuel burning; drastic reduction on forest degradation and massive afforestation to remove the excess carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.

» There is a new balance of forces contesting forest policy space. Civil society and indigenous peoples are much better organised, informed and engaged globally today than in 1994 when the policy first came into force.

» New regulatory standards are emerging - for example around the treatment of indigenous people’s rights and local/community.commons participation – though Africa is behind the rest of the world on this score. Schemes like the VPA and the US Lacey Act have become more popular globally.

» There are new technologies for managing resources. For example GIS-based tenure mapping and wood tracking systems have improved vastly. At the same time genetic modification is changing the face of agricultural activity.

The 1994 Forest and Wildlife Policy in review

There are both global and domestic drivers for policy review.

The global drivers include the following:

Group Work

(participants break out into groups of seven and discuss the questions below)

» Have you noticed anything unusual around your communities? Describe them.

» What do you think could be causing them?

» Have you or your community been approached by anybody / group of people to discuss issues related to your land or forest?

» What did you do?

» Would you like to exchange your land for something else? If no? why? If yes, why?

» How would you know if you are at risk of losing your land?

» What are some the things you can do to protect your land from being taken away from you? And your community?

Domestic Drivers for policy reform include the following.

» Ghana’s forest estate has collapsed and the old methods of forest management cannot work.

» There is a renewed interest in forest “governance” and new trade regimes (e.g. FLEGT) aimed at reducing illegal logging and transparency, accountability and responsible behaviour in forest management practices.

» Ghana has become an oil producer. The place of timber in the overall GDP will continue to fall significantly.

» Ghana has become one of the donors’ favourite laboratory for forestry initiatives and the forestry establishment is being pulled in different directions by “Development Partners”. There is
the need to chart a national direction that is not determined by donors/development partners.

» There is a greater level of mobilisation and organisation of all stakeholders.

A Framework for analysing policy and practice in the forest sector

Civil Society has since 2004 worked with a clear framework for analysing policy and practice in the sector along the following criteria:

a. **Biodiversity sustainability (not sustainable timber production):**

   In this regard, mono-tree plantations “forests” cannot be considered as forests. In relation to sustainability the policy discussion has always related a lot more to timber and product sustainability and not biodiversity.

b. **Unfair access to forest resources by different stakeholders:**

   The imbalance between the logging industry and other non-extractive forest users needs to be redressed.

c. **Unfair sharing of benefits** derived from forest exploitation between different stakeholders and producers needs to be addressed at the constitutional level.

d. **Participation and consultation in sector decision making (policy, management, operations, monitoring & evaluation.** The discussion on participation has not been about open democratic rights based participation but about how the state imposes the conservation and industrial agenda on communities and communities effectively subsidise the costs of industrial forestry.

**Biodiversity Sustainability**

A good policy must be clearly focused on sustainable forests and not just sustainable timber as this is no longer compatible with sustainable forest ecosystems any more. Mono-species plantation should be discouraged and forests should be allowed and indeed helped to regenerate as pools of diversity – not just business resources. Biodiversity sustainability is possible when communities have ownership, control and management rights over forest resources.

The timber wealth created during the lifespan of the 1994 policy has not benefited the majority of forest stakeholders. There is therefore the need to explore a more diverse and less extractive use of forest resources such as ecotourism.

**Fair access**

The explicit task of policy here is to adress “timberisation” and the inordinate access that timber industry has to the forest resource compared to the smaller communal users. This involves a number of different measures as follows:

a. Formal recognition that both land and the forests are communities property – not of chiefs who are traditional custodians and not of the State which has usurped the management rights specific forestlands. The recognition of communities as owners of Ghana’s forests is important especially in the context of forest carbon, the appropriation of which is the biggest threat to community forest rights today.

» A regulatory system that allows communities to manage their own forests with professional support from the Forestry Commission and / or private foresters – similar to the scheme that allows non professionals to own pharmacies provided they have technical support from professional pharmacists. The regulatory regime on access to non-timber forest products (NTFPs) should be community controlled as practiced in
the CREMA concept. Fair benefit sharing

The system works to extract wealth from communities to the timber industry, the bulk of which finds its way off-shore; a situation which is highly exploitative of forest communities. This situation should be reversed. The cocoa sector provides a good model for emulation where both the land and the cocoa production systems are in the hands of local communities.

b. The legislation on Revenue collection from timber companies needs to be enforced. Unfortunately, the stakeholder representation nature of the Forestry Commission Board as well as the control of the Board by the Industry is making enforcement of the fiscal regime difficult. For example, payment of TRFs and quarterly review of stumpage fees have not been enforced because the industry will have to pay more and their members on the FCB are blocking enforcement of this. There is the need to transform the FC Board from a stakeholder representation board to one that ensures professionalism in forest resource management and forest resource growth. Until a constitutional review of the disbursement of forest revenue is done, forest revenues collected must be disbursed in accordance with the formula set out in the Constitution. There is simply no excuse not to do so. The Forestry Commission (FC) is mandated by the Forest Ordinance Act not to take more than one third of the revenue as management costs. Currently, there is no information on what constitute management costs and this need to be resolved. There is the need to develop policy on how District Assemblies and stools use their share of the royalties.

Participatory Approaches

Citizens’ participation in forestry policymaking and forest management are fundamental to reform and indeed to any successful policy implementation. Over the years, policy formulation has been top down. Some semblance of consultation is done to satisfy donor requirements for the release of funds but not because it is best practice. To make progress on this front the following need to be considered:

a. The Policy must speak to minimum standards and processes for participation. In accordance with good practice consultation should involve:
   » all those who will be affected by decisions;
   » all those who will be involved in implementation of decisions; and
   » all those who have been elected to work on the issues to be affected by decisions.

In practice this means devolution of decision-making as close as possible to stakeholders as possible and thus restructuring over the medium to long term of sector institutions. It means representation of stakeholders on different policy and management bodies within the sector. It means support to stakeholder groups to achieve the appropriate levels of organisation and “informedness” to participate in these discussions and defend their interests.

In practice this means the policy must provide for financial and other resources required to support representation, consultation and participation in all decision-making processes.

Group Work

» Continued discussion of the revised forest and wildlife policy (2011) to enable communities become aware of the contents of the policy, the provisions for the communities, the rights, roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders.

» Communities appreciation of the important role they play in sustainable forest management and therefore the power they wield but which have been largely not utilized.
Gender

Gender inequality intersects with economic deprivation to produce more intensified forms of poverty for women than men. Gender inequality is part and parcel of the processes of causing and deepening poverty in a society and must therefore constitute part and parcel of measures to eradicate poverty (Kabeer, 2003).

Objectives:

» To introduce gender-related concepts
» To illustrate the concept of equity
» To introduce gender differences/gaps

Introduction

Over the years, our governments have continued to acknowledge the significant differences between the rights and opportunities of women and men and have gone on to subscribe to various international instruments which require that efforts are made to progressively improve the condition of women. It still remains the case however, that there are deep inequalities in relation to resources rights and effective participation in decision-making processes. In Ghana as in all cultures around the world, gender inequalities are propagated by culture and tradition and require calculated effort to achieve any meaningful change.

In order to achieve gender equality, it is critical to redress inequalities related to access to resources and promote equity in order to rectify the historical and social disadvantages experienced by women. Attention needs to be given to what is usually described as women’s “special condition”, that is, the social, economic and cultural factors which continue to keep women in a situation of disadvantage and subordination in relation to men. This requires special measures.

The eradication of gender inequality requires commitment on the part of government to adopt policy and legislative measures which ensure that women participate fully in decision-making processes. There needs to be a process in place to ensure consistency in efforts to remove gender inequality at all levels. This can only be achieved through gender mainstreaming in policy making.

Gender: Key Concepts
(Facilitator’s Notes)

Gender refers to social meaning given to women and men. Whereas biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that is learned, changes over time, and varies widely within and across cultures. Gender describes the array of different socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that a particular society assigns to men or women. Gender is relational and refers not simply to women or men but to the power relationships between them, known as the Social Relations of Gender.

Discrimination against Women

“Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.” (CEDAW Article 1: the term “discrimination against women”).

Gender analysis

Gender analysis is social analysis that distinguishes the resources, activities, potentials and constraints of women/girls relative to men/boys in a given socio-economic group and context. It requires the collection of sex-disaggregated data and analyzing this information using the gender analysis.

Gender analysis broadly answers a number of key questions:

Who does what?
Who has what?
Who decides? How?
Who wins? Who loses?
Gender analysis helps to understand a particular development problem in a more comprehensive and precise way.

**Gender Aware**

Gender aware is a term to describe an intervention that identifies and addresses the different gender needs of women and men. A gender aware intervention can be considered

- **Gender neutral** when it accurately assesses the existing gender division of labour and takes this into account. For example, a gender neutral livestock project recognizes both men’s and women’s different livestock roles; it provides resources and uses approaches that benefit both women and men in their current roles. Gender neutral projects work within the existing gender division of labour, and improve women’s and men’s condition, but do not aim to improve the position of women in society.

- **Gender specific** when it targets and benefits women. For example, a gender specific livestock project would target women only and address their particular needs as livestock farmers, such as increasing the number of female extension workers or veterinarians so that women livestock farmers can receive the information and assistance they need to improve their productivity. A gender specific project could also target men in order to benefit women as well as men. For example, a project with the goal of increasing opportunities for women to work in non-traditional occupations might target men in the community, male workers and employers in order to build their awareness of the importance of employment opportunities for women, address discriminatory attitudes, and develop policies to create safe and respectful working environments.

- **Gender transformative** when the aim is to transform gender relations to be more equitable. For example, a gender transformatory project would aim to empower women livestock farmers and increase their access to and control of higher value livestock activities.

In contrast, gender unaware projects do not specifically identify and address the different gender needs of women and men. As a result, they often address only men’s needs, interests and priorities and reinforce the subordination of women.

**Equality of outcome**

Equality of outcome is the focus on women and men enjoying the same benefits. It challenges the idea of “equal opportunity” because even though women and men may be given the same opportunity (equal opportunity) to access a resource (such as applying for a job), they have different advantages and face different constraints that limit their chances to take advantage of the opportunity. For example, in some communities, men have generally received more education, have more formal job experience and as a result are more likely to be hired than women even if the job does not require the higher education or experience in formal employment. Focusing only on equal opportunity to apply for jobs may therefore serve to further marginalize women from the formal labour market. By emphasizing “equality of outcome”, the focus is on the actual results of interventions, not just the provision of inputs, and what measures need to be in place so women and men enjoy the same benefits.

**Empowerment**

Empowerment refers both to a process and a goal. As a process, empowerment is about people, who have been denied power, gaining power, in particular being able to make strategic choices about their lives. In order for women, or other marginalized groups, to gain the power to make choices about their lives, they need to access and control resources, and be able to use those resources to achieve the life they value. Having that ability requires internal resources, such as self confidence and a belief that change is possible, which is often encouraged through a process of consciousness raising, and removal of external constraints to action. To create sustainable change an empowerment process must therefore change people’s self-perception, their control over their lives and their material environments.

As a goal, empowerment is the creation of more equal power relations between women and men.

**Gender Division of Labour**

Gender Division of Labour describes the different roles, responsibilities and activities assigned to men and women according to what society considers appropriate. The roles women and men undertake can be thought of in terms of:

- **Productive work**: tasks and activities that involve the production of goods and services that usually can be exchanged for cash or kind. Both men and women engage in productive work, but women’s productive work is usually undervalued, often invisible and less diverse than men’s due to socio-cultural constraints.
When women do work, it is generally in the informal sector.

**Reproductive work:** tasks and activities carried out to reproduce and care for children and the household. These include child birth, child rearing and family planning, food preparation, water and fuel collection, shopping, housekeeping and family health care. Reproductive work is usually unpaid, manual work done mostly by women and girls.

**Gender Needs**

**Gender Equality**

Gender equality is the concept that both men and women are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles, or prejudices. Gender equality means that the different behaviours, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally. It does not mean that women and men have to become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female.

**Gender Equity**

Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment for women and men but often women and men need to receive different treatment in order to receive the same benefits and experience their rights. In the development context, gender equity often requires built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages of women (such as restrictions on mobility or access to education) or may mean projects targeted to women only (see gender specific under gender aware).

Gender needs are the specific needs of women and men that result from the Gender Division of Labour as well as the subordinate position of women compared to men.

Gender needs can be thought of in terms of **Practical Gender Needs** and **Strategic Gender Interests**.

**Practical Gender Needs (PGNs)** are related to the physical needs of both women/girls and men/boys (for example, need for food, water, shelter) and their respective roles in satisfying these needs. For example, women/girls spend a lot more time collecting fuel and water for the household than men. A PGN for women would to be lessen their time and labour in providing fuel and water. In another example, both women and men are involved in livestock but take care of different types of animals and have different responsibilities; hence they have different PGNs concerning livestock.

**Strategic Gender Interests (SGIs)** are related to women’s/girls’ and men’s/boys relative positions in society and result from women’s subordinate position and men’s privilege. Addressing SGIs for women improves relative position of women to men. For example, a SGI for women is freedom of movement or women being able to take decisions for themselves.

**Access and Control of Resources and Benefits**

Access is the opportunity to use something.

Control is being able to define and impose its use.

Resources include time, information, educational opportunities, decision-making (bargaining power), income, and other economic resources, health and well-being, mobility, social networks and access to collective organisation as well as internal resources such as self-esteem and confidence.

Benefits are the result of the use of a resource and include income, asset ownership, knowledge and status. For example, education, health, mobility and social networks are all resources that can help to secure paid employment; income, skills and social status are benefits gained through employment.

Because of women’s and men’s different roles and, more importantly, differences in position, they have different access to resources (for example, credit) and the benefits derived from that resource (for example, income). This difference is mainly due to who has control over resources and benefits. When considering how women and men are supposed benefit from development initiatives, it is critical to look at how they are accessing project resources as well as who is controlling their use.

Often, development initiatives focus on access to resources (for example, getting more women to participate in self-help group for farmers) but not who is controlling this access (for example, the executive committee of the group who are likely men) as well as who has access to the benefits resulting from these groups (for example, who gets what from participating in the self-help group, whose status and opportunities
are increased from being on the executive committee).

**Sex-disaggregated data**

Sex disaggregated data is collected and recorded on the basis of women/girls and men/boys. It also refers to collecting data on issues that allow monitoring and evaluation of gender issues relevant to the project. For example, enrolment data for training should be collected for both women and men but data on drop-out, completion and tracer data of use of knowledge and skills from training after completion should also be collected, by sex, to understand who actually benefits from training.

Sex and Gender are not the same

Mainstreaming

“Mainstreaming” is a process rather than a goal that consists in bringing what can be seen as marginal into the core business and main decision-making process of an organisation (UNESCO, 2003)

Gender mainstreaming was established as a global strategy for promoting gender equality in the Platform for Action which was adopted at the UN 4th World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995). The Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) identified 2 strands in the achievement of gender equality:

» specific policy, programmes and resources for the empowerment of women

» The integration of women’s issues and gender equality perspectives into the mainstream of all policies, programmes and resource allocations

A number of approaches have already been explored, namely:

a. **The Welfare Approach**: this focused on women as mothers and wives e.g., issues of nutrition, maternal and child health

b. **The Women In Development Approach**: this was based on concerns that women were left out of economic development. It focused on women’s productive role and on strategies such as income generation

c. **The Gender and Development Approach**: This focuses on the relationship between women and men at micro and macro levels. It emphasizes women’s participation in decision-making at all levels.

**Definition**

“… In any area and at all levels, a gender mainstreaming perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men in any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes” (1997, UN ECOSOC)

**Gender mainstreaming is:**

A strategy for making women’s as well as men’s (differential) concerns and experiences an integral dimension in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres such that inequality between women and men is not perpetuated.

**Gender Mainstreaming therefore means/implies:**

» Forging and strengthening the political will to achieve gender equality at the local, national, regional and global levels

» Incorporating a gender perspective into the planning processes of all ministries and departments of government, particularly those concerned with development planning, management, human resource policies and legal affairs

» Integrating a gender perspective into all phases of sectoral planning cycles, including the analysis, development, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and projects

» Using sex disaggregated data in statistical analysis to reveal how policies impact differently on women and men

» Increasing the numbers of women in decision-making positions in government as well as the public and private sectors

» Providing tools and training in gender awareness, gender analysis and gender planning for decision-makers, senior managers and other key personnel

» Forging linkages between governments, the private sector, civil society, etc to ensure a better use of resources

Gender mainstreaming brings about:
Equality
Efficiency
Sustainability

Some Challenges to Gender Mainstreaming

- Inadequate knowledge on the meaning of Gender mainstreaming
- The needed data to inform policy-making is rarely gender sensitive and data systems are often not sex disaggregated
- Lack of capacity for gender analysis creates a sense that gender mainstreaming is donor-imposed
- Widespread policy evaporation as well as the phenomena of ‘invisibilisation’ and ‘resistance’
- Persistence knowledge gaps which perpetuate implementation problems
- Gender equality is a long-term objective and change is incremental. There are therefore problems in measuring outputs and impacts of mainstreaming in policies as well as sector programmes

Group Exercise

1. Illustrating Equity: A Bowl of banku for Fati and Kofi
   a. Take 2 people (a man and a woman, if possible) and give the following example:
      - “Kofi works very hard. He has too much work. He has to get up early in the morning and go to his mango farm. He has no one to help him, he does not sleep enough and has no time for relaxation. This morning, he left home very early and did not even eat anything. He was not looking forward to the long walk to his farm. In any case, the only food available was the leftover of yesterday’s banku and palmnut soup and he would have liked some boiled yam with garden egg stew and “koobi” (salted fish).”
      - “Fati is a beautiful hardworking woman. She takes a 30-minute walk every morning to take in fresh air and admire nature! She works hard at her bakery where she employs 4 young men and women. While her workers prepare the dough for the day’s work and clean out the oven, Fati takes her breakfast – “hausa koko” and “koose”. She looks forward to her meal of banku and soup (her favourite) which will be prepared by her daughter later in the day.”
   b. Ask the participants the following key question:
      - What do you think will happen?

Possible Answers:
- Fati will arrive first: she can run fast because she’s fit whereas Kofi is tired, unfit and hungry
- Fati will arrive first and probably eat most, if not all the banku and soup. She likes banku very much while the man prefers boiled yam. If she is not aware of Kofi’s disadvantaged position, she may not even leave anything for him

Key questions:
- Is the situation fair?
- Explain why it is not fair or otherwise
- If the situation is not fair, what can be done to make it fair?

(Remind the participants that there was no discrimination in making the food available; the plate was accessible to both Kofi and Fati at the same time).

Possible Answers:
- Let Kofi reach the plate first or put the food closer to Kofi
- Divide the food into 2 equal parts; one for Kofi and the other for Fati
- Make Fati aware that Kofi has not eaten all day, so she must share and maybe leave some for him
- Reduce Kofi’s workload so that he can also be fit
- Provide both boiled yam and banku so that they can both have what they like. If that’s not possible, provide only boiled yam, Kofi’s favourite, since he has a greater need of food than Fati.

Note: Emphasize that these possible answers are called “positive actions”. They aim to make the situation fairer and more equitable. They take into account the fact that some people do not have the same opportunity to access resources. There can be no equality when
people do not have the same opportunities.

* An adaptation of “Plate of Rice”

“Plate of Rice” was developed by Brigitte Leduc from the International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)

### Hand out 1: Some Gender Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Identifies the biological differences between men and women, such as women can give birth, and men provide sperm. Sex roles are universal.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Identifies the social relations between men and women. It refers to the relationship between men and women, boys and girls, and how this is socially constructed. Gender roles are dynamic and change over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Mainstreaming</td>
<td>The process of ensuring that women and men have equal access to and control over resources, development benefits and decision-making, at all stages of development process, projects, programs or policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-blind</td>
<td>A failure to recognize that gender is an essential determinant of social outcomes impacting on projects and policies. A gender-blind approach assumes gender is not an influencing factor in projects, programs or policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Awareness</td>
<td>An understanding that there are socially determined differences between women and men based on learned behavior, which affects access to and control resources. This awareness needs to be applied through gender analysis into projects, programs and policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Sensitivity</td>
<td>Encompasses the ability to acknowledge and highlight existing gender differences, issues and inequalities and incorporate these into strategies and actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equality</td>
<td>The result of the absence of discrimination on the basis of a person’s sex in opportunities and the equal allocation of resources or benefits or in access to services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equity</td>
<td>Entails the provision of fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibilities between women and men. The concept recognizes that women and men have different needs and power and that these differences should be identified and addressed in a manner that rectifies the imbalances between the sexes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Analysis</td>
<td>The methodology for collecting and processing information about gender. It provides disaggregated data by sex, and an understanding of the social construction of gender roles, how labor is divided and valued. Gender Analysis is the process of analyzing information in order to ensure development benefits and resources are effectively and equitably targeted to both women and men, and to successfully anticipate and avoid any negative impacts development interventions may have on women or on gender relations. Gender analysis is conducted through a variety of tools and frameworks, including those listed below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex-disaggregated data</td>
<td>For a gender analysis, all data should be separated by sex in order to allow differential impacts on men and women to be measured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Planning</td>
<td>Refers to the process of planning developmental programs and projects that are gender sensitive and which take into account the impact of differing gender roles and gender needs of women and men in the target community or sector. It involves the selection of appropriate approaches to address not only women and men's practical needs, but also identifies entry points for challenging unequal relations (i.e., strategic needs) and for enhancing the gender-responsiveness of policy dialogue.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Gender Roles**

Learned behaviors in a given society/community, or other special group, that condition which activities, tasks and responsibilities are perceived as male and female. Gender roles are affected by age, class, race, ethnicity, religion and by the geographical, economic and political environment. Changes in gender roles often occur in response to changing economic, natural or political circumstances, including development efforts.

Both men and women play multiple roles in society. The gender roles of women can be identified as reproductive, productive and community managing roles, while men’s are categorized as either productive or community politics. Men are able to focus on a particular productive role and play their multiple roles sequentially. Women, in contrast to men, must play their roles simultaneously and balance competing claims on time for each of them.

**Gender Needs**

Leading on from the fact that women and men have differing roles based on their gender, they will also have differing gender needs. These needs can be classified as either strategic or practical needs.

**Access and Control**

Productive, reproductive and community roles require the use of resources. In general, women and men have different levels of both access (the opportunity to make use of something) to the resources needed for their work, and control (the ability to define its use and impose that definition on others) over those resources.

**Resources**

Resources can be economic: such as land or equipment; political: such as representation, leadership and legal structures; social: such as child care, family planning, education; and also time—a critical but often scarce resource.

**WID and GAD: What Are the Differences?**

Women in Development (WID) and Gender in Development (GAD) are sometimes used interchangeably, but there are some basic differences. The WID approach was developed in the 1970s with the objective of designing actions and policies to integrate women fully into development. The GAD approach was developed in the 1980s with the objective of removing disparities in social, economic and political equality between women and men as a pre-condition for achieving people-centered development. Both approaches are still in use and are applicable in different ways.

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**Handout 2: Some international instruments on gender and resource rights**

**Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR, 1948) - Article 17.1**

1. Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others. (2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

**UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, 1979) - Article 14**

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.

**Beijing Platform for Action (1995)**

In particular, paragraphs 58, 60, 61 where actions to be taken are mentioned:

58. By Governments:

(m) Enable women to obtain affordable housing and access to land by, among other things, removing all obstacles to access, with special emphasis on meeting the needs of women, especially those living in poverty and female heads of household;

(n) Formulate and implement policies and programmes that enhance the access of women agricultural and fisheries producers (including subsistence farmers and producers, especially in rural areas)
to financial, technical, extension and marketing services; provide access to and control of land, appropriate infrastructure and technology in order to increase women’s incomes and promote household food security, especially in rural areas and, where appropriate, encourage the development of producer-owned, market-based cooperatives;

60. By national and international non-governmental organizations and women’s groups:

(f) Mobilize to protect women’s right to full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land and other property, credit, natural resources and appropriate technologies;

61. By Governments:

(b) Undertake legislative and administrative reforms to give women full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land and other property, credit, natural resources and appropriate technologies;

Instanbul Declaration on Human Settlement and Habitat Agenda (1996)

These two important documents include obligations related to women’s housing and inheritance rights. Under the Habitat Agenda, States commit themselves to “Provide legal security of tenure and equal access to land to all people, including women and those living in poverty; and undertaking legislative and administrative reforms to give women full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land and other property, credit, natural resources and appropriate technologies” (Sec. 40b)

“Undertake legislative and administrative reforms to give women full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance and the ownership of land and other property, credit, natural resources and appropriate technologies” (Sec. 72e)

“[…] Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should nevertheless strive to remove all possible obstacles that may hamper equitable access to land and ensure that equal rights of women and men related to land and property are protected under the law […]” (Sec. 75)

“Promote awareness campaigns, education and enabling practices regarding, in particular, legal rights with respect to tenure, land ownership and inheritance for women, so as to overcome existing barriers” (Sec. 78b).

United Nations Commission on Human Rights, Resolutions on Women’s equal ownership of, access to and control over land and the equal rights to own property and to adequate housing (56th, 57th, 59th and 61st session)

All the four resolutions are relevant. Some excerpts from the first one (2000/13) follow: [The Commission on Human Rights]

[…] 6. Encourages Governments to support the transformation of customs and traditions that discriminate against women and deny women security of tenure and equal ownership of, access to, and control over land and equal rights to own property and adequate housing and to ensure the right of women to equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes and in ownership of property and in adequate housing and to take other measures to increase land and housing availability to women living in poverty, particularly female heads of households;

7. Also encourages Governments, specialized agencies and other organizations of the United Nations system, international agencies and non-governmental organizations to provide judges, lawyers, political and other public officials, community leaders and other concerned persons, as appropriate, with information and human rights education concerning women’s equal ownership of, access to, and control over land and the equal rights to own property and to adequate housing; […]


This addition to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights explicitly protects women against discrimination and stipulates that women have the right to inherit equitable shares from their parents and from their husband as well as the right to buy and manage their own land. The protocol entered into force in November 2005 when it had been ratified by 15 countries.

Article 19. Right to Sustainable Development. Women shall have the right to fully enjoy their right to sustainable development. In this connection, the States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to:

a) introduce the gender perspective in the national
development planning procedures;

b) ensure participation of women at all levels in the conceptualisation, decision-making, implementation and evaluation of development policies and programmes; [...] promote women’s access to and control over productive resources such as land and guarantee their right to property; […]

Article 15. Right to Food Security. a) provide women with access to clean drinking water, sources of domestic fuel, land, and the means of producing nutritious food;


Voluntary Guidelines are still under negotiations under the CFS (as per February 2012). Accordingly, any provision is still subject to change. However, it is possible to identify provisions in the current draft (First Draft, October 2011) that are relevant to women’s land rights and gender, taking in mind that the VGs recognise that their interpretation and implementation should be “consistent with States’ existing obligations under international law, including the UDHR and other international human rights instruments” (Part 1, 1.1) and that CEDAW is explicitly mentioned in Annex 2.

Principles of implementation [...] 3b.4. * Gender equality: Ensure the equal right of women and men to the enjoyment of all human rights, while acknowledging differences between women and men and taking specific measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality when necessary. States should ensure that women and girls have equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests independent of their civil and marital status.

Rights and Responsibilities [...] 4.6 * States should remove and prohibit all forms of discrimination related to tenure rights, including those resulting from change of marital status, lack of legal capacity, and lack of access to economic resources. In particular, States should ensure equal tenure rights for women and men, including the right to inherit and bequeath these rights. Such State actions should be consistent with their existing obligations under relevant national law and legislation and international law, and with due regard to voluntary commitments under applicable regional and international instruments.*

Policy, legal and organisational frameworks [...] 5.4. * States should consider the particular obstacles faced by women and girls with regard to tenure and associated tenure rights and take measures to ensure that legal and policy frameworks provide adequate protection for women and that laws that recognise women’s tenure rights are enforced and implemented. States should ensure that women can legally enter into contracts concerning tenure rights on basis of equality with men and should strive to provide legal services and other assistance to enable women to defend their tenure interests. *

Safeguards [...] 7.4. States should ensure that women and men enjoy the same rights in the newly recognised tenure rights, and that those rights are reflected in records. Where possible, legal recognition and allocation of tenure rights of individuals, families and communities should be done systematically, progressing area by area in accordance with national priorities, in order to provide the poor and vulnerable with full opportunities to acquire legal recognition of their tenure rights. Legal support should be provided, particularly to the poor and vulnerable. Locally appropriate approaches should be used to increase transparency when records of tenure rights are initially created, including in the mapping of tenure rights. *

Public lands, fisheries and forests [...] 8.11 States should monitor the outcome of allocation programmes, including the gender-differentiated impacts on food security and poverty alleviation as well as their impacts on social, economic and environmental objectives and introduce corrective measures as required. *

Indigenous Peoples and other communities with customary tenure. […] 9.2. Indigenous peoples and other communities with customary tenure systems that exercise self-governance of land, fisheries and forests should promote and provide equitable, secure and sustainable rights to those resources, with special attention to the provision of equitable access for women. Effective participation of all members, men, women and youth in decisions regarding their tenure systems should be promoted through their local or traditional institutions, including in the case of collective tenure systems. Where necessary, communities should be assisted to increase the capacity of their members to participate fully in decision-making and governance of their tenure systems. *

Regulated spatial planning [...] 20.3 States should ensure that regulated spatial planning is conducted in a manner that recognizes the interconnected relationships between land, fisheries and forests and their uses, including the gendered aspects of their uses. States should strive towards reconciling and prioritizing public, community and private interests and accommodate the requirements for various uses, such as rural, agricultural, nomadic, urban and environmental. Spatial planning should consider all tenure rights, including overlapping and periodic rights. Appropriate risk assessments for spatial planning should be required. National, regional and local spatial
plans should be coordinated.

In addition, throughout the text gender-sensitive measures, policies, and actions are frequently mentioned. Where gender-sensitive is defined as follows (VGs Glossary):

Gender-sensitive policies, legislation, programmes, processes and communication methods recognize that women and men differ in terms of needs, constraints and opportunities. With these considerations in mind, they are formulated to ensure that both women and men benefit from development opportunities and realize their full productive and human potential. Gender-sensitive policies should be based in an in-depth understanding of the gender inequalities at all levels in places where these are implemented and include strategies and mechanisms to overcome gender inequalities. “Gender sensitive” is used in the Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security.

Handout 3:

Some Forms of Resistance to the Promotion of Gender Equality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of Resistance</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Methods of Countering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denial</td>
<td>This strategy can be used at different levels. For example, at a broad level, people can argue that gender equality is not a concern for their country, region or community. They could also say that a specific intervention does not discriminate against women</td>
<td>Present sound empirical evidence (statistics, oral history, research reports, etc) that document gender disparities and discriminatory practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token Action</td>
<td>The users of this action acknowledge that something should be done about equality issues but they are unwilling to think about significant change. They select a specific project (or component within a project) and this is usually based on a limited assessment of gender disparities, and may view women as a “vulnerable group”. In reality, equality would not have been taken up as a strategic issue</td>
<td>Ensure that equality issues are given a high profile at all stages of the planning process (not just problem identification). Ask questions about the eventual impact and results of the initiative and who will benefit (which women and which men).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lip Service</td>
<td>This has to do with acknowledging the issue at the level of Rhetoric, but failing to take meaningful action</td>
<td>Push for systems that monitor and evaluate impacts on equality between women and men in all the programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking on “Behalf of Women”</td>
<td>It is assumed that women are a homogeneous group who have one opinion and set of interests. For instance it is common to hear people make statements like: “I met with a women’s group and they told me that their primary concern was building a school for their children. This should be the major focus of our programme”. This person is most likely to have spoken to the women’s group outside the discussion of the programme being developed.</td>
<td>Present research that attempts to analyze both women’s interest and diversity. Make the case that an understanding of each situation is required and urge the use of gender-sensitive participatory methods</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Misconstrued Mainstreaming

Instead of a focus on equality between women and men as the **goal** for the mainstreaming strategy, the main emphasis is on the process of involving women, often in activities and programmes to which they have no opportunity to make an input. Officials argue that there are no specific programmes for women as women are invited to participate (or are welcome to participate) in all activities.

![Image](image-url)

Try to shift attention to the impact of the initiative and ask questions about who will benefit. Does the intervention widen gender disparities? Does it have the potential to contribute to more equal gender relations?

### Tokenism

One or two women are appointed to committees or invited to participate in a decision-making process. This is considered equality regardless of what proportion of the committee they represent or what interests their presence will serve.

Push for greater transparency of the decision-making process and, in general, more input into decisions by those affected by them.

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Building more equal gender relations is a slow process. There is a need to understand and come to terms with the numerous forms of resistance that are mobilized against change. Resistance can be conscious or unconscious, it can take place at various levels (personal and bureaucratic).

Source: Development Assistance Committee. DAC Source Book of Concepts and Approaches Linked to Gender Equality. OECD:

Chapter Five

Advocacy

Objectives:

» To enable participants understand and identify advocacy issues
» To enable participants plan advocacy, particularly at the community and district levels

Training Materials:

» Flipchart stand and paper
» Markers
» Masking tape
» Case studies

Introduction

Advocacy is about influencing people, policies, practices, structures and systems in order to bring about change. It is about influencing those in power to act in more equitable ways, so that the root causes of poverty can be addressed. It is a deliberate process to:

» influence those who make policy decisions,
» change policy and practises of institutions (government, private sector/industry, donors) and
» to change attitudes/behaviours of individuals to benefit those we speak for and with

Forest NGOs have defined Advocacy as “a process of sensitizing and conscientising society to be aware of issues in order to take informed decisions and influencing policy decisions for change” July 2003

Advocacy can be done directly by those affected by injustice or on their behalf, or by a combination of both. Anyone can undertake advocacy work – it does not need to be left to professionals or experts. The process of advocacy includes many different activities such as lobbying, mobilisation, education, research and networking among others. It can be undertaken alone, with a group of people or as part of a network. It must be carefully planned but there could also be opportunity for a one-off intervention or an advocacy ‘moment’.

Advocacy is at the heart of a well-functioning democracy. It is an alternative to revolution, and needed because it can tackle root causes of injustice. Through advocacy, people are empowered to become agents of change in their own communities, contributing to important changes to protect the environment and the rights and livelihoods of local people. Solutions imposed from ‘outside’ will not lead to empowerment of those involved and are unlikely to work. The process encourages people to think creatively and create innovative solutions to problems. Policymakers sometimes need the expertise of NGOs and, in some cases, their evidence as a counterweight to lobbying by big businesses.

Advocacy is a means – not an end.

Advocacy is a positive action - it is not only campaigning against something – but should offer positive alternatives. If we want policy makers to take our issues forward, we must make it clear what we want them do, motivate their interest in this change (find win-wins) and make it easy for them to do it.

Advocacy must be planned and managed just as thoroughly as any other activity.

Advocacy is a competitive field – there are many competing voices and influences on policy makers and policy approvers and most of the other competitors are better resourced than NGOs. Hence NGO advocacy must find other ways to influence power holders – such as linking to other influential power holders like donors, providing economic analysis and proof of economic consequences, mobilising the public’s moral conscience etc

Advocacy usually meets resistance as it is demanding a change. People don’t like change and vested interests in the status quo may be high. It can prompt negative reactions and can lead to conflicts – both internally and externally. Organisations need to prepare for this and build their capacity to respond to reactions to campaigns.
Advocacy is a high risk and high profile activity – it is important to be sure to have facts correct and get it right first time.

Group Work

» What are the root causes of poverty in your community?
» How did you identify these root causes?
» Who are responsible for them?
» How will you address the root causes?
» What resources do you need to address them?
» Who are the people who will help you to address them? (allies)
» Who are the people / institutions you have to talk to for the change you seek to happen?

Why Advocate?

The context of Natural Resource governance and management in Ghana is inherently inequitable and discriminatory against poor land users. Poor rural people lack:

» Secure rights of access to and benefits from Natural Resource
» Information on policies, rights and services
» Accessible, appropriate, affordable services

There are inequities in NR access, use, management and benefits at all levels. The real cost of NR depletion is almost as much as annual GDP (5.5% with 3.5% attributable to forest depletion). Current policies in Ghana discriminate against poor land and natural resource users – forest policy makes benefits from timber or tree planting almost impossible, and any benefits accruing are not shared equitably, land tenure is insecure, responsibilities for NRM are greater than the economic value that can be accessed, decision making is made exclusively by power holders.

Rights may denied either directly or indirectly because of issues of gender, place of origin, affiliation to political party, age, marital status or religious belief. Reduced resources and yields lead to discontent and desire for action by land users which is further frustrated by a lack of political will, policy implementation and regulation for NR development and poverty reduction. In addition, traditional or formal local authorities (chiefs and District Assemblies (DAs)) have little incentive to be accountable to their constituents and tend more towards politicized responses. As a result, local level civic expression is weak and demoralized, and Ghana’s patrimonial system continues to favour those in power. The current focus in the GPRS II and MDBS on private sector development may have the potential to benefit poor farmers but the reality has been to primarily benefit larger commercial farmers who are more able to take advantage of whatever assistance is available. In addition, unclear or incomplete policy results in weak implementation and regulation. For example, civil society has minimal actual participation in development planning decisions and lack of information on existing laws means that lack of enforcement is not monitored and reported.

The rationale to engage in advocacy is clear:

» Making a difference to lives of poor people is the value driving advocacy
» Development action at local community level cannot result in sustainable development and secure livelihoods without a supportive policy framework
» If we are serious about enabling poor people realise their rights then we have a fundamental obligation to political engagement and influencing power dynamics.
» This is not a choice between service provision and advocacy: capacity building for empowerment and advocacy for pro-poor change is essential to ensure poor people access the services they need

What are we Advocating for:

Vision and Goals

To begin the process of advocacy, it is important to first establish exactly what is at stake. Define the problem and understand as much about it as is possible. This may involve looking into causing or contributing factors behind the problem, gathering as much information about the underlying factors of a given situation and/or trying to understand the interests and motivations of the parties involved.

Building from an underlying commitment to addressing the root causes of poverty, marginalisation and denial of rights, we seek to advocate for systemic change, using advocacy as a tool. Civil Society seeks to build its advocacy work on issues of inequity and abuse of rights and to promote civil society claims to rights, service providers’ responsiveness to demands, and fulfilment of agreed responsibilities by all actors.
Civil Society advocacy agenda includes but is not limited to:

1. Recognition by policy and decision makers including traditional authorities and local and national government of their responsibilities and the rights of the poor to:
   » participate in decision making about and implementation of natural resource management.
   » Access productive resources including services, information, inputs and technical know how.
   » Access the benefits of natural resource management
   » Make informed decisions and determine their own development

2. Increased equity in the management and benefits of Natural Resources, including equity in:
   » Rights of access to natural resources for marginal groups dependent upon them for their livelihood (e.g. non-timber forest products (NTFPs), sheanut, bushmeat, medicinal plants, fuelwood, timber, seed)
   » Rights of land users to benefit from natural resources occurring or cultivated on the land they farm (NTFPs, timber)
   » Rights of all land users to security of land tenure
   » Rights of land users to benefits from responsibilities taken to manage NR sustainably

3. Recognition and response by policy makers of their responsibilities and Civil Society rights to:
   » a voice in development decisions which affect them
   » accountability and equitable decisions from their traditional authorities and local government

4. Responsibility of decision makers to be transparent and accountable in decision making at local, district and national level.

5. Ensuring the rights of poor land users are taken up by Civil Society, put on the national agenda and supported by national and sector policies and sector wide support programmes.

WHO IS ADVOCACY TARGETED TOWARDS?

Successful advocacy has a clear target regarding who needs to change. The target is generally a power holder and decision maker. A first step in advocacy planning is in identifying who the main target is and how this target may be reached. Influence maps and routes are helpful tools to understand who else to target in order to reach the main target.

Target groups with some examples may be:
- National government – e.g. MLNR, FC, MOFA
- Parliament, MPs and parliamentary select committees
- Policy formulators, makers, approvers, up to Presidency
- District Assemblies, local government
- Traditional authorities
- Multilateral and bilateral institutions and development partners and their coordination groups – World Bank, DFID etc
- Private sector – timber industry and associations
- Academics - political advisors, think-tanks, researchers
- Public – individuals, groups (traditional institutions, faith groups, trade unions, NGO groups etc)
- Individual power holders within government or parliament or any other group

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- Public – individuals, groups (traditional institutions, faith groups, trade unions, NGO groups etc)
- Individual power holders within government or parliament or any other group

Influence maps and routes are also useful for determining who are the likely “allies” and “enemies” along the way. These are people within the system or other influential people who can assist or derail the advocacy effort. Analysis of potential allies and enemies helps to understand their motivation and what driving forces they respond to and therefore which ones to cultivate and how to mitigate the influence of enemies. Some stakeholders may be allies and/or targets of advocacy – e.g. Traditional Authorities – as they play different roles in different circumstances. There may also be allies within a target group – e.g. certain individuals with a ministry which is targeted will certainly want the same
change that is being advocated. Opponents have to be identified as well. It is important to identify their strengths and develop a strategy regarding how best to counteract these strengths. It is often helpful to make a brief outline of allies and opponents to visualise their importance and influence.

**Messengers**

Advocacy requires a number of channels in addition to direct lobbying of the target group. Groups that can convey a powerful message, often in public can be valuable messengers for advocacy. For example:

**Media.** *The media* can play an important role in publicising a problem, or making it an issue local for national authorities to feel they must respond to. Bad publicity or an in-depth exposition in local newspapers can be powerful tools to get people to act. In making the choice of media type, one must understand that building relationships with journalists is an important investment and should be pursued by any community or NGO that wants to do advocacy work.

Parliament has oversight responsibilities over the work of the various sector ministries. Therefore establishing and maintaining relationship with key Parliamentary Select Committees would be useful in keeping them informed.

### Group Work

- Who are your allies? How do you know that?
- Who are your enemies? How do you know that?
- What can you do to turn your enemies into your allies?

**Approaches to Advocacy**

Advocacy approaches involve:

- Speaking on behalf of marginalised and powerless communities, primarily through CSO groups and coalitions.
- Assisting marginalised groups to speak out for themselves.
- Providing evidence of realities on the ground and analysis of researched facts in order to build a valid and strong case for change.

The advocacy strategy seeks to be gender sensitive. Since the strategy aims to support rather than lead advocacy its role is to build capacity within representative local structures and on issues of inequity and abuse of rights emerging from the result of NR work with partners and communities.

Approaches which build successfully on the comparative advantage civil society and NGOs have for advocacy are:

- Evidence based – demonstrating knowledge of reality on ground, well documented and provable. Community evidence together with legal/policy analysis inform the advocacy need, agenda and content.
- Value driven - NGOs have a moral message, act for the public good and for the poor and marginalised.
- Clear, simple and easily communicated advocacy messages – one aim for one campaign.
- Co-ordinated, working through and supporting strategic alliances or coalitions not alone. This enables using multiple channels of communication to feed evidence from ground into national process, and avoidance of any one organisation being negatively targeted in the reaction to the campaign.
- Having a constituency that expects you to advocate on their behalf
- Having direct links from grass roots to national level – enabling a voice at all levels
- Linked to international groups to lever support, provide protection and add external pressure

**Research** is a critical and recurring aspect of any advocacy campaign. It is vital to define the problem clearly for the parties (policy makers, communities, governments, organisations, etc.) who are significant in the change process. Where information is unavailable or inadequate, obtaining it may become part of the campaign’s demands. In instances where causes of a problem cannot be easily determined, a more elaborate research process may become part of the campaign demands (keeping in mind that relevant parties may have no interest in providing accurate information).

Also, research is needed because legislation addressing similar issues may already exist that can usefully be cited and relied upon, or indeed, improved upon and demands made for their enforcement. With accurate, reliable and sufficient information, advocacy targets are likely to be caught off-guard. During the research phase one must be as objective as possible, even where this involves acknowledging shortcomings: while passion and outrage may be powerful motivating factors, it is extremely damaging to any campaign to make a case or propose a solution that can be shown to be factually incorrect. It is important to make note of everything,
especially if a problem is ongoing: precision in dates and events is extremely important and would become critical in the event of a legal process.

**Three key Approaches:**

**Facilitating civil society advocacy and voice:**

**Enhancing Capacity for advocacy:**

- Enhancing CBO knowledge of their rights and opportunities available to them
- Building capacity of CS – communities, CBOs and local NGOs etc to organize for advocacy, to have confidence to present their case and demand their rights, to have ability to lobby DA and national institutions such as the Forestry Commission to function as prescribed
- Building capacity of the poor to mobilize themselves to access rights and responsibilities
- Supporting pilots which provide alternative solutions and their dissemination through local forums

**Creating space for citizen-government dialogue:**

- Creating space for civil society dialogue and debate with policy makers, facilitating negotiation between power structures and civil society
- Enabling organised civil society voice and participation in policy implementation, decision making and monitoring and running their own advocacy which aims to hold power holders to account.
- Linking CSOs/NGOs to policy makers and opportunities for engaging with policy formulation or advocacy
- Supporting communication channels for CS voice to be heard nationally – eg through District, regional and national Forest Forums

**Supporting coalitions to facilitate and implement advocacy:**

- Identifying coalitions or potential members, facilitating formation of coalitions/networks
- Support to research, information gathering and policy analysis
- Support to coalition design, planning and implementation of advocacy campaign plans
- Capacity building of coalition – member relations, participatory planning, information flow channels, monitoring and dissemination
- Facilitating links to international lobby groups, networks and allies
- Documenting process and progress

**Participating in direct evidence based advocacy:**

- Direct lobbying with government and donors
- Monitoring and analysing impact of current policies on poor people
- Presenting positive alternatives where possible with evidence of their potential success
- Presenting information and evidence from the “field” to national policy makers
- Participating in policy formulation processes
- Participating in donor - government dialogue processes
- Developing communication materials
- Linking to media and other allies nationally and internationally

**How advocacy relates to other civil society strengthening strategies**

Advocacy is one component of Civil Society Strengthening which takes action based on inequitable rights and benefits. Advocacy must be based on the desire for change – which is facilitated through community empowerment using rights based approaches, organisational development and capacity building. Successful advocacy contributes directly to civil society strengthening in a number of ways:

- through building CSO and NGO capacity to coordinate efforts and work in coalitions
- through providing CSOs and CBOs with a voice in dialogue and decision making forums
- through motivating the need and reinforcing the potential of civil society voice to influence real and pro-poor change

**Steps and methods for successful campaigns**

**Ten Elements of a Successful Campaign**

1. The urgency, importance and moral force of the issue
2. The quality of the analysis and arguments – presenting realistic alternatives whenever possible
3. The reputation and the credibility of the campaigning organization
4. Clear and focused objectives
5. A learning culture – monitoring progress, adapting tactics and evaluating results
6. The ability and capacity to mobilize pressure at many levels and at key influencing opportunities
7. Strong campaign leadership
8. The ability to work with and through other in network and alliances
9. Flexibility, responsiveness and political opportunism
10. Recruiting influential audiences in support of your campaign eg. Mass media, general public, consumer groups, international donors

Steps for advocacy work

1. **Assess and determine the need** for advocacy (it is not always required in CSS!):
   
   **Making a decision including a risk assessment:** Once the problem is defined, a decision will have to be made as to whether the campaign should be pursued or not. Part of this decision should be a risk assessment, as advocacy work can, unfortunately, be risky. It is therefore important to think through what potential risks there are for both the advocating organisation and the communities being supported, where that is the case. A strategy can then be developed to mitigate these risks as much as possible.
   
   » Analysis of underlying causes of poverty and identification of related policies and laws
   » Assessment of experiences from communities and partners in the programme, for example actual access to services or benefits
   » Analysis of rights and power – by all stakeholders
   » Identification of a potential advocacy agenda
   » Policy and legal research and analysis in relation to actual and/or potential impact on rural poor families and land users
   » Analysis of Policy implementation against actual practice

2. **Prioritise the advocacy agenda:**
   
   » Share and discuss findings of policy research with concerned stakeholders
   » Agree need and criteria for selection of agenda
   » Agree advocacy objective and core message

3. **Analyse agreed advocacy agenda:**
   
   » Knowledge of policy and CS environment
   » Understand the context: analysis PEST (politics/policy, economics, social/cultural issues, technical issues), local, national and international forces for change
   » Understand the reason for lack of policy implementation eg.
     » Powerful vested interests
     » Lack of political will, Apathy
     » Lack of operational guidelines and communication to decentralised staff
     » Lack of decentralisation etc

4. **Identify advocacy target, routes of influence, allies and enemies**
   
   » Identify the decision making pathways and decision makers
   » Use Influence trees to analyse who is influential and who influences the influencers
   » Identify positive and negative driving forces and agents, use force field analysis
   » Identify sources of accurate information and how to secure access to these

5. **Identify likely implementers and analyse their capacity for advocacy**
   
   » Assessing and agreeing participation, coalitions, partners
   » Joint analysis, joint actions and trust building for building agreements on networking and collaboration and what form of alliance or coalition
   » Capacity assessment of implementers

6. **Determine the depth of advocacy** required and feasible – for example:
   
   » Support to local groups to participate in District level forums and articulate their views
   » collaboration to support positive changes within government
   » a full campaign requiring detailed campaign planning and communication strategy
   » collaboration in policy debates
   » linking with existing coalitions and feeding them information

7. **Advocacy campaign planning:**
   
   » Agree advocacy strategy, recommended initial advocacy style and pitch (persuasive to confrontational) and relationship with government.
   » Planning campaigns and communications strategies: objectives, activities, monitoring,
   » Planning for and gaining access to policy and
monitoring information from government and donors and understanding the international consumer pressures

8. Developing and implementing the campaign strategy
   » Decide the work plan and timeframe
   » Develop the budget and ensure funds availability
   » Allocate tasks to specific people/organisations
   » Agree and implement leadership and decision making roles and responsibilities

9. Monitoring the campaign strategy, results and impact
   » Monitoring results and impact of campaigns (consider attribution, scale, MSCs)
   » Monitoring campaign process and its effectiveness
   » Monitoring capacity and “health” of coalitions/implementers

**Useful Tools and methods**

**Advocacy Tools used to include:**

» 4 Rs: analysis of rights, responsibilities, revenues and relationships which enables each stakeholder group to understand the situation of other groups and the inequities or illegalities within the system

» Power analysis: analysis of relationships and power dynamics within and between stakeholder groups

» 3 tier: a staged process for enabling communities to have the confidence and space to articulate their views and prepare representatives and communiqués for presentation to higher authorities and then with these institutions to policy makers themselves in participatory workshops with all stakeholders.

» Influence trees: analysis of who relates with the advocacy target and who relates with this group and so on to determine best points of entry

» Communication strategy planning: to determine level, pitch and format of communications for specific audiences and to plan concretely for their production

» Web sites: for wide communication and publicity and evidence to international stakeholders

» Press conferences: to reach wide media coverage and national attention

» Media journalists training: to ensure quality reporting and raise journalists interest and motivation in the issue

*This module is largely adapted from **Provoking Change**, an advocacy manual developed by FERN for NGOs working to improve forest sector governance.

**Handout 1**

Advocacy is about influencing people, policies, practices, structures and systems in order to bring about change. It is about influencing those in power to act in more equitable ways, so that the root causes of poverty can be addressed. Advocacy can be done directly by those affected by injustice or on their behalf, or by a combination of both. Anyone can undertake advocacy work – it does not need to be left to professionals or experts. The process of advocacy includes many different activities such as lobbying, mobilisation, education, research and networking among others. It can be undertaken alone, with a group of people or as part of a network. It must be carefully planned but there could also be opportunity for a one-off intervention or an advocacy ‘moment’.

Advocacy is at the heart of a well-functioning democracy. It is an alternative to revolution, and needed because it can tackle root causes of injustice. Through advocacy, people are empowered to become agents of change in their own communities, contributing to important changes to protect the environment and the rights and livelihoods of local people. Solutions imposed from ‘outside’ will not lead to empowerment of those involved and are unlikely to work. The process encourages people to think creatively and create innovative solutions to problems. Policymakers sometimes need the expertise of NGOs and, in some cases, their evidence as a counterweight to lobbying by big businesses.

Forest NGOs have defined Advocacy as “a process of sensitizing and conscientising society to be aware of issues in order to take informed decisions and influencing policy decisions for change” July 2003

1. **Defining the problem and gathering information**

To begin the process of advocacy, it is important to first establish exactly what is at stake. Define the problem and understand as much about it as is possible. This may involve looking into causing or contributing factors behind the problem, gathering as much information about the underlying factors of a given situation and/or trying to understand the interests and motivations of the parties involved.
Research is a critical and recurring aspect of any campaign. It is vital to define the problem clearly for the parties (policy makers, communities, governments, organisations, etc.) who are significant in the change process. Where information is unavailable or inadequate, obtaining it may become part of the campaign’s demands. In instances where causes of a problem cannot be easily determined, a more elaborate research process may become part of the campaign demands (keeping in mind that relevant parties may have no interest in providing accurate information).

Also, research is needed because legislation addressing similar issues may already exist that can usefully be cited and relied upon, or indeed, improved upon. With accurate, reliable and sufficient information, one is less likely to be caught off-guard. During the research phase one must be as objective as possible, even where this involves acknowledging shortcomings: while passion and outrage may be powerful motivating factors, it is extremely damaging to any campaign to make a case or propose a solution that can be shown to be factually incorrect. It is important to make note of everything, especially if a problem is ongoing: precision in dates and events is extremely important and would become critical in the event of a legal process.

Gathering information is critical in the process of defining the problem. Others – perhaps in another country – may have dealt with a similar situation before, may be willing to testify to the consequences of a proposed activity or project, may have developed a workable solution to the issue, or even have unique ways of addressing the needs of the various stakeholders involved. In this case, one may find important allies who are willing to support the process and share strategies. It is valuable to attempt to find out (through word of mouth, Internet searches, local and international organisations and networks) if the problem has occurred before elsewhere and how the situation played out. Possibly, legal or political solutions developed in other countries can usefully be adapted to the situation at hand.

Making a decision including a risk assessment: Once the problem is defined, a decision will have to be made as to whether the campaign should be pursued or not. Part of this decision should be a risk assessment, as advocacy work can, unfortunately, be risky. It is therefore important to think through what potential risks there are for both the advocating organisation and the communities being supported, where that is the case. A strategy can then be developed to mitigate these risks as much as possible.

II Planning the work

Defining the objective: Once the problem is and a significant volume of information gathered, it is time to formulate the objectives. An in-depth analysis of the causes of the problem will lead to the definition of campaign objectives. It must be clear to all what the campaign is set out to achieve. Objectives must always be SMART: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound. This makes planning, fundraising and evaluation easier for the campaign

Finding allies and identifying opponents: Once the objective is clear, it is important to find support. The first step is to talk to people and gather a group of individuals or organisations who all see and understand what is at stake. Almost all social organisations and movements were created on this basis.

Some initial questions to ask are:

- is this a local problem, or a national or a regional problem?
- Are international factors causing or influencing this problem?
- If problem is purely local, the solution ought to be local too; if it is a national problem, there is a strong chance that it will require a national solution. If ‘outside forces’ are involved, the involvement of international actors such as donors and NGOs from abroad may be required.

In any case, it is important to analyse potential allies and opponents. Allies could be as different as local communities, friendly government officials, whistleblowers, religious groups or friendly journalists. Once potential allies have been identified, strategies will have to be developed to get them on board the campaign. Allies do have their own agenda and own issues of concern, as such it is necessary to link them up as much as possible to the advocacy campaign so that they will be well motivated to support the action.

Opponents have to be identified as well. It is important to identify their strengths and develop a strategy regarding how best to counteract these strengths. It is often helpful to make a brief outline of allies and opponents to visualise their importance and influence.

Defining target groups: As stated previously, advocacy is about influencing people, policies, structures and systems in order to bring about change. Once the objectives are clear and a stakeholder analysis has been carried out, it is possible to identify the structures, organisations and hopefully the people within them that need to be addressed to bring about change. These will be form the target group(s).
III Campaigning

a. Awareness-raising

1. Raising awareness about an issue is an essential first step if a problem is not well known by the local population or the general public. There can be many reasons for a problem not being well known, not the least of which is that the forces pursuing an activity for their gain may prefer to present the wider public and other affected parties with a fait accompli rather than an opportunity to oppose that activity. For instance, when a country is building a dam, it may not be in the national interest to alert the neighbouring country to its future lack of drinking and irrigation water: that problem may become visible only once the water has disappeared! Alternatively, a problem may be well known but viewed as so pervasive that people cannot see any solution to it.

It can also be that, although the issue is well known by some, others do not view the same thing as a problem. Such is the case of a logging operation that provides jobs to some while destroying the livelihoods of others. In all these cases the problem must be clearly identified and solutions need to be developed that have the support of the majority of the people and that do not unnecessarily jeopardize others. This is simple in essence but requires time, research and in almost all cases a stakeholder analysis.

The media can play an important role in publicising a problem, or making it an issue local or national authorities feel they must respond to. Bad publicity or an in-depth exposition in local newspapers can be powerful tools to get people to act. In making the choice of media type, one must understand that building relationships with journalists is an important investment and should be pursued by any community or NGO that wants to do advocacy work.

2. Placing an issue on the political agenda

If the issue to be addressed is something the government should act on, it is important to get the issue ‘on the political agenda’: in other words, to make the issue visible as a problem that needs solving to those people in government who can make the necessary changes. In some cases, once the right people have been identified, it is enough just to write a letter or contact them in another way to make a case. In most cases, much more is needed: this can vary from grassroots lobbying, media campaigns and building coalitions with others.

3. Lobby for solutions

Even when an acceptable and workable solution has been developed, it may not be easy to inspire action on behalf of the relevant government representatives if the campaign does not have the support of a sufficiently large group of people or organisations to convince the government that proposed solution is widely supported. Often the final person to make a decision is a politician who depends on the public for votes. Getting the public involved can therefore be crucial. However, other organisations, specifically those which are well rooted in society – churches, mosques and/or, schools, for instance – can and often do support a particular issue; in many cases, churches and others have proven to be the influential ally able to obtain change. A careful analysis of potential allies as well as opponents is an essential part of lobbying for solutions.

b. Networking

1. Issue campaign or social movement?

Depending on the issue to be addressed, it often comes to light that a particular issue is linked to a much wider and deeper problem and that the changes required are quite fundamental. What is needed is a social movement for change. A social movement is often described as a movement that poses a sustained challenge to ‘power-holders’ by repeated public displays of the populations’ numbers, commitment, unity and worthiness. It can also be that, for a particular problem, a short and simple campaign addressing only that issue is enough. In both cases, networking is important.

2. Linking international networks to local action

There are formal and informal networks; there are national, regional and international networks; there are networks working on a single issue and networks working for social change. All of these have their own functions and their own merits. What sort of network would be useful for this particular campaign? Networks depend on people who believe that working together is more effective than working alone and hence are willing to put time and energy into building and maintaining their connections. A network does not have to be formal; it can simply be a group of friends or colleagues jointly working towards achieving the same objectives without a formal structure. Formal, national-level networks are easier to create and maintain than international networks, but still depend on people who believe in working together. Formal or informal, international networks can be very powerful for local campaigns as these networks can facilitate exchange of information upward and downwards between the network and local groups. They can also support the local campaign by providing relevant examples from...
elsewhere to help people understand their own situations better. Furthermore, being part of a network can help with broader international donor contacts, media contacts and campaign targets in influential countries or organisations. Other advantages of networking include pooling information, analyses, skills and resources; creating safety and strength in numbers; and saving time and resources by avoiding duplication.

However, networking can also have a detrimental impact on local campaigns. Networking is time-consuming and can create or increase competition between different groups (for funds, status or success); not everybody in the network will give freely of their resources, and this can lead to disagreements. Furthermore, international networks have a tendency to ‘take over’ national campaigns. Before calling in international support, local campaigns need to be sure to deal with pressure and information requests from international partners.

c. Lobbying

Assuming that the issue is on the political agenda, solutions have been or are being developed, allies and opponents have been or are being identified, it is time to achieve the desired change; it is time to influence the people, policies, structures and systems capable of bringing about that change. By this time targets and pressure points should have been identified, and a political analysis of the room for manoeuvre that people have carried out.

Now is the time to go out and convince these people of the problem and encourage them to take action. There are many different ways of approaching people, such as writing letters or position papers, making telephone calls, arranging formal or informal visits and meetings, participating in public meetings, using court cases, organising seminars, etc. Obtaining changes probably will require drafting statements, position papers and/or comments and responses to existing position papers.

Lobbying depends to some extent on one’s personality and what is most comfortable to do. Many different strategies can be followed, from relatively straightforward accusations to building long-term relationships with people who need to be informed. This will also depend on one’s own principles and values. It is helpful to develop some (personal) guidelines for lobbying.

It is important to be clear about what strategy is:

» are you going to inform them and convince them of your position; or

» are you going to ‘force’ parties to take the desired action; or

» are you going to negotiate a position; or

» are you making a clear win-win proposal?

In the process of ‘force’ action, there is the need to carry out a ‘power analysis’. Consider what powers can affect your target so that they can be forced to take action. In the case of negotiation, be clear on whose behalf you are negotiating and make sure you have a process in place to channel information back to the people you purport to be representing, so that you do not end up with an agreement that is not supported by the people you are representing. This is called a negotiating strategy. You may be able to propose a win-win solution, a result that will be beneficial to both parties. An example is an investor planning to invest in a highly unsustainable project, which will cause environmental and social destruction. Convincing the investor not to invest in the project (a mine, a pulp-mill, a dam) is a case of good business and avoiding future liability and hence the investor may be pleased to be informed about the problems beforehand. This is called a win-win strategy.

IV Evaluation

Evaluation is a very important part of advocacy work and should be included in every planning process. It is an essential, but often forgotten element of any campaign plan.

The main questions to ask when evaluating are:

• Are we achieving our (SMART) objectives?

• Are we on target to meet our overall goal?

If yes, the chosen strategy and actions were probably the correct ones. If no, a change in strategy may be necessary and it is best to go through the cycle again. A proper evaluation takes time, but is important to ensure the effectiveness. It is important to re-visit the entire strategy from time to time. During your campaign it is also important to monitor actions taken and assess whether all planned activities have been carried out according to schedule. In some cases, a change in strategy may be necessary.
Chapter Six

Working with Traditional Authorities

Objective:

» To enhance skills of facilitators to build interventions on indigenous knowledge systems and institutions for communities’ participation

Introduction

Community participation has been generally accepted by development practitioners as a precondition for any meaningful community development intervention. As such, various tools or models have been developed to maximise the participation of the poor and marginalized in communities in their development programmes. However, poverty reduction is still problematic because of the failure to build development interventions on the existing indigenous knowledge systems, indigenous institutions, forms of organization and indigenous resource base of the community.

In Ghana, in spite of the political organizational system, the majority of the people (in the rural areas) are still organized around their Traditional Authority systems as well as Indigenous Institutions for carrying out the activities that are important for their development and well being. Civil Society in the rural Ghana is embedded within these Traditional Authority and Indigenous Institutions and systems. These remain the key factors facilitating the organization of people at the rural level for their socio-economic development. Civil Society at the rural level is visible in the form of indigenous organizations such as Nnoba, Asafo, Susu groups, clan networks, hometown associations, etc., that are the structures through which poor rural families organize their social, economic and political lives. The resilience of rural people in spite of their serious deprivation at the rural level may be largely attributed to these institutions and forms of organization. Yet these opportunities for sustainable local and community organization have been undermined and ignored over the years by development practitioners.

These indigenous organizations are self-initiated self-help groups that are based on traditional norms of trust and reciprocity. They are not usually dependent on external support and will always exist even where there is no external support.

Traditional Authority System

This is an introduction to the set up of the Traditional Authorities’ system in both Northern and Southern Ghana and their roles in community development.

Traditional Authority comprises all the structures, system and processes which communities have evolved in the course of their history and development to govern themselves.

Composition of Traditional Authority

Northern Ghana

» Chief (Naaba, Namine, Kuoro, Wura)
» Women leaders (Mangazia, Pogname, Haala, Kuoro)
» Youth leaders (Polenaalaa)
» Traditional Priest (Tindana)
» Clan Heads.

Southern Ghana

» Chiefs (Ohene, Togbe, Nii)
» Queen Mother (Ohemaa, Mamao, Naa)
» Male and female youth leaders (Nkwakwaahene, Sohefia, Asafoakye, Mmerantehene)
» Clan heads (Nkonguasonfo)
» Elders (Abusuapanyin)
» Traditional Priest (Okomfo, Obosomfo, osofo)

Role of Traditional Authorities:

The Chieftaincy Institution is guaranteed by the 1992
constitution and organized into traditional councils, regional and national houses of chiefs. Its constitutional roles include:

» Advice government of matters relating to or affecting chieftaincy.
» Undertake the study, interpretation and codification of customary law and succession system
» Evaluating and eliminating customs that are outmoded and socially harmful.

Traditional role

» Executive / Political
  » Initiate projects
  » Manage community resources
  » Mobilize people
  » Liaise between government and the people
  » Receive visitors
» Judicial
  » Enact and enforce bye-laws
  » Settle disputes and conflicts
» Social / Cultural / Spiritual
  » Custodian of land. Property
  » Sustain traditional values
  » Protect communities spiritually

Pre-knowledge before contact

» Norms (the norms of the people should be followed and respected by the outsider)
» Acceptable behavior (you need to be very conscious about your gesticulation, the way you talk, how you sit with the elders, etc)
» Protocol (the traditional system of serving water to visitors, offering drinks / cola, performing traditional prayers, talking through the linguist, etc. should be accepted by the outsider and followed suit)

Flexibility

» Time schedule (always plan with the people to know when they will be available for you or your work. Do not force your time on them)
» Patience – go at the pace of the traditional authorities and communities

Open mindedness

» Follow traditions
» Do not be prejudiced. e.g. accept traditional entry protocol (traditional prayer forms)
» Be ready to unlearn and relearn (do not make yourself the repository of all wisdom and knowledge. Find learning opportunities.

Guidelines for working with Traditional Authorities

This section explains what facilitators should do and how they should behave in working with Traditional Authorities. It is to prepare people to put up the right behaviour and attitude in working with Traditional Authorities in order to achieve best results.

Attitudes and behavior

» Humility
» Respect
» Appropriate Dressing
» Culturally sensitive mannerisms
Chapter Seven

Social Responsibility Agreement

Key Principles of Social Responsibility:

1. Companies use the common environment and resources available to society for their business
2. Communities are affected by companies actions and policies
3. Companies must be aware of the impact of their actions on communities (the voiceless) and the environment and put measures in place to address them
4. It is an obligation of an organization’s management
5. It must contribute to the welfare of communities affected by the activities of companies.
6. Companies must act with concern, responsibility, transparency, accountability and sensitivity

What is Social Responsibility?

It is a legal obligation of the management of extractive companies towards the welfare and interests of communities affected by their policies and activities. Social Responsibility Agreement (SRA)– Timber Companies

The SRA is an agreement signed between the winner of the Timber Utilization Contract (TUC) bid and the communities fringing the forests where the company will be logging. It enable these communities to benefit from social services and benefits as compensation for the impact of the companies activities on the livelihoods and environment of the affected communities. Social Responsibility Agreements (SRAs) are a precondition for the grant of timber rights to timber companies i.e. a prerequisite for obtaining a permit to harvest timber in a given area (Act 547 Section 3 and Regulations 9 -13 of L.I. 1649 of 1998). The conclusion of an SRA negotiation process should include an undertaking by the winner of the bid to assist the affected communities with amenities, services or benefits. In monetary terms, the value shall not be less than five per cent of the total value of the annual stumpage fee from the harvested timber that is paid by the timber contractor to the Forest Services Division (FSD).

Characteristics of an SRA

1. Agreement or contract between timber company and forest fringe community
2. Spells out specific and time bound social obligations of the timber company towards communities fringing forests where the company will be logging
3. Code of conduct for the timber company
4. Condition for grant of timber rights
5. Provides a mechanism for communities to monitor the activities of the TUC holder

Purpose of SRA

1. Forest fringe communities whose livelihood and environment will be affected by the activities of timber companies to benefit have some social benefits directly from timber exploitation
2. To maintain good relationships between companies and communities
3. To enable fringe communities to monitor companies’ activities.
4. To ensure socially responsible timber operation
5. For timber companies to respect the existing rights of communities access to certain forest products in their TUC areas. To respect the social and cultural values of the communities in which they operate
6. To promote community consultations
7. Opportunity to specify the conditions under which the TUC holder should operate

Components of SRA

Code of conduct: The code of conduct ensures that the companies respect the rights and interest of local forest communities. It ensures that timber is logged at the right time, so that it will not affect the communities badly. It also ensures that areas where streams and rivers take their sources are protected, crops are not damaged and that the right compensation are paid to farmers whose crops get damaged in the process. When it is obvious that crops would be destroyed, compensations are to be negotiated, agreed upon and paid before logging is done. Communities must ensure that their rights of access to certain forest products are respected by the timber company. The operations of the timber company must not change the social and cultural values of the community.

Social obligation: It commits the timber companies to contribute at least five percent of the stumpage fees paid by the timber company to community development. Development projects could be in the form of schools, clinic, toilets and community centres etc but the decision on what is provided lies with the community, not the timber industry. Community members are expected to be the main beneficiaries and therefore there are opportunities for citizen participation in the decision making processes leading to the allocation of timber rights. Social Responsibility Agreement negotiations must follow a system where decision making starts at the community level.

Community needs and local priorities must reflect in national policy. Lack of SRA negotiation skills among the forest fringe communities has provided the traditional leaders with an opportunity to do the negotiations on behalf of the community. This has led to situations where some traditional leaders go about the negotiations in a non-transparent and unaccountable manner. The formation of local SRA Committees and capacity building of committee members is an effective way of providing the communities with the requisite skills.

A number of steps have been identified to help communities to ensure that the SRAs are negotiated in an effective manner. These steps are outlined as follows:

1. Communities must be involved in identifying areas that are suitable for logging. This must be done when the Forest Services Division (FSD) is at the stage of identifying areas and defining the boundaries of the identified TUC area in consultation with the chiefs.
2. Community members must propose particular conditions to be satisfied by the logging company when the company begins operations. The community members must indicate their priorities for local development.
3. Communities must make sure the provisions in the Timber Operation Specification (TOS) reflect in the SRA and the agreement is signed before logging starts. The communities must ensure that they sign the SRA with all timber companies or contractors working in their areas.
4. The forest communities must make sure that the District Forest Manager and the District Chief Executive (DCE) or his /her representative witness all negotiations and signing with timber companies to ensure equity and fairness in the negotiations. Representatives of the landowning communities and the TUC applicant are the parties to the SRA. An SRA is a public document. Copies must be kept with all the parties involved at the stage of signing including the witnesses i.e. the FSD and the District or Municipal Assembly.

Communities should ensure that SRA negotiations are not made on ethnic and political lines. Social amenities, materials and services should be demanded by the landowning communities during SRA negotiations. These demands should be made specific as as possible for clarity and the decision should be informed by knowledge of the value of the 5% of the stumpage fee to be paid by the timber company. There should be no conditional demands. Forest fringe communities should not see the provision of social amenities by logging companies as an act of good will by those companies. It should rather be seen as an entitlement deriving from the law. For increased transparency and accountability, the forest fringe communities should be linked through Local SRA Committees (LSRACs) to the various District Forestry offices and the regional offices of the Administrator of Stool Lands (AOSL). Communities can determine their qualification to benefit from SRA from a company by how close they are to the contractor’s permit area. The community must be located within five kilometre distance from the forest reserve where logging is taking place.

Who is involved in the SRA process?

1. TUC applicant: Timber company; Signatory & implementer
2. Representatives of communities: Signatory & monitor

3. Forest services Division whose role is to
   » Provide communities with the value of the 5% stumpage fee
   » Provide communities with information on the TUC area, the timber company who hold the TUC, the trees to be logged and the duration of the TUC
   » Witness the negotiation and signing process
   » Facilitate the negotiation process
   » Monitor

4. District/Municipal Assemblies: who also have to witness and monitor

5. Forest Forum Facilitators can also
   » Assist communities to prioritize their development objectives
   » Educate communities on the procedure for developing the SRA
   » Educate communities about the TUC allocation procedure.
   » Facilitate the formation and functioning of LSRACs
   » Monitor the implementation of the SRA
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