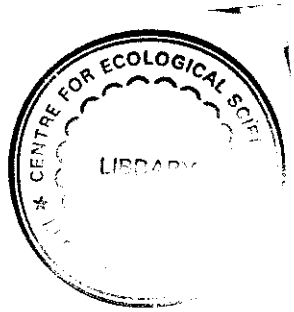
Proceedings of the Training Programme On Microlevel Planning for Integrated Development of Wastelands

12-14 September 1991

TECHNICAL REPORT NO. 69

Centre for Ecological Sciences
Indian Institute of Science
Bangalore 560012



TRAINING PROGRAMME

ON

MICO LEVEL PLANNING FOR INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT OF

WASTELANDS

DATES : 12-14 September 1991

VENUE : Centre for Ecological Sciences
Indian Institute of Science
Bangalore 560012

Programme

12 September 1991		
09.30 - 10.00 am	Registration and Introduction	
10.00 - 10.15 am	Introductory remarks	NWDB representative
10.15 - 10.45 am	Introduction of the theme : Status of Wastelands Development Programme	Madhav Gadgil
10.45 - 11.15 am	TEA	
11.15 - 12.00 pm	NWDB programme, opportunities and problems	R.P. Kapoor
12.00 - 01.00 pm	Field experience on implementation of microplanning	From two districts where microplan has been prepared
01.00 - 02.00 pm	LUNCH	
02.00 - 03.30 pm	Approach for micro-level planning for integrated development of wastelands and steps in preparation and implementation of micro-level planning	N.H. Ravindranath
03.30 - 03.45	TEA	
03.45 - 04.30 pm	Presentation on participatory rapid appraisal	MYRADA
04.30 - 06.00 pm	Discussion with participants	Ranjit Issar

06.00 - 06.30 pm	Film by NWDB	

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08.00 - 06.00 pm	Participatory Learning Methods (PALM) Field Exercises	MYRADA
07.30 am	Breakfast at Hoysala House, IISc	
08.00 am	Departure for Bidadi	
09.00 am	Arrival at Bidadi	
09.30 am	Introductory meeting with villagers	
10.00 - 12.00 noon	Introductory PRA exercise (sub groups)	
12.00 - 01.00 pm	Presentations by sub groups	
01.00 - 02.00 pm	LUNCH	
02.00 - 05.00 pm	Field transects and resource mapping Participatory mapping and treatment plans	
05.00 - 06.00 pm	Presentations and conclusion	
06.00 pm	Departure for Bangaloro	

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09.00 - 10.00 am	Discussion on field work	MYRADA
10.00 - 10.45 am	Community participation in microlevel planning in watershed development areas	Ranganatha Shastri
10.45 - 11.30	Role of forest department in planning and implementation of microlevel plans for development of wastelands	G.S. Prabhu
11.30 - 11.45 am	TEA	
11.45 - 12.15 pm	Implementation of micro plans	Madhav Gadgil
12.15 - 01.00 pm	Monitoring and evaluation of wasteland development programme	N.H. Ravindranath
01.00 - 02.00 pm	LUNCH	

02.00 - 03.15	Panel discussion on issues and problems identified by the participants
03.15 - 03.30	TEA
03.30 - 05.00	Presentations by the participants

TRAINING PROGRAMME

ON

MICROLEVEL PLANNING FOR

INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT OF WASTELANDS

12-14 SEPTEMBER 1991

NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF THE PARTICIPANTS

I. Prticipants from the State Governments

	Name	Phone no.
1.	K.S. Aralikatti Deputy Conservator of Forests Bellary forest Division Bellary	2287 - O 2706 - R
2.	P. Anur Reddy Deputy Conservator of Forests (Social forestry), Z.P. Bellary	3539 - O 3307 - R
3.	Subhash C. Khuntia Chief Secretary Zilla Parishat Bellary 583101	3181 - O 4397 - R
4.	K. Tirupataiah District Forest Officer Anantpur	20698 - O 21408 - R
5.	C.S. Yalakki Divisional Forest Officer Nilambur (North) Malappuram District Kerala	232 - O 352 - R
6.	I.V. Subba Rao Collector Chittoor	2344 - O 2865 - R
7.	R. Nagaraja Reddy Divisional Forest Officer Kalahandi Forest Division Bhawanipatna 766001, Orissa	526 - O 226 - R

8.	P.H. Kurian Project Officer D.R.D.A. Kalahandi 766001, Orissa	334 - O 357 - R
9.	Pravakar Behera Divisional forest Officer Sundergarh Division District Sundergarh Orissa	2243 - O 2262 - R
10.	V. Giriraj Additional Collector Poona 411001	664137 - R 660543 - R
11.	S.N. Khurana Deputy Chief Conservator of Forests Pune	57908 - O 331581 - R
12.	V.P. Adinarayana Divisional Forest Officer Social Forestry Chittor (A.P.)	3670 - O
13.	M. Samuel Collector and District Magistrate Anantpur Andhra Pradesh	20306 - O 20801 - R 20081 - R
14.	P.P. Narayanan Asst. Project Officer District Rural Development Agency North Arcot Ambedkar District Vellore - 632009	23177 (O)
15.	Mohan Pyare Additional Collector (Dev) and P.O. DRDA Madurai 625020	44126 - O 43636 - O 44325 - R
16.	M.V. Krishne Gowda Deputy Conservator of Forests Tumkur	8407 - O 2188 - R
17.	P.K. Mohanty, IAS District Collector Malappuram 676505	4355 - O 4225 - R
18.	G. Rennen Sen Divisional Forest Officer Nilambur (South) Forest Division Nilambur, Kerala	392 - O 326 - R

19.	P.K. Abdullakutty Project Officer DRDA Palakad 13, Kerala	27866 - O 25903 - R
20.	P.P. John Asst. Conservator of Forests Social Forestry Division Palakad	5440 - R
21.	A. Ram Kumar District Forest Officer Fort, Vellore N.A. District, TN	20329 - O 21703 - R
22.	M. Amanullakhan District forest Officer Vinayaga Nagar Madurai 20	437736 - O
23.	Ashok V. David Deputy Commissioner Bellary 583101	2151, 4766 - O 2026 - R

II. Prticipants from the Voluntary Organizations :

(i) From MYRADA

1.	A.P. Fernandez Executive Director MYRADA 2, Sevice Road Domlur Layout Bangalore 560071	576266 - O 572028 - O
2.	J. Mascarenhas Executive Director MYRADA 2, Sevice Road Domlur Layout Bangalore 560071	576166 - O 572028 - O 562511 - R
3.	K. Rajendra Prasad Sector Officer MYRADA Kamasamudram Project Lakkavally Kamasamudram (post), Bangarpet Taluk Kolar District	33 - O
4.	R. Shankar Naik MYRADA Kipdow Kudri Anantpur District A.P.	2014 - O

5.	Janardhan Rao MYRADA Talanadi Project Talamalai, Talanadi Block Periyar District Tamil Nadu 638461	40 - O Hasanur exchange, Sathy Taluk

(ii) Others

6.	Rajesh Kapoor Programme Coordinator Aga Khan Rural Support Programme Near Rest House SALYA 363430 District Surendrunagar, Gujarat	68 - O 68 - R
7.	Viven Lobo Society for Promotion of Wastelands Shriram Bharatiya Kala kendra Copernicus Marg New Delhi 110001	384521 383713 386210

III. Participants from

National Wastelands Development Board
Ministry of Environment and Forests
Paryavaran Bhavan
CGO Complex, Lodi Road
New Delhi 110003

1.	S. Samar Singh Additional Secretary	361712 - O 660471 - R
2.	S.K. Goyal Additional Inspector General of Forests	362416 - O 2220684 - R
3.	Irshad A. Khan Director, (IC)	362497 - O
4.	D.C. Das Director (TE) of AC-SG	361066 - O
5.	A.K. Rana, IFS AIGF	362513 - O
6.	V.K. Thakral Deputy Secretary	361722 - O
7.	Ranjit Issar Joint Secretary	361760 - O 677600 - R
8.	R.K. Kapoor Director	

IV. Participants from

Institute for Social and Economic Change
Bangalore 560072

1.	Veerashekherappa RBI Endowment Unit Social Services Management	355468 - O 355648 - O
2.	Sharad Chari RBI Endowment Unit Social Services Management	"

V. Participants from

Centre for Ecological Sciences
Indian Institute of Science
Bangalore 560012

1.	Madhav Gadgil	340985 - O 346376 - R
2.	N.H. Ravindranath	340985 - O

MICRO-PLANNING FOR WASTELANDS DEVELOPMENT

* R.P. Kapoor, IFS

BACKGROUND:

The Wastelands Development Programme was launched in January, 1985, with the announcement of the then Prime Minister, late Shri Rajiv Gandhi. The main focus of the programme was on the ecological crisis caused by deforestation and land degradation, socio-economic crisis caused by shortages of fuelwood and fodder and making afforestation a people's movement. Consequently, the National Wastelands Development Board was established in May, 1985 with the mandate of undertaking wastelands development through massive programme and afforestation and tree planting with people's participation. A Review of the Programme of the Board implemented during the VII Plan Period has revealed certain achievements as summarised below:-

- Wastelands Defined and Categorised.
- Wastelands Maps prepared for 146 Districts in 19 States.
- 20 Point Programme Tree Planting Targets Achieved.
- About 300 Projects of Voluntary Agencies Sanctioned.
- Decentralised Nursery Scheme initiated in most States.
- Funding Support to Social Forestry secured under Rural Employment Programmes.
- Tree Growers/Farm Forestry Cooperatives Launched through NDDB and IFFCO in 7 States.

The Review has also revealed certain short-comings in implementation of the Wastelands Development Programme which are as summarised below:

- Planning methodology not worked out.
- Relevant policy issues not resolved.

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* Deputy Inspector General of Forests, National Wastelands Development Board, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India, New Delhi (September, 1991)

- Coverage inadequate with reference to need for massive afforestation efforts.
- Action Programme limited in scope and restricted to tree planting.
- Thrust in favour of Fuelwood and Fodder Production lacking.
- Problems of Land Degradation and Deforestation not adequately addressed.
- Management structure created inappropriate.
- People's participation very limited.
- Effective linkages with funding and implementation agencies not established.

RESTRUCTURED PROGRAMME:

The review of the National Wastelands Development Board's Programme has envisaged restructuring of the programme with a Mission's Approach of the following considerations so as to:-

- Bring Management Focus.
- Impart Sense of urgency.
- Make qualitative changes in ongoing programmes.
- Integrate Resources - Financial and Institutional.
- Accelerate lab-to-land Transfer.
- Provide Mechanism for Resolution of Policy Issues.
- Evolve Strategies for people's involvement.

In this backdrop, the goals of Mission Programme identified are to:-

- Check Land Degradation.
- Put Wastelands to Sustainable Use.
- Increase Biomass Availability - Specially Fuelwood/ Fodder.
- Restore Ecological Balance.

If we analyse the goals of the Mission's Programme, we find that these goals centre round the concept of sustainability, which inter alia, envisages upgrading the status of the wastelands by providing an appropriate vegetal cover so as to optimise the productivity of such lands. The concept of sustainability also encompasses, besides, productivity, the concept of equity and environmental conservation. Equity could be achieved only by devising a proper system of usufructs sharing and benefit distribution by ensuring active participation of the local people at all stages of implementation of the programme. The strategy devised to achieve these goals is summarised below:

- People's participation at all stages specially through Panchayats.
- Integrated landuse planning on watershed basis.
- Village level action plans.
- Emphasis on conservation and natural regeneration.
- Fuelwood, fodder and timber production.
- Technology Extension.
- Resolution of relevant policy issues.

The above strategy clearly brings out the thrust on integrated landuse planning on watershed basis at the village/watershed level with active participation of the people.

In order to implement the above strategy to achieve the pre set goals of the Wastelands Development Programme, the thrust areas identified are as under:

- Degraded Forest Areas.
- Degraded Pastures and Public Wastelands.
- Private Wastelands and Farmlands.

In order to fulfil the basic goals of the wastelands development programme the necessary framework is provided in the 100% Centrally Sponsored "Integrated Wastelands Development Projects Scheme". The objectives, components, and cost details of this scheme are given below:

a) THE IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES:

i) Augmenting the availability of wood and non-wood forest products, specially fuelwood and fodder.

ii) Employment generation to the most needy sections of society, particularly those belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and landless rural labourers.

iii) Demonstration of micro-planning methodology for preparation of village level action plans.

iv) Extension and dissemination of proven technologies in various categories of problem lands.

v) Ensuring people's participation at all stages in the Wastelands Development Programme through various mechanisms intended to ensure equitable distribution of intermediate and final forest products.

b) THE LONG TERM OBJECTIVES:

i) Check land degradation.

ii) Achieving the broader objectives of sustainability, equity and environmental conservation for the general good of the people.

COMPONENTS OF INTEGRATED WASTELANDS DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS SCHEME:

The various components of the Integrated Wastelands Development Projects Scheme are described below:-

1. CONSERVATION OF ECOLOGICALY FRAGILE AREAS:-

- In situ soil and moisture conservation measures like terracing, bunding, contour trenching, nala bunding, bench terracing, box trenching, etc.
- Check dams and torrent control measures.
- Small water harvesting structures only.

2. NATURAL REGENERATION OF DEGRADED FORESTS AND MANAGEMENT INTERVENTION :-

- Protection measures like, stonewall, trench, and barbed fire fencing.
- Climber cutting, cleaning of brush wood, opening for seed beds.
- Cut back and other tending operations.
- Gap filling by seed sowing and seedling planting.

3. TECHNOLOGY EXTENSION TO SPECIAL PROBLEM LAND:

- Reclamation and development measures for special problem lands by adopting existing proven technologies through demonstration and extension.
- Refinement of existing technologies of wastelands development.

COST NORMS

The cost norms under various components of the Scheme are given below:-

		COST PER HA.
1.	Conservation of ecologically fragile areas	Rs.10,000
2.	Regeneration of Degraded Forests	
	(i) Natural means	Rs.3000-4000
	(ii) Management intervention	Rs.8,000
3.	Technology Extension to Special Problem Lands	Rs.12,000
	Works component	- 80%
	Overheads (Establishment, Contingencies, Equipments, Vehicles, Small Field Structures, etc.)	- 20%

Expenditure upto 20% of works component could be utilised for soil and moisture conservation measures.

20% overheads components is included in the overall rates of the different components.

The Scheme also provides for carrying out Micro-planning in the selected districts of the country. The details of concepts, objectives and methodology of micro-planning are described below:-

CONCEPT OF PLANNING :

Before the micro-planning is defined and discussed it is necessary to understand the concept of planning, particularly, in the context of wastelands development. Some of the definitions which are relevant to the present context are given below:

1. To act after proper thinking and careful deliberations.
2. Planning is 'prevision' - FAYOL.

(It is looking ahead so as to have a clear idea of what is to be done).

3. Planning is preparation for action - M. JOHAN D. MILLET.

IN A GROUP ACTIVITY :

4. Planning means directing and regulating individual and collective efforts with intelligence and foresight so that the total output is larger and better than before.

5. In the economic sense - planning means proper uilisation of available resources - men, material and money so as to achieve the pre-set goals/objectives in a best possible manner.

6. Planning is both foresight and hindsight.

In view of the above definitions of planning, it is clear that the essentials of planning are the past experience and future requirements, besides making best use of the available resources. In the definition of the planning in the economic sense, men, material and money are considered important resources to achieve the pre-set goals and objectives. In addition to the above 3 M's - i.e. men, material and money, I would like to add three more M's to bridge the gap. These are management, methodology and mechanisms. When we talk of men, these are supposed to be taken care of but I consider it necessary to emphasis as these are also very essential for proper planning.

MICRO-PLANNING :

In understanding the concept of micro-planning it is important to understand the context in which the micro-planning is considered. In relation to the Wastelands Development Programme micro-planning is defined as under :-

"Micro-planning is a process of planning at micro watershed/village or hamlet level for the integrated development of wastelands with people's participation while taking into consideration site conditions and local needs."

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD MICRO-PLAN :

As already discussed in the concept of planning, there are certain essentials - 6 M's as referred to above - Men, Material, Money, Management, Methodology and Mechanism, which are considered as pre-requisites for preparation of a good plan or micro-plan. A good plan or micro-plan is judged from the following characteristics:-

- It is based on clearly defined objectives.
- It is simple.
- It establishes standards - provides for analysis and classification of actions.
- It is flexible.
- It is balanced.
- It uses available resources to the utmost.

In order that a good Micro-plan conforms to the above characteristics, it is necessary that those who are involved in preparation of a micro-plan have clear understanding of the planning process, local conditions and people's needs as well as the basic principles of eco-system management, various factors operating in the area and the field conditions. It is, therefore, necessary that this exercise is undertaken by involving the experts from the concerned disciplines and making best use of their talents to prepare a micro-plan for a micro-watershed at a village level. In certain conditions these essential requirements may not be fulfilled. However, the efforts need to be made to pool up the available expertise locally as well as from outside. This could be ensured by proper integration and co-ordination at the district level.

OBJECTIVE OF MICRO-PLANNING:

The objective of micro-planning is to prepare vilage level plan for integrated development of wastelands, aimed at ecological restoration and meeting essential needs of fuelwood, fodder and small timber, by raising appropriate vegetation through one or more of the following:-

- Soil and moisture conservation.

- Silviculture.
- Silvi-pasture.
- Agro-forestry.
- Horticulture.
- Silvi-agro-pisciculture.
- Plantation crop husbandry.

The above elements to be incorporated in the micro-plan are only illustrative and not exchaustive, but the basic goals of the wastelands development are to be kept in view while specifiying the various elements.

METHODOLOGY :

The methodology to be adopted for preparation of Micro-plan is given below:-

- Conduct land capability assessement and evaluate site conditions.
- Inventorize status of natural resources.
- Estimate demand and supply for fuel, fodder, timber and other biomass needs of the users.
- Interact with local people to comprehend their needs and priorities.
- Quantify financial and management resources available for plan implementation.
- Identify infrastructure required and existing in support of the plan and its execution.

The above steps clearly lay down that proper assessment of the natural resources and land capability. The local people's needs should be properly understood and prioritised before working out a practicable micro-plan which should as much be need-based as resource based. As far as possible the existing infrastructure available with the various Government departments, other bodies as well as local institutions. It is only after careful synthesis of various site factors and local people's needs that a good micro-plan could be developed.

OUTCOME OF MICRO-PLANNING :

The outcome desired from the Micro-planning exercise is as under:-

- Comprehensive wasteland development plan for selected micro watershed/cluster of villages.
- Improved data base at district level for future planning and monitoring.
- Enhanced awareness of related issues and greater participation of people in micro-planning for area development.

UNIT OF MICRO-PLANNING :

For the purpose of micro-planning exercise, it is necessary to identify a watershed or a cluster of villages. In view of the experience gained so far it appears that size of the conveniently manageable unit of watershed varies from place to place depending upon locality factors. However, the following has been suggested as conveniently manageable unit for the purpose of micro-planning.

- Watershed of about 1000 ha. or a compact cluster of 2-6 villages.
- This could be further sub-divided into micro watersheds of 100 ha. or so
- Area selected should be a representative of a wide spectrum of situations.

STEPS FOR MICRO-PLANNING :

The various steps proposed for micro-planning are summarised below:

- Formulate development objectives, social, economic and environmental.
- Identify and define compact clusters of villages where wastelands development programmes are to be implemented.
- Define the list of problems relevant to different social groups in the village.

- Assess current resource usage patterns and their possible adverse impacts on resource capital.
- Prepare a village level micro-watershed-based plan in consultation with the village community.
- District level group to arrive at its own suggestions based on an assessment of village plans and on overview of the district level situation in the context of agro-climatic region based plans.
- Preparation of final proposal and its technical scrutiny.
- Implement the development programmes.
- Organise a process of participation evaluation of developmental programmes as they are being implemented and their social, economic, environmental fallouts.

TIME SCHEDULE:

The time schedule recommended by the National wastelands Development Board to complete the various activities under micro-planning is as under :-

The time likely to be taken up by various activities are :-

i)	Initial survey, discussion, data collection	15 days
ii)	Drafting of village level report and preparation of map etc.	15 days
iii)	Examination by multi disciplinary team and discussion with village community.	10 days
iv)	Re-drafting and discussion with line departments	10 days
v)	Finalisation of action plan report and Preparation of document.	10 days
	Total :	60 days
	Slack :	30 days
	Latest Finish Time :	3 months

There may be various limitations and compulsions at the district level to adhere to this time schedule but keeping in view the urgency the above time limit appears to be reasonable.

BREAK-UP OF COSTS:

The break-up of the expenditure of the various micro-planning components as per cost norms of National Wastelands Development Board is as under :-

i)	Training and participants/workers for survey methodology etc. ..	15,000
ii)	Survey and resource inventory work	25,000
iii)	Information collection from other source, travel expenses, material, etc.	10,000
iv)	Travel and incidental expenses of multi-disciplinary team, contingencies, misc., expenses and preparation of action plan document	50,000
	Total :	1,00,000

INTEGRATION OF RESOURCES :

It is very necessary to integrate and pool financial resources available at the district level under various sectors. This could be ensured after detailed and indepth examination of the ongoing Plan programmes of various sectors.

The funds for land based activities other than wastelands development could flow from other line departments such as:-

- Department of Forests, Rural Development.
- Soil and Water Conservation.
- Animal Husbandary.
- Horticulture.
- Agriculture.
- Fisheries.
- Irrigation.
- Non-Conventional Energy Resources, etc.

National Wastelands Development Board funding will be available only for items specified in the Integrated Wastelands Development Projects Scheme.

DATA COLLECTION:

The details of data required to be collected for preparation of the Micro-plan may vary from place to place and depend upon the local conditions. However, the essential data required for preparation of the micro-plan for integrated wastelands development is given in the Annexure I.

PROJECT FORMULATION:

After completion of the exercise of data collection, field surveys, interaction with the local people, working out the technical details of various aspects and identifying the local needs it is necessary to prepare a project for wastelands development which should cover all aspects of integrated wastelands development. A model lay out drawn up in the form of a project outline is given in Annexure II, which, inter alia, covers various aspects of project formulation after the micro-planning exercise is completed. The basic elements identified while carrying out the micro-planning need to be incorporated in the project and various models under each component worked out as described in para 4 of the project outline. The other technical details, organisational aspects and project management need to be covered besides phasing of financial and physical targets. Since people's participation is considered important for achieving the basic goals it is, therefore, essential to work out a proper mechanism for involvement of the various sections of the society. In addition to the local villagers, various organisations including youth groups, mahila mandals, NGOs, etc. need to be involved. It is appropriate to work out strategies for involvemet of local people and various groups working in the project area.

In order to work out the outcome of the project it is necessary to make projections about the product mix expected to be available by implementing the project. Both the direct and indirect benefits need to be identified and also quantified, if possible. In

the projects where ecological considerations reign supreme, the financial analysis and cost benefit ratio, dis-counted cashflow, etc. is not necessary to be worked out. However, in such cases the indirect benefits need to be identified and described logically as far as possible. Each project should aim at identifying the ecological benefits if it is not possible to quanitify them at least the expected benefits could be described. In cases, where income generating activities are undertaken which have commercial implications it may be necessary to work out the financial vaibility of the project, therefore, discounted cash-flow, B/C ratio, Internal Rate of Return (IRR), etc. should be worked out.

For each project a suitable map showing the project area and other features of the project area could be prepared. Further it is necessary to prepare a treatment map and detailed action plan indicating the physical and financial activities to be taken up on year-to-year basis. The above details are only suggestive and not exhaustive as under each situation the operational modalities of the project may vary and detailing has to be done accordingly. However, this paper presents only a broad outline and framework for undertaking micro-planning exercise in view of the restructured programme of the National Wastelands Development Board and discusses the various modalities for project formulation.

In the nutshell it would be appropriate to mention that it is only through proper understanding the processes of nature and micro-level conditions that proper technology packages could be worked out for specific locations. But it is not sufficient to work out the appropriate technological packages alone, it is equally essential to link them up with the needs and aspirations of the local people for ensuring the overall development of wastelands for the people on the concept of sustainability.

SOME QUESTIONS :

Although a well prepared Micro-plan is a pre-requisite for the success of the programme, but its implementation in right earnest is equally important. Before implementing the Micro-plan certain issues have to be sorted out and specific operational modalities devised for proper implementation of the Micro-plan. Some of the questions which need to be dealt with and appropriate decisions taken to ensure better coordination and integration at implementation stage are given in the Annexure III.

ADDENDUM :

Abbreviations used:

1.	NDDB	National Dairy Development Board.
2.	IFFCO	Indian Farmers Fertiliser Cooperatives.
3.	HA./ha.	Hectare.
4.	NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations.
5.	NWDB	National Wastelands Development Board.

DATA TO BE COLLECTED IN PREPARATION OF VILLAGE WASTELANDS DEVELOPMENT PLANS

CURRICULAM VITAE

- Name
- Area
- Location(tehsil/block & district)

POPULATION

- Income distribution
- Caste
- Occupation
- Literacy
- Sex
- Age

LAND USE

- Net Sown area
- Forests
- Settlements

LAND HOLDING

- By size
- By class
- By no. of crops per year/ wet cropping dry cropping

TOPOGRAPHY

- Plain
- Hills
- Watersheds
- Ridges
- Other features

CROPS

- Cereals
- Lentils
- Pulses
- Fodder
- Oilseeds
- Plantation/Species
- Vegetables

GEOLOGY AND SOILS

- Types
- Features
- Characteristics and their causes

LIVESTOCK

- Cows - Buffaloes
- Sheep - Beasts of Burden
- Goats - Milch cattle - foodproducing

CLIMATE AND TEMPERATURE

- Maximum
- Minimum
- Humidity

HEALTH

- Primary centres
- Subsidiary centres
- Hospitals
- auxillary nursing
- Maternity and child care centres

RAINFALL

- Precipitation quantaum
- Temporal distribution

HYDROLOGICAL STATUS

- Perennial sources
- Surface bodies
- Ground water
- Irrigation facilities

SERVICES

- Logistic
- Technical
- Information

EMPLOYMENT

- Primary Sector/production
- Secondary Sector/ processing
- Teritiary Sector/service

INDUSTRY

- Production
- Processing
- Capital goods/heavy

COMMUNICATIONS

- Transport
- Power
- Telephones

INSTITUTIONS

- Banks
- Colleges
- Cooperatives
- Corporations
- LSG Bodies
- Govt. agencies
- Voluntary agencies

MARKETING

- Haats
- Regulated markets
- Cooperative marketing organisations
- Procurement agencies

DEMAND ESTIMATION

- Fuelwood
- Fodder
- Small timber
- Minor forest produce

SUPPLIES;AVAILABILITY AND Sources

- Fuelwood
- Fodder
- Small timber
- Minor forest produce

SOURCE OF INFORMATION

- DIRECTORATE OF ECONOMICS AND STATISTICS
- SURVEY OF INDIA
- THEMATIC MAPS PREPARED BY THE CENTRAL AND STATE ORGANISATIONS
- NATIONAL BUREAU OF SOIL SURVEY AND LAND USE PLANNING
- ALL INDIA SOIL AND LAND USE SURVEY
- GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA
- CENSUS HANDBOOK
- CENTRAL STATISTICAL ORGANISATION REPORT
- LIVESTOCK CENSUS REPORT
- CADASTRAL MAPS OF SURVEY AND SETTLEMENT OPERATIONS
- FOREST SURVEY OF INDIA
- WORKING PLANS DOCUMENTS

5. TECHNICAL DETAILS OF THE PROJECT :

- SITE CONDITIONS (INCLUDING CLIMATIC AND EDAPHIC)
- SPECIES
- TECHNIQUES
- OTHER FEATURES

6. ORGANISATION : THE FOLLOWING MAY BE STATED :

- PROJECT STAFFING
- ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

7. PROJECT MANAGEMENT

- PROJECT STAFF FUNCTIONS
- OPERATIONAL MODALITIES
- VILLAGE FOREST PROTECTION COMMITTEES
- USUFRUCT SHARING MECHANISM

8. COST ESTIMATES :

I. TOTAL PROJECT COST

II. EXTERNAL INPUTS :

- EXPERTS
- EQUIPMENTS
- TRAINING
- FELLOWSHIPS

III. LOCAL INPUTS

- WORKS
- ESTABLISHMENTS
- VEHICLES/MACHINERY

PROJECT OUTLINE

1. TITLE OF THE PROJECT :

2. PROJECT LOCATION :

   - EXTENT OF AREA
   - LAND OWNERSHIP PATTERN

3. PROJECT PERIOD (Time Frmae) : GENERALLY 5 YEARS

4. PROJECT COMPONENTS (ACTIVITIES) :

DESIRED BRIEFLY THE MAJOR COMPONETS OF THE PROJECT AND THEIR INTER LINAKAGES FOR INTEGRATED WASTELANDS DEVELOPMENT DEPENDING ON THE NATURE OF THE PROJECT THE COMPONETS MAY INCLUDE :

- CONSERVATION OF ECOLOGICALLY FRAGILE AREAS, INCLUDING WILDLIFE PROTECTED AREAS
- REFORESTATION/REHABILITATION OF DEGRADED FORESTS (NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL REGENERATION)
- SOIL AND WATER CONSERVATION MAINLY THROUGH VEGETATIVE MEASURES
- DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL PROBLEM LANDS
- WATERSHED DEVELOPMENT
- EQUIPMENTS/VEHICLES
- TRAINING OF STAFF/FELLOWSHIPS
- INFRA-STRUCTURAL DEVELOPMENT-BUILDING/HOUSING, INSPECTION PATHS ETC.
- ANY OTHER ACTIVITY

- TRAINING

- MISC.

9. PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION :

- INVOLVEMENT OF FARMERS, WOMEN, YOUTHS, SCHOOL CHILDREN ETC.

- NGO"S

- OTHERS

10. JUSTIFICATION :

A) FINANCIAL ANALYSIS (DISCOUNTED CASH FLOW, B/C RATIO, IRR, IF NECESSARY)

B) EXPECTED BENEFITS INDICATION REVENUE AND EMPLOYMENT GENERATION. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL BENEFITS LIKELY TO ACCRUE TO THE SOCIETY IN GENERAL AND THE LOCAL IN-HABITANTS OF THE PROJECT AREA IN PARTICULAR

C) ECOLOGICAL BENEFITS

11. ANY OTHER SPECIAL FEATURES :

ANNEXURES :

1. MAP SHOWING LOCATION OF THE PROJECT AREA

2. LIST OF EQUIPMENTS TO BE IMPORTED WITH SPECIFICATION AND ESTIMATED PRICES

3. SUPPORTING DATA ON COSTS BASED ON WHICH THE COST ESTIMATES UNDER COL (8) ABOVE HAVE BEEN MADE, (UNIT COST UNDER EACH COMPONENT)

- TRAINING

- MISC.

9. PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION :

- INVOLVEMENT OF FARMERS, WOMEN, YOUTHS, SCHOOL CHILDREN ETC.

- NGO"S

- OTHERS

10. JUSTIFICATION :

A) FINANCIAL ANALYSIS (DISCOUNTED CASH FLOW, B/C RATIO, IRR, IF NECESSARY)

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1. MAP SHOWING LOCATION OF THE PROJECT AREA

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3. SUPPORTING DATA ON COSTS BASED ON WHICH THE COST ESTIMATES UNDER COL (8) ABOVE HAVE BEEN MADE, (UNIT COST UNDER EACH COMPONENT)

ANNEXURE-III

SOME QUESTIONS

1. HOW TO INTEGRATE THE FUNDING SOURCES AT DISTRICT LEVEL WITHOUT INTEGRATING THEM AT PLAN FORMULATION STAGE ?

2. WHO SHOULD IMPLEMENT THE INTEGRATED PROGRAMME ?

3. ARE THE VARIOUS DISTRICT LEVEL OFFICERS PREPARED TO SHARE RESPONSIBILITY ?

4. WHO WILL PERFORM THE FOLLOWING FUNCTIONS ?

   - PASSING OF BILLS/VOUCHERS
   - MAINTENANCE OF MUSTER ROLLS
   - SANCTIONING OF ESTIMATES
   - EXERCISE OF FINANCIAL POWERS
   - APPLICATION OF RULES AND REGULATIONS ?

5. WHO WILL EXERCISE FINANCIAL CONTROL AND ENFORCE DISCIPLINE TO EFFECT ECONOMY ?

6. WHO WILL ENSURE COORDINATION, SUPERVISION AND CONTROL ABOVE THE DISTRICT LEVEL ?

7. WHO WILL ACT AS NODAL POINT AT THE REGIONAL AND STATE LEVEL ?

8. IS THE TECHNICAL KNOW-HOW AND NECESSARY EXPERTISE AVAILABLE AT VILLAGE/HAMLET LEVEL ?

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PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION IN FOREST MANAGEMENT AND THE ROLE OF NGOs & VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

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PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION IN FOREST MANAGEMENT AND THE ROLE OF NGOs & VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

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PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION IN FOREST MANAGEMENT AND THE ROLE OF NGOs & VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

Introduction

Forests are truly a primordial resource. At one time, the entire global population was made up of forest dwellers deriving benefits — direct and indirect — from this natural resource. In fact, people who are still forest dwellers in the original sense, by and large live in harmony with their natural environment. They know how to utilize it without destroying it. The forest dwellers of the Amazon in South America and the Abujmarhias of Bastar in India are examples of such sustainable man-forest relationship.

In many countries, the system of fallow in forest areas has been used for centuries. In a situation of plentiful land, the fallow system is eminently sustainable. But where there are more people than the available land can support, depletion of the resource base— land, soil and vegetation — and of the productive capacity of these resources is inevitable.

In the developing world, the situation has become critical indeed because a larger proportion of the population is rural and these people, specially those who are called the rural poor, depend substantially on the goods and services which the forest can provide for their survival.

If the pressure is to be relieved, it is necessary to look increasingly beyond the forest. But, for those who remain dependent on the forest for a variety of reasons, it is essential to involve them more and more in its conservation and management. Ultimately, people will only preserve and protect the forest when they perceive it as more valuable to them as forest than under some other form of land use.

People's Participation - Approaches and Implications

The main issue is one of ensuring that the local community is provided with the means to obtain the basic necessities for their survival and welfare and to arrange this in a sustainable way, which means that this has to be not only for the present generation but also for the future generations. This is the crux of the whole matter concerning people's participation for sustainable forestry.

While the term "people's participation" is widely used, it is more difficult to define and implement in practical terms. Conventional approaches interpret this to merely mean giving [illegible]e kind of employment opportunities or some fringe benefits. Since forestry programmes are generally conceiv[illegible] assessed in terms of achievement of physical targets, participatory goals often take second or third priority. Besides, involving communities in management planning or decision making takes considerable effort and time. To stay on schedule, it is easier for the forester to take the lead in making plans for the activities, including what species to plant, where and when. To that extent, the forest staff assumes all decision-making responsibilities, and the general approach is : "I do, you participate".

Another approach to seeking people's participa[illegible]on is through monetary incentives. Villagers are hired as labour for forestry work, including social and community forestry projects, but the intent is rarely to "empower" the participants to take part in the decision making process. While monetary incentives may allow for cooperative action while the work is in progress, once the employment terminates, the community members are not enabled to remain involved in the further management and upkeep of the resource which is created. In sum, employment itself neither builds nor enables community resource management capacity.

In the past, the traditional mistrust of the rural communities as a threat to the forest, restrained the forestry staff from establishing meaningful participatory activity or management capability. However, these attitudes are beginning to change as the foresters realise the inevitable need to come to some form of understanding and agreement with the user groups. The urgency arises on account of the rapid pace of forest depletion in the developing countries, specially in the tropical regions of Asia.

Deforestation Scenario

There is no doubt that of all the environmental concerns of recent times, the problem of deforestation continues to remain at the top of the agenda. This is specially so in the tropical regions of the world, where the situation is indeed critical. The level of concern in this regard reflects both the high rate of loss of tropical forests and the high value of these forests in terms of their biological diversity as well as the numerous goods and essential services which they contribute to human welfare.

Estimates of the deforestation rate of tropical forests have varied widely. In the 1970s, the commonly accepted figure was around 11 million hectares per annum. The FAO estimate of 1980-81 for the Asian countries was 6 million hectares per year as given in Tables 1 and 2. If these trends continue unabated, it is feared that there will be no natural forests left in the region in another 50 years. The picture is made more gloomy by the latest FAO assesment (1990), which indicates that tropical forest degradation has accelerated in recent years and is about 80 percent higher now than it was ten years ago.

TABLE - 1 ANNUAL RATES OF TROPICAL DEFORESTATION 1967 - 80

(Millions of hectares per annum)

	Closed Forests				Open Woodlands	
	All Tropical		Moist Tropical			
	Area	Percent of Total	Area	Percent of Total	Area	Percent of Total
Africa	1.33	0.61	1.20	0.59	2.34	0.48
Asia Pacific	1.82	0.59	1.61	0.61	0.19	0.61
Latin America	4.12	0.61	3.30	0.54	1.27	0.59
TOTAL	7.27	0.61	6.11	0.57	3.81	0.52

Source : World Resources 1988-89, World Resources Institute, Washington, D.C.

TABLE - 2 ESTIMATES OF FOREST AREAS AND DEFORESTATION RATES IN TROPICAL ASIA

1.	Nepal	1,941	4.3
2.	Sri Lanka	1,659	3.5
3.	Thailand	9,235	2.7
4.	Brunei	323	1.5
5.	Malaysia	20,995	1.2
6.	Laos	8,410	1.2
7.	Philippines	9,510	1.0
8.	Bangladesh	927	0.9
9.	Viet Nam	8,770	0.7
10.	Indonesia	113,895	0.5
11.	Pakistan	2,185	0.3
12.	Burma	31,941	0.3
13.	Kampuchea	7,548	0.3
14.	India	51,841	0.3
15.	Bhutan	2,100	0.1
16.	Papua New Guinea	34,230	0.1
	Totals	305,510	0.6

Source : FAO, 1980-81. (Most other sources consider these figures to be the best available, but far below actual rates of deforestation.)

Government Policy and Deforestation

In most countries, some deforestation is caused by the concerned governments, but a substantial proportion takes place spontaneously and without control, specially on account of biotic pressure and the ever increasing demand for firewood and fodder.

An interesting report titled "The Forest for the Trees ? Government Policies and the Misuse of Forest Resources", brought out by the World Resource Institute in 1988, gives a number of ways in which government policies have erred in the direction of forest depletion. This includes the following important finding :-

> "While national governments have over-estimated their own capabilities for forest management, they have under-estimated the value of traditional management practices and local governance over forest resources Local communities dependent on forests for many commodities and services, not just timber, have been more sensitive to their protective functions and the wide variety of goods available from them in a sustainable harvest. Moreover, when provincial and national governments have over-ruled traditional-use rights to the forests, local communities and individual households have been unable, and even unwilling, to prevent destructive encroachment or over-exploitation. Conversely, some governments have found that restoring or awarding such rights to local groups has induced them to attend to the possiblities of sustainable long-term production from forest resources."

No further discussion of this point is contained in the above-mentioned WRI study report. It is unfortunate that recorded information or literature on the subject is either scanty or not well-documented. Perhaps the reason is that it is only in recent years that the planners and forest managers have come to terms with the reality of the situation. Even now, there are many reservations and much scepticism on this score. The present discussion attempts to identify some of the useful experiences and to indicate the lessons and priorities for future action in this regard.

Forestry for Local Community Development : Social Forestry

Here, it is necessary to take note of the fact that during the mid-1970s the perception of forestry and its role in rural development changed dramatically. Responding to changes in thinking at that time, the FAO initiated in 1978 its work on forestry for local community development, and the World Bank came up with its forestry sector policy paper (also in 1978) These institutions and other donor agencies began to recognize the critical need to reorient the policies and programmes in the developing countries toward supporting forestry for the people and to encourage the rural populations to participate in forestry and conservation efforts. Thus, came forward the concept of "Social Forestry" or forestry for local community development, which has held the centre-stage of the forestry sector from the early 1980s.

As result,from the late 1970s new programmes were launched at an accelerated pace in most developing countries, specially in Asia, for promoting different facets of social forestry and, during the decade 1977 to 1986, about 60 percent of World Bank lending in forestry (US $1300 million) was for social forestry and related projects, whereas in the previous decade it was a mere 5 percent.

Social Forestry Management Models

There are five basic management models of social forestry, four of which involve tree planting, while the fifth one is aimed at improved management of degraded forest lands. These are briefly discussed below :-

(1) **Community Woodlots,** which is planting by the community or by an outside agency (governmental or NGO) on land belonging to the community, with the benefits being shared by the community group and the others as per agreed formula.

(2) **Farm Forestry,** which means tree planting by the farmers on their own land- on farm boundaries, in strips or blocks, or around the house and elsewhere by way of agro-forestry.

(3) **Departmental Forestry,** which is planting by a government department, mainly the forest department, on government owned land, including land along roads, canals, railways (strip plantations) and forest land (block plantations). The concerned department disposes of the produce, which includes a share for the local people / community.

(4) **Tree Tenure Forestry,** which involves planting by the individuals on land allocated to them for the specific purpose of tree growing. This normally means that the landless or rural poor are allocated a piece of public land, which may even be forest land. The land would continue to belong to the government, but the beneficiaries have the right to use it and to dispose of the produce from it, so long as the land is kept under tree cover.

(5) **Participatory Management of Degraded Forest lands,** which involves regeneration / rehabilitation of degraded forest lands situated close to habitations through controlled mangement, jointly implemented by the forest department and designated local participants, generally as user groups, with the latter receiving defined quantity of usufructs by way of grass, wood, etc. free or at subsidised rate, in return for active participation in protecting the forest through some form of 'social fencing'.

Experiences in Asia

During the past decade, these five models of social forestry have been implemented in different countries with varying degrees of success. It may be noted that of these five models, the last two relate to forest lands with direct involvment of the people. The experiences relating to these models in some Asian countries, which have lessons for the future, can be put in the following categories :-

(a) Tree Tenure Forestry in Thailand and the Philippines.

(b) Community Fuelwood Plantations Forestry in Korea

(c) Panchayat Forest Management in Nepal.

(d) Participatory Forest Management in India.

There is also the Chinese model, which is interesting in itself and can be considered a success story in the typical situation of that country. But, in view of doubts about its relevance and replicability in other situations, it is not included in the above list.

(a) Tree Tenure Forestry in Thailand and the Philippines

Unlike India and Nepal, Thailand and the Philippines have relied on the land tenurial model of tree forestry to meet the problem of forest depletion, which has posed a serious challenge in both these countries. Each country has adopted its own style but the general approach, as also the outcome, bear some common features, which are briefly given below.

Thailand's Forest Village Programme -

In the last two decades, Thailand has been implementing the Forest Village Programme for forest rehabilitation and rural development in the north-east region of the country. This arose out of a serious concern about the rapid loss of forest area for farming and other purposes. In 1961 about 53 percent of the total land area (273,628 sq. kms out of 513,115 sq.kms) of the country was forest area; in 1982 this had come down to about 31 percent and the rate of deforestation was consistently going up (from 4600 sq. kms per annum in the period 1961-75 to about 7500 sq. kms per annum during 1975-82)

Initially, the Forest Department tried hard to protect the forest lands and rehabilitate deteriorated forest areas. It also launched a large-scale reforestation programme. But the problems could not be contained, specially with the forest encroachers. To prevent the socio-economic and political conflict from getting worse, the Thai Government adopted in 1975 the forest village concept for forest rehabilitation coupled with rural development. The national guidelines for the programme provide the following main elements :-

(1) Forest encroachers will be resettled in groups (not more than 150 families per village) in non-watershed areas, each with an elected leader and a committee for village self-administration.

(2) The Government will allocate 2.4 ha. of farmland to each family. No land title will be given; only user rights permit will be given. This would be inheritable but not negotiable for sale or transfer.

(3) In the village premises, the forest department and other concerned agencies will provide housing, vocational training, water facilities, school, health centre, credit and marketing facilities and link road.

(4) Priority for employment in government reforestation activities will be provided near the settled village to the village members.

(5) After the village is established, an agricultural cooperative will be set up and it will be given a long-term land lease by the Forest Department.

Since its inception, the programme has made progress and about 150 forest villages of different types have been established. The operational responsibility for the programme rests with the National Forest Land Management Division, which was specially set up for this purpose in 1975. While some progress has been achieved, problems and difficulties have also surfaced mainly on account of lack of expertise in implementing the integrated development approach, staffing, budgetary constraints and the other teething problems generally associated with projects having soci-ecomonic dimensions. Certain lessons have also been learnt, which may be summed up as follows :-

The beneficiaries need funds and support for their subsistence during the early phase of their stay on the new land, specially because of its degraded status.

An integrated development project of this type requires staff with high motivation and training as well as leadership having strong coordinating ability.

- Adequate budgetary, equipment and other support has to be available alongwith mechanisms for drawing upon the available resources of other field level agencies.

- To ensure self-reliance among the villagers, their local groups and organisations should be strengthened and enabled to get involved from the beginning of the programme, so that they may eventually take over when the government inputs are withdrawn.

- A good monitoring system should be set up for providing the basis for changes in strategies at the project level and to facilitate techonology transfer and other needed changes from time to time.

- Active participation of the villagers (beneficiaries) is critical for success.

The forest village programme in Thailand is attempting to address a number of problems with an approach which is not at all common and contains some unique elements which merit study for their applicability in other situations and other countries. First, it is attempting to provide a socio-economically viable alternative to shifting cultivation through an integrated land use approach combining food crops and forestry activities. It is also addressing the dual and sometimes conflicting goals of forestry, i.e. watershed protection / reforestation and utilisation of forest resources to provide better livelihood and socio-economic environment in a basically land poor agrarian society. Finally, it is a voluntary resettlement scheme based on providing social services and production support, thereby allowing isolated forest encroachers an opportunity to enter the mainstream of Thai society. But problems in implementation are equally real as mentioned above, and need to be addressed urgently, if this Thai experience is to succeed ultimately.

Philippines' Integrated Social Forestry Programme

Conversion of forest lands to agricultural lands of marginal productivity is a serious problem in the Philippines. In 1985 there were about 600,000 families of forest encroachers in the country. Earlier attempts at removing them were unsuccessful. Ultimately in 1982, the Philippines Government took a policy decision to grant long-term stewardship of upto 5 ha. of denuded forest lands to such families, provided the grantees followed certain conservation and ecological measures. This has come to be known as the Integrated Social Forestry Programme (ISPF) of the Bureau of Forest Development in the Philippines.

The ISPF covers 13 regions, 70 provinces and 760 municipalities, mainly in the upland region of the country. By the beginning of 1988, the programme involved a total of over 200,000 families of forest occupants covering about 490,000 ha. of forest lands. Of these, about 136,500 ha. had been developed into agro-forestry farms and plantations. More than 75,000 individual Certificates of Stewardship Contracts had been issued covering about 191,000 ha of forest lands. Besides, 10 Community Forest Stewardship Agreements had been issued to 6340 families belonging to various communities and covering an aggregate area of about 25,000 ha. of forest lands.

The expected behavioural changes under the Stewardship Agreement, in exchange for land tenure for 25 years (renewable for another 25 years), include the following :-

(1) The grantee shall be responsible for the protection and conservation of forest growth on the land and shall cooperate with the authorities in the protection of the adjacent forest area.

(2) The grantee shall not cut trees or saplings from a strip of 20 meters on the banks of creeks, rivers and streams in the area.

(3) The grantee shall prevent and help in extinguishing unauthorised fires on the land and other adjacent area and give all necessary assistance to the authorities for this purpose.

(4) The Bureau shall regulate the cutting or gathering of trees naturally growing on the land.

(5) The grantee shall plant at least five edible fruit trees per hectare of land to provide food for wildlife species.

In essence, this is tree tenure forestry which seeks to adopt a farming systems approach to make the best of a situation arising out of large-scale unauthorised occupation of forest lands. The success of the approach would ultimately depend on the extent to which people's participation is achieved, for which a significant change in the orientation of both the target community and the development agency is necessary . Project experience also shows that people's participation could be promoted more meaningfuly through (a) provision of immediate incentives to the beneficiaries; (b) flexiblity in project design; (c) further delegation of decision-making authority; (d) better inter-departmental and inter-agency coordination; and (e) involvment of NGOs.

So far, the tangible accomplishments of the ISFP have been limited mainly on account of the reasons mentioned above. Besides, the programme faces the crucial test of sustainability, and yet to develop ecologically and economically sound agro-forestry technologies, which alone will eventually establish its efficacy and viability.

(b) Community Fuelwood Plantations Forestry in Korea

Korea is a mountainous country which used to be rich in natural forests. Of country's total forest area of 6,554,000 hectares, about 73 percent is privately owned. In this respect, the situation in Korea is very different to that prevailing in India and Nepal or even in Thailand and the Philippines. However, the other side of the picture is that a significant portion of the Korean population is, in one way or the other, connected to forests.

Even with abundant forest lands, the country witnessed in the period before 1970 unprecedented forest depletion, leading to serious impacts on the nation's economy and ecology. In particular, massive scarcity of fuelwood was experienced and this became a matter of major concern for the country. It was this concern which gave birth to Korea's Community Fuelwood Plantations Project in 1972. It was no doubt inspired by the National Afforestation Movement launched in the 1950s, but its real strength came only from 1972 onwards, when it was given a prominent place under the Saemaul Undong, the national campaign to develop self-reliance, diligence and cooperation among the rural people. The villagers are encouraged to cooperate closely for resolving the felt needs through mutual discussions, selecting their leaders and the methodology of implementing the activities of the project selected by the community. The government provides initial funding , material support and technical assistance.

After its incorporation in the Saemaul Undong,the development of village fuelwood plantations has taken a new turn. Project implementation rests largely with the Village Forestry Associations (VFAs), which are grass-roots organisations composed of small forest owners and villagers. All villages with forest lands have VFAs. The major tasks of such groups are the establishment of fuelwood stands, reforestation and tending trees, specially on private forest lands whose owners have the rights to retain 10 percent of the harvest. The VFAs are assisted by the Forest Association Unions (FAUs) , which are non-governmental organisations acting as a bridge between the government and the public in the implementation of forest policies and programmes. They are organised at the city or county level and their members consist of VFAs , forest owners, seedling producers and forest product manufacturers. The FAUs have a Federation of Unions and nine provincial branch offices,which ensure cooperation at different levels with government and other agencies.

As a result of this national initiative, more than 643,000 hectares of fuelwood plantations have been established in Korea, which are producing large amounts of fuelwood each year. But more than the mere production of badly needed fuelwood, this initiative has benefitted the country in other important ways : regenerated despoiled forest areas and rehabilitated badly denuded lands; reduced soil erosion; improved the hydrological regime and agricultural productivity; increased employment and income opportunities for the people; and enhanced village level self-reliance and cooperation.

There is no doubt that all this success arose out of the tremendous upsurge of cooperative activity on the part of the Korean people, backed by unflinching support of the government and the supporting institutions unique to Korea. However, the rapid economic growth witnessed in Korea in recent years has undoubtedly helped in forest development, like the decrease in rural population and the consequential reduction of pressure on forests, introduction of substitutes to wood-fuel and change in people's life styles and fuel sources. In the process, which is still unfolding, Korea's experience with community fuelwood plantations has suffered somewhat from the pitfalls of not anticipating the changing demographic and income patterns, on one side, and labour costs and shortages, on the other. It is also felt that while the programme has addressed the problem of fuelwood, it has not looked at the need for good quality timber, which could perhaps have been built into the project design from the beginning.

The lack of a wider perspective on such variables is an important lesson from the Korean experience. These concerns are being addressed now in the next phase of forestry development in the country. As a result, the emphasis seems to be shifting in favour of transforming forests into more economically valuable resources through commercialisation, while also giving importance to the social and environmental aspects. Mechanisation is also being introduced to meet the problem of increasing labour costs.

Nevertheless, Korea's experience with community fuelwood plantations forestry can be considered a success story in as-much-as it has lived upto its mission of producing sufficient fuelwood for the rural areas and providing the momentum for changes in land use and employment patterns in the country. Of equal importance is the role it has played in increasing agricultural productivity, village infrastructure, and halting the process of environmental damage and ecological instability in the countryside.

(c) Panchayat Forest Management in Nepal

Nepal has an area of 147,484 sq. km., most of which is hilly or mountainous and only about one-fifth of this is under cultivation. However, increasing human and livestock population has denuded the hillsides for fuelwood and fodder and it is estimated that in the past two decades, the forest cover has decreased by over 50 percent.

Nepal was perhaps the last nation in Asia to legally place forest lands under central government control through the Forest Nationalisation Act of 1956. However, it was soon realised that the state forestry agencies could not protect and manage the extensive forest tracts without community help and cooperation. Hence, in 1977 the National Forestry Plan was introduced allowing community involvement in managing the national forests. This followed the enactment of the Forest Act in 1976, which made specific provision for the local communities to manage forests. Subsequently, under the Panchayat Forestry Acts of 1978 and 1980, the process of decentralisation was carried forward by allocating to the panchayats about 40 percent of forest lands for participatory management. The Panchayat Forest and Panchayat Protected Forest Rules and Regulations, adopted in 1980, form the legal framework for community forestry development in Nepal. The Forest Department of His Majesty's Government in Nepal has the Community Forestry and Afforestation Division (CFAD), which operates mainly in 29 hill districts (specially in the Middle Mountains Region) having about 4,000 panchayats, under a UNDP/FAO/IDA project started in 1980.

In accordance with the government policy, each panchayat is provided upto 125 ha. of Panchayat Forest (PF- established by planting) and 500 ha. of Panchayat Protected Forest (PPF- existing forest land with at least two-thirds tree cover) for management. All sales from PF accrue to the panchayat, while 25 percent of the sale revenue of timber from PPF is retained by the government. The CFAD is responsible for promoting people's participation in the conservation and management of forest resources entrusted to the panchayats through activities like establishment of panchayat and private nurseries, planting of PF and planned management of PPF, promotion of tree planting on private land, production and distribution of improved cooking stoves and small-scale soil conservation works. The objective is that the panchayats should become self-sufficient in forest produce and self-reliant in management with technical and other assistance provided by the foresters.

Another interesting development is that while initially recognition and authority was given only to the panchayats, gradually with experience, the relevance and utility of the "user groups" has been realised. As a result, the Forest Department has begun to modify procedures to integrate customary management controls and use patterns into the panchayat forest management programme. Thus, the local/village level forest committees, set up under the overall umbrella of the panchayats, are essentially based on the concept of the "user group", i.e. representing the primary group of people that use or will use the forest area. Further, women's participation in these committees is being emphasised and encouraged.

In 1989, the Nepal Forestry Development Plan was formulated and adopted. It aims at providing an integrated planning framework to coordinate government and foreign assistance investment to systematise and accelerate forestry management in the country. One area identified for attention is the development of forest staff capability to work with the "user groups" to formulate and implement community forestry management plans. The creation of such a collaborative process between the Forest Department and the forest "user groups" would undoubtedly help in promoting community foresrty and is a step in the right direction.

Most of the panchayat forests have not reached harvestable stage. Hence, at this stage, little can be said about benefit distribution and sharing, which will ultimately be a crucial element in the success of the collaborative effort. How the forest committees will distribute or dispose of the end product is also unclear so far. However; some idea of the people's perception of the benefits from community forestry can be had from the fact that in the panchayat managed forest lands, livestock grazing and tree felling are prohibited and people have started cooperating in this respect. Many of them are cooperating in forest protection by stall-feeding their livestock instead of grazing them in the forest. Others provide voluntary labour in nursery work. Further, the farmers in the project area are turning to man-made forests on private lands for meeting their needs of fuelwood,fodder and small timber. What is more, the elements of "social fencing" of the forests are emerging.

All these are hopeful signs, which show that given time and proper inputs, community forestry holds promise in Nepal. It has the potential to help the rural people in the country to improve their life styles, while ensuring their cooperation in forest protection and management, especially if they are made aware of how they can benefit in the process and such benefits are channelised in concrete ways. Currently, the level of motivation for forest protection seems to be high, but general awareness of the different activities of community forestry is still low. Success would largely depend on what people expect and what they actually get. Hence, education and extension services need to be strengthened appropriately. Further, it is essential to make the project activities and benefits available on a wide scale for all the needy people.

Other issues crucial for the success of the whole programme relate to aspects like enhancing productivity in a sustainable way and ensuring equity, which is really a plea for getting a fair share, not necessarily an equal share, and this would no doubt vary according to social context and economic need. Then, there are the genuine concerns of the village communities, specially the "user groups", regarding formal support and authority for their rights and responsibilities, so that they may be able to enforce them to restrict outside access and to benefit from the outputs of their effort.

In view of overall responsibility for implementing this ambitious as well as progressive programme, the Forest Department faces a formidable task in working out the mechanisms and modalities for developing meaningful people's participation. However, it requires intensive work and persistent follow up, alongwith re-orientation and training of existing and new staff of the department. In sum, the foresters as well as all the other participants, specially the village representatives, require substantial guidance and training, if decentralised governance and resource management are to be made successful in terms of long-term sustainablity.

In any case, the experience furnished by Nepal is unique in the evolution of forest management systems in Asia and worth studying. Only time will show the extent of its success and its relevance to situations elsewhere.

(d) Participatory Forest Management in India

The officially recorded forest area in India is about 75 million hectares, which works out to 22.8 percent of the total land area of the country. But, satellite imagery has established that the actual area under forest cover is only about 64 million hectares and even this is rapidly undergoing serious depletion and degradation. This is attributable, according to the National Forest Policy Regulation of 1988," to relentless pressures arising from ever-increasing demand for fuelwood, fodder and timber, inadequacy of protection measures, diversion of forest lands to non-forest uses, and tendency to look upon forests as revenue earning resource".

It is noteworthy that about 95 percent of forests in India are fully owned and managed by the government, i.e. the forest departments of the States concerned. It was during the British regime that government ownership and control over forests was expanded and strengthened. As a result, customary use of forest and forest produce by the local people was regulated and restricted over time. This policy was not changed much by the National Forest Policy adopted in 1952, after the country achieved independence. Even though the Forest Acts of 1875 and 1927 (interestingly the Act of 1927 is still in existence) recognised the concept of 'village forests', these were looked upon more as fuel forests to meet the fuelwood needs of the local communities and the forest departments' authority over all forests has remained supreme.

Several commissions and committees, specially those concerned with the welfare of scheduled tribes and development of backward areas, set up periodically to review the use and ownership rights of forests and forest produce, have criticised the forest department's role vis-a-vis the interests of the tribal communities. The total tribal population in India is estimated to be more than 52 million belonging to about 250 communities and their dependence on forests and forest products is well known.

From the 1970s, coinciding with the advent of social forestry, the winds of change have been witnessed. However, though all the five basic management models of social forestry mentioned earlier have been tried in the country, in respect of forest lands a very cautious approach has been adopted. This is no doubt because of the historical background and the traditional mistrust of the rural communities as a threat to forest. As a result, leasing or transfer of forest lands and grant of tenurial rights has not been favoured generally. Instead, two approaches have been tried so far in different states with varying results.

One approach, coinciding with the initial phase of social forestry, came in the form of social security schemes taken up in states like Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. The schemes differ in some ways, but have a common approach : enabling the rural poor to raise trees on degraded forest lands by assigning plots to them for certain number of years and giving to these people a share in the intermediate products and the final produce. The forest department retains control on the forest land, but it is assumed that the beneficiaries of the scheme would help in regenerating the degraded land and also in its protection. However, actual experience reveals a number of deficiencies in implementation, more specially in working out the modalities for assuring the usufructory rights to the beneficiaries. As a result, the main element for ensuring the success of the initiative is lacking. Besides, this involves a kind of parcelling of common property resources, with all

the attendent problems for which there are no easy solutions. Thus,though the social security schemes have provided wage employment, there are serious problems in the execution of these schemes. For this reason, further progress in this direction has been tardy and now there is little enthusiasm in going ahead with this idea even in the States where it has been tried.

The second approach tries to make up for the deficiencies of the first approach, like making the benefits unambigious, selecting the species which the people really want and involving the beneficiaries more meaningfully in the programme by sustaining their interest on a long-term basis. The result is that the people have come forward to cooperate actively with the forest department, more specially to protect the forest areas from which they are deriving the benefits. Three specific experiences in this respect are briefly described below :-

(i) Hill Resource Management Societies in Haryana :

The Shivalik Hills extend from Nepal to Pakistan at the base of the Himalayas. In Haryana, the Shivaliks extend over an area of about 270,000 hectares and form the northern border of the State. Upto the middle of the 19th century, these hills had dense vegetation, while the plains area below was covered with grasses and shrubs. In the next hundred years, all this greenery disappeared rapidly as a result of exploitative policies and other reasons. This seriously affected the user rights of the local communities, apart from causing problems of severe soil erosion, land degredation, fall of agricultural productivity and loss of livelihood security for the local people. Repeated attempts to restore vegetation over the hills, specially after 1950, failed miserably, mainly because such efforts failed to get the cooperation of the local people, who were openly hostile to the forest administration.

In the mid-seventies, it was observed that due to heavy siltation, the Sukhna Lake of Chandigarh (presently capital of Punjab and Haryana States) had lost nearly 70 percent of its water storage capacity. This caused great concern and the Government resolved to do something about the problem on priority. While working out a solution, it was noticed that the major contributor to the problem was the watershed of a village called Sukhomajri. The government team acted with tact and imagination. First of all, it started a running dialogue with the villagers trying to convince them that the salvation lay in checking land degradation and improving the health of the catchment area. Then, to demonstrate what should be done, in 1976-77 an earthen dam was constructed to control gully formation and divert the rain-water through a safe outlet. Tree planting was done to stabilise the soil and the impounded water was used for irrigating the marginal agricultural fields. Two years later, another earthen dam was constructed. These measures bore fruit because they were taken in consultation with the villagers and after taking them into confidence. It was the turning point. Slowly but surely the villagers were convinced of the merits of watershed management. Starting with the primary objective of storing rain-water for irrigating the crops, peoples' interest in improving their agricultural lands was roused and got linked to rehabilitating the catchment area and the whole watershed. This led to a dramatic change in people's attitude towards the hills. The denuders became conservationists. For instance, they decided not to take their animals for grazing in the forest. Stall-feeding and replacement of low-grade cattle and goats by buffaloes for higher milk production followed. Agriculture productivity and fodder availability increased dramatically and the whole ecosystem sprang to life.

There has been no looking back since. In the past decade, the experience of Sukhomajri has been replicated gradually in 40 other locations by the Haryana Forest Department (HFD), with varying degrees of success. In the process, legal, procedural, organisational difficulties and the influence of powerful vested interests have been overcome to devise participatory manage-

ment for degraded reserve forest lands in the Shivalik Hills. The departmental staff has worked hard to identify appropriate technologies, open communication channels with the hill communities, and to organise them into societies known as the Hill Resource Management Societies, to whom collection leases of fodder and bhabbar (local fibre) grasses are being given instead of continuing the earlier system of open auctions.

The results are there to see : the whole ecology and economy of the area is getting transformed, thereby enchancing and strengthening the livelihood security of the local people. As the programme is gradually being expanded, HFD is currently trying to build on the successful elements of the pilot experiences and also expanding its capacity to handle this new and promising responsibility as a State-wide programme. With a view to provide effective policy support to the programme, the State Government is now actively considering the issue of a notification, which would give formal shape and recognition to the participatory forest management programme. This would include specific arrangement on sharing of benefits.

(ii) Village Forest Protection in Orissa :

Rehabilitation and reforestation of the degraded forest lands is an important component of the SIDA-aided Social Forestry Project in Orissa. But, this has been so far largely a departmental activity, with little people's participation. However, there are many villages in the State, where the local people have been actively engaged in the protection and upkeep of the village forests from much before the aforesaid project. In some cases, the initiative for doing so has come from the forest officials; but mostly it is as a result of local interest. The motivation is essentially economic, viz. the villagers get together to protect the forest adjacent to their village so that they may obtain their requirement of firewood, small timber, fodder and other forest produce from there.

According to a recent study, taken up at the instance of Orissa Social Forestry Directorate, there are as many as 1181 villages which have been protecting forest patches totalling about 180,000 acres of forestland spread over 13 districts. This works out to about 3 percent of the total forest area in Orissa. About 37 percent of these forest patches are reserve or protected forests and 76 percent (about 900 out of 1181) are located in the four districts of Sundergarh, Koraput, Dhenkanal and Mayurbhanj, which have always had extensive forest lands. About 15 percent of the total of 1181 protected areas are of 100 hectares or more and some are over 2000 hectares.

The study reveals that in most of the villages informal forest committees have been set up, some of which are in the form of village clubs or youth groups. On the whole, these informal committees or bodies have succeeded in protecting and regenerating the forests in their charge. For instance, of the 80 village forests intensively studied, 51 have thick vegetation. Villagers have voluntarily undertaken to prevent their cattle from grazing in areas where the plants are young and even impose fines on the defaulters. Interestingly enough, these informal bodies seek and get the cooperation and help of the local officials.

It seems that the State Government has realised the significance of this experience. For this reason and recognising the urgency and enormity of the task of forest protection with the active involvement of the rural communities, the State Government issued a Resolution on 1.8.88 giving formal approval to a scheme for this purpose. Under this scheme, the villagers are to be assigned a specific role in the protection and upkeep of the reserve forests adjoining their villages and, in return, will be given certain concessions in the matter of meeting their bonafide requirements of firewood and small timber. The Divisional Forest Officers have specially been made

responsible for constituting village committees having responsibilities like protection of forests assigned to them and distribution of firewood and small timber to the local people and to prepare joint management plans for the village forests.

The new arrangement is yet to take proper shape and much needs to be done. However, if the experience of the informal village forest protection bodies is any indication, it holds good promise and may eventually open a new chapter in the history of forest management in Orissa. No doubt, it would need persistent policy support as well as a legal framework, which is a weakness in the current situation and needs urgent attention.

(iii) Forest Protection Committees in West Bengal :

The south-western part of West Bengal, comprising mainly the districts of Purulia, Bankura and Midnapur, is a lateritic tract having about 400,000 hectares of forest area, mostly Sal (Shorea robusta) forests. Over the years, the forest area had been rendered virtually unproductive on account of commercial exploitation and unregulated grazing and fuelwood collection by the people.

In 1972, the local forest staff initiated a new programme for rehabilitating about 1300 hectares of denuded Sal forest at a village called Arabari in Midnapur District. The rehabilitation scheme focussed on generating sustained productive employment in the forest area, so that the people did not have to pilfer firewood from the forest and sell it in the market. The project also grew fuelwood, so that people got it at cost price, and persuaded the villagers to carry out cattle grazing on a rotational basis. People were even allowed to raise paddy on forest lands, which was sold to the same people at cost price. Thus, the immediate requirements of the people were taken care of, which paved the way for enlisting their willing cooperation in protecting the forest area and forming forest protection committees at the village level. With a view to strengthen this effort, the Forest Depatment agreed eventually to give to these committees rights to all minor forest products and 25 percent share of the timber on maturity, if the scheme succeeded. Supplemental employment opportunities and village welfare activities like provision of drinking water facilities have also been built into the programme by the Forest Department.

The strategy worked at Arabari and then was expanded to the other adjoining areas in the past few years. The result is that at present there are 1266 Forest Protection Committees (FPCs) actively involved in managing about 152,000 hectares of forest lands in Purulia, Bankura and Midnapur districts, which works out to nearly 37 percent of the total forest area in the region. It is estimated that 75 percent of of the FPC forest lands are well protected, with the degraded Sal forest rapidly regenerating.

The Forest Department is currently attempting to extend this successful model to resuscitate the natural forest ecosystem over about 260,000 hectares. At the same time, it is grappling with the many problems and difficulties which any such innovative programme throws up during implementation. The broad strategy is to create employment opportunities through resource building activities and sharing of usufructs. The progremme is attaching increasing importance to collection of non-wood forest products, the construction of earthen dams to check soil erosion and improve agricultural productivity. Resource development activities are identified through the formulation of micro- plans, drawn up in consultation with the community members and after considering a variety of options based on local needs and keeping in view factors like land capabilty and site conditions.

With a view to sustain the initiative, the State Government has issued orders whereunder, apart from sharing of 25 percent of the sale proceeds of the harvest on maturity, some other usufructs like yields from intermediate thinnings, fallen twigs, grasses, fruits, flowers, seeds, etc. are also being made available to the members of the FPCs. Further, a bigger project is being drawn up aimed at extending the success of the 'Arabari experiment' to the other parts of the State having degraded forest areas.

The brief account of the three experiences given above does not do adequate justice to all aspects and details of these success stories. Nor can it claim to be a full analysis of each experience. However, it does bring out the central point that in different parts of India, community participation in forest management is growing. Apart from Haryana, Orissa and West Bengal, there are other States like Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu with their own experiences, big or small. In the hill areas of Uttar Pradesh, the Forest Panchayat system has been in existence for a long time and has its own lessons to offer. In some States, a few NGOs have got actively involved, specially in creating awareness, extension and training activities, organising the villagers as community groups and also helping the forest departments generally in developing collaborative strategies.

Finally, it is necessary to mention that on 1st June, 1990, the Central Government (Ministry of Environment & Forests) has issued, for the first time, detailed guidelines to all the State Governments advocating the involvement of village communities and committed NGOs / voluntary agencies for regeneration of degraded forest lands in the country. The National Forest Policy Resolution of 1988 had envisaged people's involvement in the development and protection of forests and had also stipulated that the requirements of fuelwood, fodder and small timber of the tribals and other villagers living in and near the forests are to be treated as first charge on the forest produce. These policy statements have been given some shape and form by the guidelines of 1st June, 1990, and these may well become a landmark in the history of forest management in India. Considering the significance of this development, the aforesaid guidelines are reproduced later in this paper. The added significance arises from the fact that the country has more than 30 million hectares of degraded forest lands, mostly located close to habitations. For the regeneration of such forest lands, the new strategy and the above-mentioned experiences have great relevance.

Some Lessons

The experiences enumerated above have three important lessons, apart from any other.

First, the experience of each country is, in essence, a response to the typical situation of that country. Each has a specific background from which the story unfolds and is still unfolding. Hence, there are no readymade solutions, at least not at this stage.

Second, despite the varied experiences, it does come out clearly that local community involvement in forest management is a crucial input. In particular, the programmes in India and Nepal show that regeneration of degraded forest areas through the active involvement of the local communities is not only feasible but also a promising proposition. In fact, in some ways this seems to be the only realistic option open to a local community seeking sustainable land use.

The third and perhaps the most important lesson is that ultimately the basic issue is how to change land use in such a way that the people get what they need on a sustainable basis from a relatively fixed or even shrinking, land base. The crucial lesson emerging from all the experiences described above is that it is only the social actors, i.e. the land users, themselves who can help change land use in the desired way and on a scale needed to reverse deterioration of the environment. Thus, for the policy makers and planners, the critical issue is how to generate widespread, local voluntary participation in sustainable forestry activity.

Role of NGOs and Voluntary Agencies

In dealing with the role of NGOs and Voluntary Agencies,two points have to be made at the outset. First, there are very few NGOs in the developing countries engaged exclusively in forestry activities, specially in terms of participation in forest management.This is mainly because hitherto forest management has been the [illegible] forest departments, as in the Asian countries. However, with the advent of social forestry, many NGOs have come forward and got involved in activities which are mostly for promoting tree planting on private and non-forest lands. Secondly, one has to contend with the lack of comprehensive and upto date documentation on the working of such NGOs in the different countries, particularly in Asia. No doubt,fragmentary accounts about some NGOs and individual countries are available. But, it does not make the task easy for an overview. Therefore, what is being attempted here is based on such material and observations as have become readily available and it should not be treated as a comprehensive overview.

An interesting point to note is that the NGOs and Voluntary Agencies involved in forestry activities, specially in social forestry, have proliferated greatly in the past decade in different countries. They range from small local cooperatives or village groups, to national organizations or coalitions of NGOs, to large international NGOs based in the developed countries. They vary enormously in terms of objectives, institutional capability and technical expertise, scale and mode of operation, and funding. However, for our purpose, the focus has to be on the national NGOs, more specially the local ones.

According to FAO's Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, about a hundred prominent NGOs are active in the countries of this region in forestry and environment related activities. If smaller and informal groups are considered, the number would run into several hundreds. Precise information about all of them is neither readily available, nor easy to compile.

Perhaps the most numerous are to be found in India. This is not surprising considering the size and polity of the country and the pattern of development since independence, as well as the growing awareness about the serious state of the natural environment in the country. The Directory of Environmental NGOs in India (1989), brought out by the Environmental Services Group of WWF-India and the only publication of this type so far, lists as many as 878 NGOs, big and small, spread throughout the country. Of these, about one-half are involved in one way or the other with forestry related activities. These range from national organizations like the Society for Promotion of Wastelands Development, the BAIF Development Research Foundation and the Agha Khan Rural Support Programme which operate in a number of States, to small and informal groups operating at the village level.

Specific programmes to spread environmental consciousness have helped in encouraging the NGO movement in India. In this connection, the ***National Environment Awareness Campaigns*** promoted by the Ministry of Environment & Forests need mention. It has encouraged several NGOs to link up their primary concerns for rural development and welfare activities with matters concerning the environment. The ***Council for Application of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART),*** under the Central Department of Rural Development, has been supporting many NGOs primarily for rural development activities but, in the process and inevitably, some of them have got involved in afforestation/tree planting activities and have done good work.

Here, a special mention is necessary of the ***Wastelands Development Programme*** initiated by the Government of India in 1985 with the establishment of the ***National Wastelands Development Board (NWDB)*** In the past five years, NWDB has taken several initiatives to involve the people in afforestation and wastelands development activities, including a special scheme to involve the people through voluntary agencies like non-profit organizations, registered societies, cooperatives, or trusts, educational institutions and grass-roots people's organizations like youth clubs or women groups. Financial assistance is provided under the scheme to such NGOs for activities directly or indirectly related to tree planting and wastelands development, like raising of

seedlings in nurseries, tree planting on degraded common or private lands (specially of poorer sections of society), awareness raising and even evaluation studies. Between 1985 and 1990 (upto 31 August '90), a total of 385 projects of 288 voluntary agencies had been sanctioned and supported by the NWDB in 20 States of the country, mostly in Tamil Nadu (52), Maharashtra (41), Rajasthan (39), Gujarat (37), Andhra Pradesh (35), West Bengal (35) and Bihar (33).

The NWDB has also initiated and supported a programme for setting up Tree Growers' Cooperatives and Farm Forestry Cooperatives in seven States. An apex federation called the Rashtriya Vriksha Mitra Sahyog has also been established and the programme is being expanded gradually along the lines of the famous Anand pattern of dairy cooperatives.

Apart from this, under the ongoing Social Forestry Projects in 14 States, which are aided by donor agencies like the World Bank, SIDA, CIDA, USAID, ODA and DANIDA, NGOs are being encouraged to participate in social forestry activities, with varying degrees of success. In view of the emphasis on people's participation in all these projects, the scope for involvement of NGOs is increasing day by day.

Finally, it may be mentioned that the NWDB has been arranging evaluations of all completed projects of voluntary agencies assisted by it. Evaluations of 49 such projects completed upto the end of 1988 show that in about 60 percent of these projects 'good' to 'excellent' work had been done. With a view to encourage outstanding work by voluntary agencies as well as individuals, the NWDB has also instituted national awards, which have been given regularly each year since 1986. Names of some prominent voluntary agencies who have received these awards, alongwith a brief account of the nature of work done by each, are appended to this paper.

NGO Strengths :

There is no doubt that the capabilities of NGOs can complement the strengths (and limitations) of government forestry programmes. NGO strengths include :

- Intimate knowledge of local conditions and close communication with the local communities, which gives the NGOs the ability to facilitate local initiative , reflect local needs and mobilize local participation.
- The flexibility needed to develop,test and carry out innovative approaches to working with the local communities.
- A commitment to the rural poor and an appreciation of the need to involve women in rural development programmes.
- The ability to integrate forestry activities with related agriculture, energy,water supply, health,or other activities within broader rural development programmes.
- Relatively low administrative costs and ability to mobilize the use of local resources; and
- A commitment to long-term programme and to achieving local self-sufficiency.

With their grassroots orientation and integrated approach to rural development,the major contribution of NGOs can lie in the promotion of community-based, participatory forestry programmes that benefit economically or socially disadvantaged groups. In this role , the NGOs can take on activities that the government agencies by themselves can't or won't. More specially,the NGOs can play important roles in information gathering and applied research,extension, and specially in policy advocacy.

Policy advocacy - The NGOs' role in representing local interests is crucial. As "watchdogs", many NGOs can monitor the environmental and social impacts of government policies and programmes,particularly impacts on the rural poor. NGOs can bring the "grassroots" perspective to government policy-making, advocating policy and institutional reforms to support local efforts, specially to establish sustainable patterns of land use.

Information gathering and applied research - More and better information from the local level needs to flow upward to the government agencies, both to improve communication and understanding at all levels and to ensure that government policies and programmes fit local needs and conditions. The basic social, economic, and other data needed can be provided best by the local people themselves. The NGOs can play an important role in information gathering and applied research at the local level. For example, they can survey local perceptions of problems and needs, conduct applied research such as on-farm species trials, and monitor and evaluate field projects.

Extension - The NGOs can play a particularly important role in organizing and facilitating local initiatives by raising public awareness, providing technical assistance, and carrying out other extension activities. NGOs can use information gained from surveys and other applied research to design and test appropriate models for forestry projects. They can also locally facilitate government programmes that are compatible with their own objectives. Successful NGO field activities include:

- Decentralized nurseries for producing and distributing seeds and seedlings;
- Tree planting and maintenance, emphasising agroforestry approaches on private farmlands and communal lands outside of forests;
- Conservation and management of existing natural forests;
- Soil and water conservation;
- Rehabilitation of wastelands;
- Fuelwood conservation and improved cooking stoves;
- Promotion of small-scale forest enterprises.

NGO Weaknesses :

Despite their strengths, many NGOs can be constrained by institutional and other internal weaknesses. The "ad hoc" nature of many NGO activities and the absence of a clear sense of priorities are two common shortcomings. These and other problems stem partly from uncertainty over the availability of human and financial resources. Without reliable administrative and financial resources, the NGOs cannot effectively plan their activities and participate in government projects. Since forestry and natural resource management are relatively new activities for many NGOs, limits on their technical skills also pose constraints. Indeed, many NGOs without trained and experienced personnel must rely mainly on volunteer assistance. Although NGOs have proliferated in recent years, they tend to act in isolation, and few exchange information or share experiences. Moreover, while some NGOs have developed the capacity to effectively use relatively large amount of funding, most NGOs are in an earlier stage of evolution and have received little or no support for institutional development.

Other Constraints to Expanding the Role of NGOs :

Several external factors further constrain greater NGO involvement in developing and implementing forestry programmes. Although there is growing recognition of the important role of NGOs,collaboration among

NGOs,governments, and other agencies is generally poor. The main reason is often a lack of information on the NGOs - who they are, what they do, and what their technical and administrative capabilities are. Government staff generally has no experience in identifying,assessing, and working with the NGOs, and there is no means for direct, systematic communication and interaction. When government agencies do try to work with the NGOs, the former too often direct rather than collaborate, viewing the NGOs only as implementing agents that can carry out programmes designed by the government agencies.

Government relations with the NGOs do differ from country to country. In some countries, cooperation is the norm. But in many, scepticism-sometimes even mutual suspicion and mistrust-colours the relations with the NGOs. In fact, most NGOs also lack knowledge of government priorities and programmes. NGOs often bypass national and local governments, either because they have been ignored in the past or because they guard their independence fiercely. In either case, the government is naturally suspicious, which jeopardizes future cooperation. Relations also grow strained when the NGOs pursue, or seem to pursue,political objectives that clash with the government's.

A fundamental problem in relations between the NGOs and government agencies is the conflict between the participatory,flexible nature of NGO programmes and the need to meet official bureaucracies' requirements and priorities. The complicated and time-consuming procedures required by the government agencies for project applications, reporting, and monitoring can overwhelm the NGOs. Also, governments prefer supporting large-scale projects that show quick results -an approach that may be beyond the capabilities of many NGOs and incompatible with their priorities and operating style.

NGOs also face funding constraints. Although funding needs vary enormously among the NGOs, there are a number of common problems. Often, funding is provided piecemeal and without regard to long-term planning needs. This can disrupt project activities and cause a loss of credibility among the people that the NGO serves. Problems also arise when the government steps in and dictates how the NGO should spend funds. The tendency of government agencies to follow a narrow sectoral approach to funding may conflict with the more integrative approach that the NGOs take to forestry problems.

In general,core funding is not available to local NGOs for institution building,particlarly over the long-term. Most funding is for project activities, and it comes with no provision for NGOs' institutional development needs. Many agencies have no legal mandate to work with the NGOs, and others have only a weak mandate that is subject to government clearance. Also, many agencies find it impractical to disperse funds to NGOs since it costs as much to administer a small grant as a large one.

SUGGESTIONS :

The following suggestions are made on actions to improve and expand collaboration among the NGOs and government agencies, so as to make forestry policies and programmes more effective.

First, mutual understanding of the complementary roles of NGOs and government agencies is needed to establish a basis for constructive collaboration. To develop such understanding requires an open,ongoing dialogue and more and better information.

Second, the government agencies need to adjust policies and procedures to facilitate and enhance NGO involvment in policy-making and the project cycle.

Third, greater attention must be given to NGOs' institutional development, if these organizations are to establish credibility,improve collaboration with the government agencies, and play an expanded role in overcoming forest land-use problems. In addition to strengthening their administrative capabilities, institution-building means developing the means to better assess local needs and increasing the capacity to help the local

communities mobilize their inherent potential for solving their own problems.

Finally, new mechanisms must be found to channel funds to the NGOs. Funding relations between an NGO and the concerned government agency must be based on mutual understanding, trust and respect for the autonomy of the NGO, and should enable it to achieve its mission and to strengthen the participation of its members or of the target community.

More specifically, the following points need attention :-

A Commitment to Collaboration :

- Government agencies must recognize and collaborate with the NGOs as partners in the development and implementation of forestry policies and programmes.

- NGOs must acknowledge the government's primary role in setting national policies and priorities and, without compromising their independence, establish a cooperative working relationship.

Improving Communication and Understanding :

- NGOs need to clearly define and widely communicate their policy and programme objectives, as well as their technical and managerial capabilities, taking care not to create unfulfilable expectations.

- National workshops or "consultations" should be convened to promote a dialogue among the NGOs and government ministries / agencies on forestry issues . Such consultations could be linked to the national forestry sector reviews taking place within the framework of the Tropical Forestry Action Plan. The consultations could lead to the formation of an NGO / government / aid agency "working group" on forestry that would promote better understanding; clearly establish government priorities and reach agreement on national objectives in forestry; offer an opportunity for the NGOs to influence policy; and provide a forum to discuss all aspects of project design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.

Strengthening NGO Capabilities :

- Improved collaboration among the NGOs is necessary. A national NGO network would facilitate information-sharing among the NGOs through newsletters,workshops,in-country training seminars, and other means.

- Funding agencies should help strengthen the administrative, project development,and financial management capabilities of the NGOs. These agencies should include an NGO training component in all forestry and natural resource management projects that they fund, and support workshops,seminars, and other institution-building activities. In improving programme effectiveness, these skills matter as much as technical skills.

- NGOs need to strengthen their technical capabilities. They must establish stronger links with the technical branches of government forest departments, other relevant government agencies,

and research institutions.

Funding :

- A national NGO network could help distribute funds to the NGOs, and help NGOs meet government requirements for financial accountability and project administration. However, it may be noted that many NGOs are concerned about losing their independence by participating in such a network, and many would prefer to obtain funds directly from non-government and even international agencies.

- Local NGOs should help raise funds locally so as not to become dependent on external sources of funding. Local fund-raising might also increase confidence in the NGOs.

- Government agencies need to simplify and better coordinate the application procedures and reporting requirements which the NGOs must follow to obtain funding.

Conclusions

While no hard and fast rules can be laid down, a review of the experiences gained so far, specially of the type discussed in the preceding parts of this paper, provide some indication of what has and has not worked. Of course, one should not apply what worked in one situation to another situation without considering the full implications. Nevertheless, the following conclusions can be put down with regard to factors involved in stimulating active local initiative and involvement in such forestry programmes.

(1) **Understanding and involving local communities early in the planning process :-** The general experience is that the success stories relate to situations where the outside institutions — forest services, NGOs, or other groups — have come in to help the local people solve their problems and have made the effort to understand how the community perceives those problems and what the local people can do about them. Many times, tree planting for raising fuelwood is started assuming that fuel wood scarcity is the main concern of the local people whereas the real need may be fodder and small timber. In such cases, local enthusiasm would naturally be lacking. Early interaction with community would avoid this problem. Besides, it is necessary to think in terms of multiple-purpose species, where fuelwood is one of the outputs. Experience indicates that farmers seldom plant trees for only one purpose.

(2) **Reducing conflicts about land use and between community factions:-** Social forestry projects often face significant conflicts between community factions about the use of communal lands, between the types of activities men and women want, and so forth. Project planners must identify potential conflicts and address them early, preferably before the field operations begin. Methods of doing this include (a) clearly designating rights to specific forest or tree outputs at specific times to various community groups; (b) making sure that every group in the community benefits from some aspect of the programme; (c) ensuring that the villagers understand the project and the rules and regulations involved (e.g. who gets the outputs); and (d) proper extension arrangements, backed by effective monitoring and evaluation, specially to check the problem of mis-information or lack of information. Clear knowledge of who will get what and when is essential to generate interest in participatory activities. The participants should also feel secure that the benefits will not be removed once the trees have started to grow and mature for harvest. Often, informal or hidden use rights exist for a piece of common land. Careful study is needed to make sure that forestry activity is not started on such lands in a way that leads to conflict. All affected parties need to be satisfied to avoid some group undermining the project.

(3) **Starting small and simple and building up participation through demonstration effect :-** It has been noticed that projects that started big, with expectations that were high, have failed because of

disillusionment among the local participants and the project staff at a later stage. On the other hand, those projects which started small and simple and built up participation through demonstration have been relatively successful. No doubt some social forestry programmes that started big have also succeeded. However, they are the exceptions and generally involve situations where the major inputs of skilled human and other resources were available, as in Korea and India, over an extended period of time. The key seems to be start small and simple and rely on demonstration and extension to increase participation. Simple technologies that can be developed and replicated easily have also been associated with success. The added advantage may be cost effectiveness. For instance, decentralised nursery operations have proved useful, despite the need for special attention to seedling quality. Tree growing activities expand more rapidly where small, locally run nurseries supply the seedlings.

(4) **Making use of existing sustainable practices :-** The chances of people's participation are greater when changes to be introduced in the way people do things are kept to the minimum. The essence lies in finding out how to achieve the objectives for a given population with the least disruption to its environment. There are a number of ways to achieve a given objective. The best alternative is generally one that can achieve the objective in the simplest way, while being in harmony with the existing cultural and social values and practices. This also tends to be the most replicable alternative. Quite often, the appropriate solution may not be apparent from the results of a pilot project with heavy inputs of outside, skilled human resources, which cannot possibly be sustained over time. Hence, the relevance of the solution being simple, easily understandable and adaptable to local conditions.

(5) **Ensuring participation of women :-** Rural women in most developing countries are directly and intimately involved in activities concerning the use of forest and tree produce, but unfortunately they are neglected in the social forestry programme, often to the detriment of the programme. It is now universally agreed that women must be given special consideration, both in terms of active participation from the stage of planning and in terms of ensuring their share of the benefits.

(6) **Removing uncertainty for the participants and ensuring short-term benefits :-** It is essential that all elements of a programme are developed, explained, and agreed upon systematically and clearly. Likewise, benefits need to be assured to the targetted beneficiaries, with reasonable government support provided to generate confidence among the local communities. Further, in view of the obvious perference for present benefits and consumption, the local people are generally reluctant to become involved in tree-related activities from which the benefits occur far into the future. To get round this problem, complementary activities are needed to generate benefits and employment in the shorter term, e.g. by integrating tree-growing activity with other forest-related activities such as the collection / sale of grass, fruit, nuts, leaves, bark, honey, wax, and other minor forest produce. Off-farm employment in tree-related cottage industries also has excellent potential in some areas.

(7) **Building flexibility into programme implementation :-** Experience shows that most projects have turned out quite differently than originally planned and that projects that actually proceed as planned are the exception rather than the rule. Hence, project planning itself should build in flexibility to adjust the operations as conditions warrant. The establishment of a monitoring and evaluation system helps to systematise the process of learning and adapting in the light of experience.

(8) **Working with local leaders and institutions including NGOs :-** Experience from around the world shows that successful programmes may involve schools, local womens' organisations, cooperatives, local voluntary organisations, and local industry. No group should be excluded from consideration. Rather, the effort should be to motivate a given group to participate in, or lead, an activity. The choice of local institutions or groups may be determined through the local political process. Groups may negotiate and reach compromises to protect their interests in the best possible way. Most decisions in this respect should arise from the community leaders and the project personnel working together. Recognising this point early is essential to successful design and implementation.

(9) **Retraining foresters or getting new personnel involved, and reducing forest service resistance :-** This issue is connected to the debate whether it is better to retrain field foresters for the

special skills and attitudes involved in social forestry or to develop a new and separate cadre of "social foresters". Both approaches have been tried, and both have brought success and failure. In some cases, a combination of both approaches has been used. In other cases, professional foresters have worked with local extension agents who handle both agriculture and forestry. Other approaches also exist, but the central point is that the issue needs to be considered explicitly and early at the planning stage to ensure availability of committed staff.

In many countries, resistance among the forest services to the ideas, objectives, and methods associated with the social forestry programmes is still evident. Many well-meaning foresters continue to see themselves primarily as guardians of the forest, and feel that people have to be kept out of the forest, to avoid damage. Training alone is not enough, if the attitudes are not changed also.

(10) **Recognising the importance of fodder and grass :-** Early social forestry efforts often failed to devote attention and resources to tree fodder and grasses, partly because this was outside the realm of interest of the foresters,and partly because the foresters did not recognise the importance of such outputs. In recent years, the situation is changing. For example, the foresters now know that in many areas like the Himalayas, tree fodder and forest grasses provide the major part of animal feed. Furthermore, uncontrolled grazing is responsible for much of the damage in the forests of upland communities in many parts of the world. Hence, social forestry programmes must consider forest grazing and tree fodder production as a serious proposition.

(11) **Organising extension activities :-** There is no doubt that experience with social forestry extension is growing. But, it is not yet clear whether to extend social forestry through the existing agricultural extension network or to set up separate units for this purpose. This remains a matter of choice based on individual circumstances. Whatever the system used, extension agents should think of themselves as "facilitators" and realise that their main function is to enable project management to learn about local communities, their needs and interests. Social forestry extension personnel should also recognise the close linkages that exist with agriculture in general and avoid conflicts with agricultural programmes. Further, there is a greater probability of success in building on existing successful practices in the communities and doing this in a farming systems context so far.

The above mentioned points are crucial in planning, organising and implementing social forestry programmes. They provide some guideposts, each of which has to be considered in a practical context for each new situation. No doubt, much more experience has to be gained and analysed before firmer and more specific models can be developed. Furthermore, social forestry activities tend to be complex and involve unique, location-specific combination of circumstances and factors that defy categorisation or classification. Yet, even in such cases, something positive can be learned from the experiences.

No. 6-21/89-F.P.
Government of India
Ministry of Environment and Forests
Department of Environment, Forests and Wildlife
Paryavaran Bhavan, C.G.O. Complex, B - Block

Lodhi Road, New Delhi. dated : 1st June, 1990

To

The Forest Secretaries(All States / UTs)

Subject : Involvement of village communities and voluntary agencies for regeneration of degraded forest lands.

Sir,

The National Forest Policy, 1988 envisages people's involvement in the development and protection of forests. The requirements of fuelwood, fodder and small timber such as house-building material, of the tribals and other villagers living in and near the forests, are to be treated as first charge on forest produce. The policy document envisages it as one of the essentials of forest management that the forest communities should be motivated to identify themselves with the development and protection of forests from which they derive benefits.

2. In a D.O. letter No. 1/1/88-TMA dated 13th January, 1989 to the Chief Secretary of your State, the need for working out the modalities for giving to the village communities, living close to the forest land, usufructory benefits to ensure their participation in the afforestation programme, was emphasized by Shri K.P. Geethakrishnan, the then Secretary (Environment and Forests).

3. Committed voluntary agencies / NGOs, with proven track record, may prove particularly well suited for motivating and organising village communities for protection, afforestation and development of degraded forest land, espacially in the vicinity of habitations. The State Forest Departments/ Social Forestry Organisations ought to take full advantage of their expertise and experience in this respect for building up meaningful people's participation in protection and development of degraded forest lands. The voluntary agencies / NGOs may be associated as interface between State Forest Departments and the local village communities for revival, restoration and development of degraded forests in the manner suggested below :-

(i) The programme should be implemented under an arrangement between the Voluntary Agency / NGO, the village community (beneficiaries) and the State Forest Department.

(ii) No ownership or lease rights over the forest land should be given to the beneficiaries or to the Voluntary Agency/ NGO. Nor should the forest land be assigned in contravention of the provisions contained in the Forest (Conservation) Act, 1980.

(iii) The beneficiaries should be entitled to a share in usufructs to the extent and subject to the conditions prescribed by the State Government in this behalf. The Voluntary Agency / NGO should not be entitled to usufructory benefits.

(iv) Access to forest land and usufructory benefits should be only to the beneficiaries who get organised into a village institution, specifically for forest regeneration and protection. This could be the Panchayat or the Cooperative of the village, with no restriction on membership. It could also be a Village Forest Committee. In no case should any access or tree pattas be given to individuals.

(v) The beneficiaries should be given usufructs like grasses, lops and tops of branches, and minor forest produce. If they successfully protect the forests, they may be given a portion of the proceeds from the sale of trees when they

mature. (The Government of West Bengal has issued orders to give 25% of the sale proceeds to the Village Forest Protection Committees. Similar norms may be adopted by other States).

(vi) Areas to be selected for the programme should be free from the claims (including existing rights, privileges, concessions) of any person who is not a beneficiary under the scheme. Alternatively, for a given site the selection of beneficiaries should be done in such a way that any one who has a claim to any forest produce from the selected site is not left out without being given full opportunity of joining.

(vii) The selected site should be worked in accordance with a Working Scheme, duly approved by the State Government. Such scheme may remain in operation for a period of 10 years and revised/renewed after that. The Working Scheme should be prepared in consultation with the beneficiaries. Apart from protection of the site, the said Scheme may prescribe requisite operations, e.g. inducement to natural regeneration of existing root stock, seeding, gap filling, and wherever necessary, intensive planting, soil-moisture conservation measures etc. The Working Scheme should also prescribe other operations e.g. fire-protection, maintenance of boundaries, weeding, tending, cleaning, thinning etc.

(viii) For raising nurseries, preparing land for planting and protecting the trees after planting, the beneficiaries should be paid by the Forest Department from the funds under the social forestry programme. However, the village community may obtain funds from other Government agencies and sources for undertaking these activities.

(ix) It should be ensured that there is no grazing at all in the forest land protected by the village community. Permission to cut and carry grass free of cost should be given so that stall feeding is promoted.

(x) No agriculture should be permitted on the forest land.

(xi) Along with trees for fuel, fodder and timber, the village community may be permitted to plant such fruit trees as would fit in with the overall scheme of afforestation, such as aonla, imli, mango, mahua etc. as well as shrubs, legumes and grasses which would meet local needs, help soil and water conservation, and enrich the degraded soils/land. Even indigenous medicinal plants may be grown according to the requirement and preference of beneficiaries.

(xii) Cutting of trees should not be permitted before they are ripe for harvesting. The forest department also should not cut the trees on the forest land being protected by the village communities except in the manner prescribed in the Working Scheme. In case of emergency needs, the village communities should be taken in to confidence.

(xiii) The benefit of people's participation should go to the village communities and not to commercial or other interests which may try to derive benefit in their names. The selection of beneficiaries should therefore, be done from only those families which are willing to participate through their personal efforts.

(xiv) The Forest Department should closely supervise the works. If the beneficiaries and / or the Voluntary Agency / NGO fail or neglect to protect the area from grazing, encroachment or do not perform the operations prescribed in the Working Scheme in a satisfactory manner, the usufructory benefits should be withdrawn without paying compensation to anyone for any work that might have been done prior to it. Suitable provisions in the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) for this purpose should be incorporated.

Yours faithfully,

-sd-
(Mahesh Prasad)
Secretary to the Government of India

SOME PROMINENT INDIAN NGOs GIVEN NATIONAL AWARDS BY NWDB.

1986 Bhartiya Agro-Industries Foundation, Pune, Maharashtra.

Under the dynamic leadership of Shri Manibhai Desai, the Foundation (BAIF) took up poverty alleviation and rural development in the barren and drought affected area of Urlikanchan in Maharashtra. Beginning with the Introducion of improved breed of cattle, agroforestry and social forestry were taken up for providing fodder initially and later as an economic activity. BAIF introduced and promoted Subabul as a fodder and fuel species. Their demonstration farms in Maharashtra, Gujarat, U.P., Rajasthan and Karnataka provide training as well as extension services to the farmers. BAIF has undertaken a project of wastelands development by the tribals in Vansda, Gujarat. Covering more than a thousand landless tribal families, the forestry project has made them econoically self-sufficient, while safeguarding the forests.

BAIF's Mahatma Gandhi Vidyalaya, a school with a vocational bias, has raised and distributed several crores of saplings through the students. The demonstration effect has been most striking. Many schools in the region have sent their teachers for training to the Vidyalaya.

Brukhy 'O' Jeever Bandho Parisada, Orissa

The Parisada works on environmental conservation in 22 villages in Puri district of Orissa. Two nearby hills, Binjaagiri and Malatin, which were completely devastated and denuded, are now protected by them and they are once again covered with vegetation. Barren areas continue to be planted by the Parisada. Lakhs of seedlings have been distributed in the surrounding villages. Controlled grazing has been ensured in the hills. Villagers are discouraged from keeping goats. Vegetation has consequently improved. The streams now have more water, and wildlife and birds are returning to their erstwhile natural habitat.

With the collaboration of another organisation-Nipirdit at Phulbani-800 hectares of Sal forest are protected by the Parisada. Workshop and Padyatras have been organised in the village, as part of the Parisada's awareness-raising campaigns.

Central Young Mizo Association, Mizoram

Established in 1935, the Association has 537 branches with a membership of 93,000 from all over the State. Each member contributes the earnings of a day's voluntary labour to the funds of the Association. This is an innovative move.

The Association has done very useful work, particularly in ecodevelopment. Its afforestation drives have wide acceptance and are therefore extremely effective. Since 1974, large scale tree plantations have been undertaken. Lakhs of trees surviving on the hilly slopes are due to the efforts of the people, inspired by the Association. The Association also encouraged maintenance of forests reserves and presently 200 branches are maintaining such reserves. Due to the demonstrated effectiveness of the Association the State Government is associating it in jhum control and protection of forests from fire, with the involvement of the people.

Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad, Kerala.

The Parishad's basic philosophy is that science popularisation can become a powerful tool for speeding up the development process and pushing it into appropriate directions. Its members include doctors, engineers, lawyers, environmentalists, scientists, teachers, government employees, trade union workers, agriculturists and unemployed youth. The objective is to mobilise people's power to prevent environmental degradation. Outside Kerala it is known as the organisation that led the successful battle against the setting up of the Silent Valley hydroelectric project.

The Parishad has 250 units with 4,000 members from all over the State. Its 600 village science forums spearhead the Parishad's programmes at the village level. It employs all possible means of communication in its "Sastrakalajatha", (a science march through the medium of art), to raise awareness among the people of the importance of forests and the impact of public policies on their life and environment.

Mahila Mangal Dals of Chamoli, Uttar Pradesh

Under the inspiring leadership of Shri Chandi Prasad Bhatt, 30 Mahila Mangal Dals of Chamoli are actively regenerating and protecting the forest wealth in their villages, thereby achieving remarkable success in regenerating the village economy. They have evolved a well controlled system of equitable distribution of fodder and other forest produce in the villages. Entirely managed by women, the Dals voluntarily undertake to guard the forests against illegal felling.

The Dals participated in the Chipko Movement along with other organisations like Daliyon ke Dagdiya and Dasholi Gram Swaraj Mandal, Gopeshwar, to protect forests from being felled for commercial exploitation. They hold environment conservation camps in remote villages and, with the active participation of the local women, are turning barren hillsides green with local species of fuel, fodder and timber. The example of these Chipko women has highlighted the power of women in tackling ecological issues all over the world.

Ramakrishna Mission Ashram, Ranchi, Bihar.

The Ashram is doing outstanding work in the field of wastelands development, social forestry and agro-forestry through its Divyayan Krishi Vigyan Kendra and its intensive vilage extension work in the tribal belt of the Chhotanagapur in Bihar.

It has set up a large number of people's nurseries and lakhs of trees have been planted in the interior villages. Emphasis is on the involvement of tribals and the poor.

The Ashram places highest importance on awareness raising in the 100 villages it has adopted. Through audio visuals, meetings and training camps, the message of afforestation is spread far and wide, and techniques of nursery raising and afforestation propagated. Youth clubs motivate villagers to conserve plantations. Fines are levied by the community for cutting trees. Students of Ashram schools are actively involved in all these activities. Afforestation has been accepted by the people because the Ashram has demonstrated that it is a viable programme.

School of Fundamental Research, Calcutta, West Bengal.

In 1985 the school undertook a survey to identify wastelands in 135 villages in Purulia District of West Bengal. In villages where forests existed, the school inspired the formation of village level Forest Protection Committees to stop pilferage and arrest further degradation of forest lands.

Groups of teachers and students cover the villages with the help of the local people. About 1 lakh saplings are planted every year. Village awareness campaign meetings, eco-development programme, field demonstrations for utilisation of minor forest produce and a sustained village level campaign to build up scientific awareness are undertaken. Working among the tribal and other backward communities, the School has focussed people's attention on the hazards of depletion of forest wealth and has created a vested interest in them in developing forests.

1987

Forestry Project of Chandmura and ten other villages in Arabari Range of District Midnapur, West Bengal.

A cluster of eleven villages in the Arabari Range of Midnapur District in West Bengal present an example of how the popular will can be harnessed to achieve results in social forestry. An enlightened forest officer in 1972 evolved an innovative scheme in consultation with the local poeple a scheme that met the immediate needs of the people for fuel and other wood and grazing rights for their cattle while creating jobs to rejuvenate the tree cover in an area heavily denuded of this community asset. After 15 years, the success of this scheme is an established fact. Forest cover has been restored over an estimated 1300 hectares of degraded land, yielding produce of timber estimated to be worth crores of rupees. As promised to the people, the State Government has arranged for distribution of 25 percent of this as their share of usufruct to the beneficiaries in return for their cooperation in maintaining and protecting the forest area. This has also augumented family income.

Harekala Landless Poor and Marginal Farmers' Development Society, Karnataka.

The society has been engaged in a number of programmes of ecological benefit in villages in the Harekala-Muloor area of Mangalore Taluka in South Kanara District of Karnataka. Their programmes have included large scale tree planting and development of minor irrigation works and soil conservation schemes.

Working since 1976, the Society has concentrated its efforts on promoting environmental consciousness among the youth and bringing economic benefits through social forestry to poor and landless villagers. Poor farmers with barren lands have been motivated to level and reclaim the land, dig wells, construct fences around plots and grow local species of fast growing trees. They were encouraged to work cooperatively as in a commune and new settlements, sharing facilities in common, have taken roots in this area. The Society has set up its nurseries and established a number of "trained manual labour brigades" equipping its local volunteers with skills that enable them to plant and maintain the trees.

Mahila Mandals, Comprehensive Rural Health Programme, Maharashtra

Mahila Mandals form an integral part of the Aroles' Comprehensive Rural Health Programme at Jamkhed in the Ahmadnagar District of Maharashtra, a programme that has won worldwide acclaim for the medical husband-and-wife team. To generate productive employment for women workers, its 80 Mahila Mandals, with a total membership of over 1000 women, launched a massive social forestry project in the early 1980s. Under this project, over 3.5 million trees were planted in 1982 and under its nursery programmem 2.8 million saplings have been raised since 1983.

The Forestry project covers an impressive 415 acres of land. The care and concern lavished on the development and growth of the infant plants by the Mahila Mandals accounts, no doubt, for the high survival rate. The conspicuous success of the Jamkhed project is an eloquent reminder of the important role that women can play in the task of maintaining and restoring Nature's balance.

1988

Magra Mewar Vikas Sanstha, Ajmer, Rajasthan.

The Sanstha originally came into existence in the year 1975 under name of Jawaja Project Group and began its village extension work with the help of dedicated local village teachers, who initiated dialogue with the village communities on issues primarily concerning them, i.e. shortage of fuelwood, fodder, food and water and the causes of such scarcity. The Groups in collaboration with the Society for Promotion of Wastelands Development, took up afforestation of hills, common lands and field boundaries to restore the ecology and productivity of the area.

The Sanstha has spread its activities over 150 villages in the districts of Ajmer, Bhilwara and Pali and the activities comprise of protection of existing vegetation by villagers and nursery programmes for private plantation of fuelwood and fodder species. The Agency has taken up community plantation, rain water management for grass, fuelwood and fodder cultivation and watershed management besides decentralised nurseries and seed banks for forestry and grass species. The Sanstha introduced the system of consensus within the village communities for equitable distribution of usufructs, adopting different systems for different villages.

Between 1984 and 1988, the Sanstha has raised over 20 lakh saplings, 1,50,000 basket nurseries and planted over 12 lakh saplings covering 600 villages involving several thousands of people.

Comprehensive Social Service Society, Srikakulam, Andhra Pradesh.

The Society was set up in 1977 and took up the development and betterment of the tribals and backward communities of the area. Convinced that no programme could be successful unless the people were provided education and informed of their rights and duties, the Society has organised Sangams to provide opportunities to the people to make and implement their own decisions. People are mobilised to reclaim land with the help of local resources and some help from the Society. Every village is provided with Rs. 10,000 as a Community Fund from which they can borrow for consumption as well as for agricultural inputs. The management of the Community Fund has created confidence and unity among the members.

During the past few years, the Society has encouraged afforestation on wastelands. Nearly 600 acres of wastelands have been developed involving more than 100 tribal and backward class people. Decentralised nurseries have been set up and more than 1.5 lakhs saplings have been planted in the area.

The work of the Society is all the more important because Srikakulam is a highly inaccessible and backward area. The Society has organised people for prevention of soil erosion and management of watersheds. The impressive work done in this underdeveloped region has become an example for others working in wastelands development.

1989

Jungle Surakhya Samiti, Suruguda, District Sundergarh, Orissa.

The Samiti has not only been protecting nearby forests but has also provided an example for others to emulate. Suruguda village has nearly 300 households and a cattle population of about 1200 heads and 1000 goats and sheep. Indiscriminate tree-felling and over-grazing by the village cattle had been going on in the forests adjoining the Suruguda village. When the villagers became aware of the depleted and degraded environmental condition, they decided to set up a village level protection committee in 1987 to look after the khesra forests as well as the degraded Bindah reserved forest. The villagers, by rotation, guard the 256 hectare forest against damage from fire, grazing or illicit felling. An additional 10,000 trees have also been planted, with a very high survival rate.

The villagers have opted for stall feeding of their cattle and alternative energy sources, like improved chullas, electricity and biogas as fuelwood saving devices.

A.M.M.Murugappa Chettiar Research Centre, Tharamani, Madras, Tamil Nadu.

The Centre has done excellent work in promoting wastelands development in 9 villages in Tamil Nadu. It has shown how semi-arid wastelands in the foot-hills of the Western Ghats can be reclaimed and put to productive and sustainable use.

Extensive soil and water conservation measures like building check-dams, gully plugging, etc. have been undertaken before starting the actual plantation. 280 ha. of semi-arid land has been planted with Tamarind and other economic species. Another 192 ha. of land has been planted with shelter belts. The shelterbelt plantation has proved that crops such as Sugarcane, Cashew and Coconut, which were earlier considered impossible to grow in the wind-swept terrain, are now possible to cultivate. The system of inter-cropping Millets, Pulses, Cotton, Groundnut, etc. with Tamarind has provided economic gains to the poor farmers.

The usufruct rights arising out of such plantations are given to the owners of the land. The average survival rate of the plants is about 75 % and over 2300 people, consisting of small and marginal farmers, scheduled castes and women, have benefitted from both the projects.

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PARTICIPATIVE RURAL APPRAISAL AND PARTICIPATORY LEARNING METHODS

RECENT EXPERIENCES

FROM

MYRADA

AND

SOUTH INDIA

§ § § § §

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ABSTRACT:

MYRADA is a Non-Governmental Organisation which has been intensively involved in developing and applying rural appraisal methods in its work mainly in South India. Characterised by its approach which is participatory in nature and implies and ongoing presence and engagement in well defined rural areas, MYRADA prefers to term its approach 'Participatory Learning Methods' (PALM). It thus chooses to avoid using the terms 'Rapid' and 'Appraisal'.

In its work, MYRADA has discovered the abundant and untapped resource--that of the rural people themselves and the knowledge and the experience that they possess about their own situation. The attempt is, therefore, to build on this resource for sustainable rural development.

In the course of applying rural appraisal methods in the local context, MYRADA has evolved and is still developing a suitable and effective methodology. This consists of village camps organised for those involved in rural development. During these camps a series of interactions take place between and among the Villagers and Outsiders which lead to an enhanced and shared understanding of complex rural situations.

The methodology is not rigid but is flexible, adaptable and what is more important, constantly and rapidly evolving.

The quality of outputs obtained by using this method justifies its advocation and extensive use. But how this has to be achieved is a question before us.

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ABOUT MYRADA

MYRADA is a Non Governmental Organisation (NGO) which has been involved in Rural Development Since 1968. It works in approximately 2,000 villages in South India, in the States of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. MYRADA initially started as an organisation which resettled refugees from Tibet. Since then its role has expanded and today it has six major programme thrusts.

1. Participative resource development and management projects, (particularly in semi-arid areas). These include wastelands and watershed development programmes.
2. Resettlement and Rehabilitation of released bonded labour and landless families.
3. Development of women and children in rural areas.
4. Development of rural credit systems.
5. Development of appropriate institutions and management systems in the rural areas.
6. Training -- evolving training methods which are appropriate to the Indian context -- particularly the rural areas.

1. WHAT'S IN A NAME ?

In India, particularly in South India the last 12 months have been significant in the development of participatory methods to understand and assess rural situations -- and plan for their development. In the course of applying Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) methods in its work, MYRADA came to the conclusion that 'Rapid' cannot be 'participatory'.

Prominent features of MYRADA's style of functioning are ..

a. its emphasis on the participation of village people in their own development

and,

b. Its active and ongoing presence in a defined rural area not as 'patron' and 'benefactor' but as 'catalyst' and 'partner' in development.

What was required therefore was a method which did not stop just at 'Appraisal' but which went beyond it into a shared analysis and

understanding of rural situations. This, in turn should lead to developmental activities that are creative, productive and sustainable over a period of time.

Thus, it was that PALM evolved — PARTICIPATORY LEARNING METHODS, and indeed there was plenty to learn about — from, with and about rural people and their situations. The PALM method complemented and integrated well with MYRADA's approach, and the results of this have been quite substantial.

2. THE PALM EXPERIENCE:

PALM took off much faster than we expected. Since we adopted it a year ago, a little over 40 PALM exercises have been conducted. These have been on a variety of topics and situations. The PALM programme thrust has been on rapid training and exposure, building up of training teams, developing new methods and applications, constantly reviewing and refining the methodology, analysing and documenting experiences, and initiating participative developmental programmes based on the outcomes/outputs of PALM exercises.

2.1 APPLICATIONS:

Tentatively at first, and more confidently as we began to understand the methodology better, we worked out ways in which PALM could be applied to a variety of situations. Some of these are:-

- Participatory planning of natural resource development and management projects. These include programmes for the development of wastelands and watersheds, tank and lift irrigation and afforestation programmes.

- Participatory planning of integrated rural development programmes, in which the different sectors such as agriculture, sericulture, animal husbandry, education, health, etc., are integrated into a single programme.

- Tracking and identification of beneficiaries for appropriate programmes. These include child sponsorship programmes and programmes for health care, poverty alleviation etc.

- Studying the coping strategies/mechanisms of the rural poor — crisis management, credit needs and sources, and credit management.

- Studying other aspects of rural life — customs and

traditions, trends, conflicts and their resolution, health and nutrition, education etc.

- Participatory impact monitoring and assessment of developmental programmes. Eg; Impact of a road, an agricultural research station, a health programme etc.

2.2 WHAT'S A PALM TRAINING EXERCISE LIKE ?

SOME FEATURES:

A typical PALM exercise has about 25 - 30 persons participating. The participants are drawn from various organisations -- NGOs, Research and Training Institutions, the Government, etc.

A village is selected as a location for the exercise. This village is usually one where there is already an established ongoing presence by an outside agency and where developmental programmes are taking place or are being proposed. This stipulation is made out of respect for the Villagers whose curiosities and expectations are raised by such exercises, and to leave the village without a concrete response to expressed needs would not be appropriate.

The participants stay in the village. This helps in several ways. Apart from simplifying logistics, it gives the 'outsiders' a feel for what the village is really like. There is also a greater opportunity for Villagers and outsiders to access each other and interact -- especially in the evenings after the day's work is done. A strong rapport is developed and the degree of sharing extends over many more aspects of village life which are more intimate to the Villagers than only their work. Village camping thus has a definite impact on participation.

Participation is also enhanced by introducing the Outsiders to a 'code of conduct'. There are several Do's and Don'ts but the most important ones are:-

- Choosing a time suitable to the Villagers.
- Following necessary cultural protocol as required by the situation.
- Taking care not to raise the Villagers' expectations -- particularly if those expectations cannot be responded to.
- Initiating a few 'equalising' exercises -- simple everyday tasks, (basket weaving, transplanting rice, house construction

etc.) with the Villagers as the teachers. The Outsiders who are usually 'qualified' and 'experts' find that these 'simple' village tasks are not so simple after all. The Villagers on their part begin to feel less inferior and begin to see that their skills have a value and status in the eyes of the 'educated' Outsiders. This gives them greater confidence and increases their willingness to participate in the exercises and tell us more about themselves and their situation.

- Exercising discipline in the mode of interaction is another item aimed at stimulating participation. To be avoided are the superior modes — lecturing instead of listening and learning and so on.

2.3 LAYOUT:

The Layout of a typical PALM Programme is generally as follows:-

Day I
INTRODUCTORY
- -History of the village
- -Village Layout
- -Village infrastructure, etc.

Day II
EXPLORATORY (SIMPLE)
- -Study of resources
- -Livelihoods
- -Trends
- -Preferences etc.

Day III
EXPLORATORY (COMPLEX)
- -Seasonality
- -Identifying resources
- -Wealth ranking
- -Class and caste stratification, conflict, etc.
- -Causes & effects etc.

Day IV
CONVERGENCE
- -Identifying opportunities
- -Listing priorities and best bets.
- -Identifying roles and responsibilities (defining participants of the various partners
- -including the people.)

Day V
CONCLUDING
- -Operational Plan.
- -Documentation etc.

(NOTE: These are only a few items. There could be several more. Neither is this a fixed format. Variations are not only possible, but they are recommended. Refer annexures for descriptions and illustrations of a few methods and outputs. Each PALM exercise is available in the form of a document report. (For further infqrmation see end of report.).

2.4. SOME TIPS:

Apart from the actual topical exercises, early morning review sessions followed by briefing sessions for the day's work are held. Evenings are reserved for group presentations. These are the times when most of the Villagers are free after the day's work is done. Presenting this information in the large evening forum has the advantage that it is up for everyone's scrutiny and is subject to correction.. Thus there is a reasonable chance that at the end of the day we have an end product that is accurate and reliable, having been refined several times over from the initial discussions in the sub-groups, to the final presentation. Such gatherings are usually lively with the village folk correcting one another and arriving at consensus on various issues, events, practices and other information. Thus an important principle of PRA/PALM is met -- that of 'TRIANGULATION' of information.

There are many other aspects and elements that go into the making of a PALM programme. For obvious reasons all these cannot be described here -- many have to be experienced. There are also standard group processes and techniques, which have not been described in detail but are very much part of the methodology which MYRADA follows in its PALM programmes. Some of these are ice breakers, outsider to Villager ratios, group sharing evolution of topical agenda, interviewing techniques, role plays, 'buzz' sessions, 'dummy' exercises and so on.

2.5. SOME METHODS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS:

1. Time Line - Time and events, history, evolution of a village, agricultural practices, health care practices, etc.

   (Done by constructing a chronology of events that have taken place in consultation with the people, (Annexure 1. Fig.1).

2. Participatory
   (a) Social mapping Mapping - Village layout, infra-structure, population, chronic health cases, handicapped, malnourished children, family planning cases, vaccinations, widows, destitutes etc. (Annexure 2. Fig.1.)
   (b) Primary Resource - Land, water and tree resources, land use, land and soil types, cropping

Mapping and Modelling. — patterns, land and water management, productivity, watersheds, degraded land, treatment plans, etc.

(Done by the villagers themselves with paper and pens when it is to be mapping on paper or coloured chalk or coloured powders (Rangoli) when it has to be mapping on the ground.) (Annexure 2, Fig.2)

3. Transects

(a) Straight Line
(b) Nullah
(c) Sweeping

– Perambulatory/observatory walks to study natural resources, topography, indigenous technology, soils and vegetation, farming practices, problems and opportunities which are cross tallied with the resource mapping and modelling.

(Done by walking through the area, with a group pf villagers -- either following a particular course, cross country or covering the area in a combing or sweeping motion).

(Annexure 4. Fig.1)

(d) Historical – Pictoral/graphic representations of the area at different points in time, to give evolutionary trends in land use, vegetation, erosion, population etc.

(Done by interviewing older people and asking them to recap the landscape of a given area at different points in time) (Annexure 4. Fig.2).

4. Seasonality Diagramming. – For obtaining seasonal patterns of rainfall, employment, income and expenditure, debt, credit, food and nutrition, diseases, fodder, milk production, marketing etc.

(Done with the use of stones, sticks and different coloured seeds to

represent months quantities of rainfall, no. of days of employment, income etc.) (Annexure 5. Fig.1 & 2.)

5. Ranking

(a) Pair Wise
(b) Matrix
(c) Preference
(d) Scoring

- For ranking items such as crops, varieties, types and breeds of livestock, trees, fodders, supplementary income generating activities etc.

(Done by asking farmers to list different items eg; species of trees or vegetables and different criteria for evaluating them. Each class or category is then given a rank or score by the villagers. This is done by means of quantification with pebbles or seeds). (Annexure 6 Figs.1 and 2).

(e) Wealth

- Establishing economic order of members of a community.

(Done by interviewing a suitable villager(s), who then classified different members into seperate groups identified as distinct economic classes in the village).

6. Diagrams

a) Venn (Chappatis) - Used as a means of identifying and establishing relationships between a village and its environment in order of their relative importance.

b) Linkage/ Relationship Charts

Also for mapping processes, causes, effects, linkages. (Annexure 1, Fig.2)

c) General

- Pie diagrams, flow diagrams, trend diagrams, graphs etc., for depiction data about various topics. (Annexure 7. Fig.1)

contd...

3. EXTENSIONS AND HYBRIDS:

Constant and extensive used of PALM in our work in a variety of situations has helped bring about progress in PALM metholdology.

3.1 NEW APPLICATIONS: like applying the time line exercise to areas other than just the history of the village. For eg; It is used to record the evolution of health and agricultural practices, education etc. One interesting recent application was its rise in the profiling of a poor family. (Annexure 7. Fig.2).

Another prominent application has been the use of participatory village mapping to see patterns of caste, asset ownership, family size and to identify households with handicapped persons, persons having chronic ailments, family planning cases etc. (Annexure 2 Fig.1).

In one recent exercise while the village was being mapped by women, a discussion on malnutrition was initiated, and the symptoms described. After this the women began to point out and mark on the map, the houses which had children suffering from malnutrition.

3.2 NEW EXTENSIONS: such as the evolution of participatory mapping on the ground to participatory modelling on the ground. From this point the method was extended further by making models of what a particular area such as a watershed looked like 50 years ago, what it would look like 20 years hence, and so on. (Annexure 3 Figs. 1 and 2). Treatment plans for land development have also been shown on the maps [illegible].

3.3 NEW METHODS : For instance in the use of transects for planning development of village lands a new method used was the 'Sweeping transect'. Here groups of farmers and outsiders comb different blocks of the area to bring out information about indigenous technology, problems and opportunities. Using this method, site specific plans can be made - even on a plot by plot basis. (Annexure 4 Fig.1).

3.4 HYBRIDS: It has been possible to evolve new methods by combining 2 or more methods. For instance, participatory village mapping has led to participatory wealth ranking. This was further developed to include participatory resourcemapping , with land ownership, land use, soil types and productivity of each plot of land indicated. Later attempts were made to correlate wealth to productivity.

The innovations and learnings continue. Lately we have been experimenting with different ways in which the PALM exercise can be conducted. For eg; in several cases we havehad the farmers themselves draw the village and resource map and indicate possible interventions. This was done without any Outsiders being present, while the exercise was going on. The results have been extremely encouraging. Similarly, we now have farmers conducting their own exercises, interviewing one another and so on.

And we continue to learn. We are learning to 'embrace' error and to listen instead of lecturing -- not very easy tasks. We are learning how to handle 'dominant' participants -- including some from the village who have vested interests. Sequencing our questions during interactions, sequencing of topics during a PALM exercise and sequencing of follow up activities -- whether to do with the village programme or to do with the development and institutionalisation of PALM -- all these and many more are areas where we are engaged in a continuous process of learning.

4. LESSONS:

There have been several lessons. Enough has been said elsewhere about the qualitative differences between the information generated in the PRA/PALM method and the conventional survey methods. The latter are unfamiliar to the people and therefore non participative. What do we do with Villagers who have ideas and perceptions far different from our own, which are also expressed differently and do no fall into any of our existing formats ?

We have found, as others have, that the Villagers are capable of collecting far more accurate information than Outsiders. They can also correct it, order and analyse it and start a process of development if given the opportunity to do so. Alongside this realisation, there is also the growing realisation that people in the rural areas are extremely skillful managers forced to live as they are under extremely marginal and vulnerable conditions. Their decision making has got to be precise. Hence, their perceptions about their situations are absolutely critical inputs in any planning.

There is a need to understand and appreciate traditional management systems, livelihood systems indigenous technologies, and the ways and reasons for how people feel, see, think and act in rural areas. PALM offers a way in which both Outsiders and Villagers try to discover the situation through a process of joint observation and interaction and shared analysis. The focus is on

...10

relationships rather than on any single event, aspect or activity.

We have found that PALM is a method much enjoyed by both Villagers and Outsiders alike. It not only enhances participation it also enhances the generation of both information and ideas. And we find that the village has begun to 'grow' on us.

Villagers are increasingly emerging as resource persons in our PALM exercises. This includes small and marginal farmers, landless, tribals, women and even children. The latter have often participated actively and have demonstrated their expertise in terms of identifying different types of grasses and trees (particularly fruit trees). They also help identify school dropouts, handicapped children etc.

The PRA/PALM field is a new unexplored and seemingly open ended frontier. Several possibilities exist -- in methodology development, applications and generation of information -- particularly local knowledge. But there is a danger -- that of a lack of quality control and the consequent propagation of wrong methods.

There is an urgent need to rapidly increase the use of good PRA methods and introduce this approach in mainstream organisations and institutions.

And finally, there is a need to train more and more people in PRA/PALM. But where are the trainers and how do we go about achieving this?

§ § § § §

PIDOW-MYRADA GULBARGA.

TIME AND EVENTS.

Guruswamy Shivalingappa
Lokesh Balraj.
AMBANNA
BABURAO

11th Oct. 1989

	Cholera (Mangi roga)
1940	Plague disease (Gadde roga)
1946	100 Houses burnt (Fire accident)
1947	Independence
1952	Land survey; Community fight for land SY.No. 204
1954	Primary school
1957	Mallik Saheb tank Construction
1958	Land ceiling act.
1959	Gramna Panchayat
1966	People started going to health hospitals
1968	Starting of Post office
1971	Abolition of local judicial systems (Police Patil, Mali Patil)
1972	SEVERE FAMINE, MIGRATION, FELLING OF TREES, ROAD FORMATION.
1973	[illegible] famine gave an opportunity for the people to me[illegible]
1976	Dalapati System
1984	MYRADA intervention, electrification, Using of fertilizer & Plant Protection Chemicals
1986	Mini Water Supply; Temple Construction.

Fig. 1 - Shows Time line of the village. The 1972 drought was reconed to be the most critical event in that village's history (Information from villagers of Kalmandargi Village).

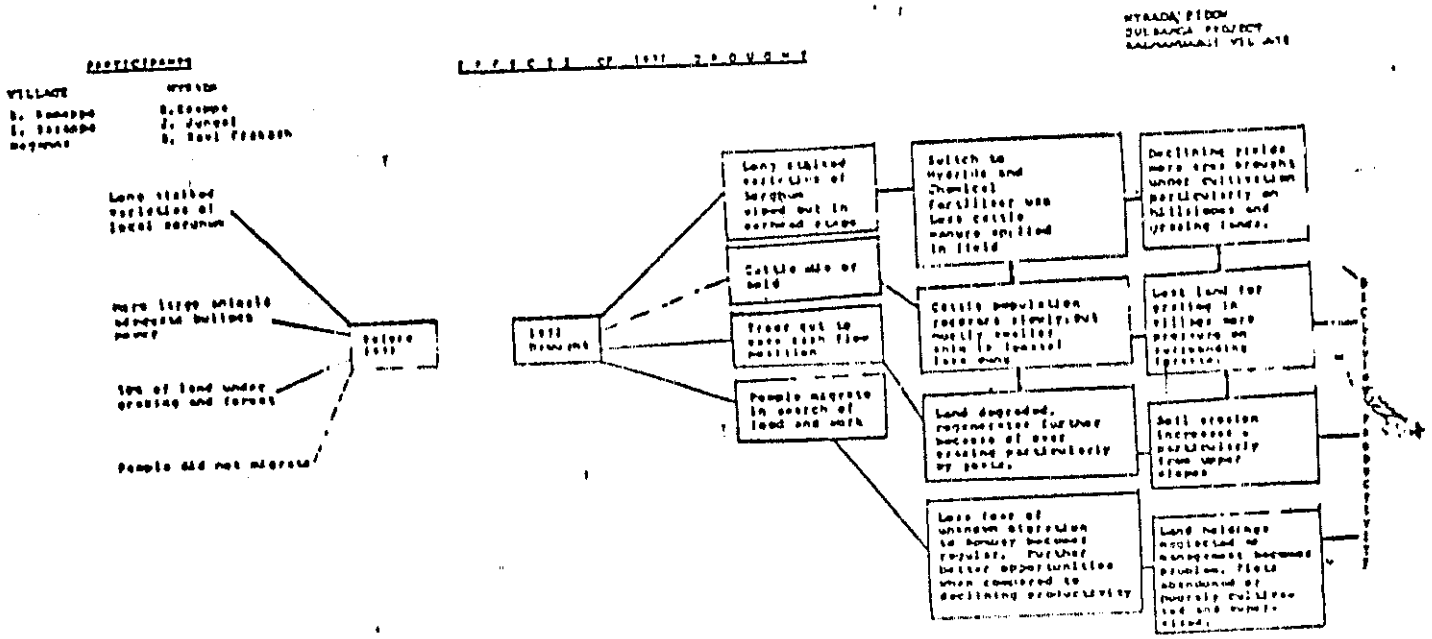


Fig. 2 - Shows various effects of the drought - explained by villagers of Kalmandargi village.

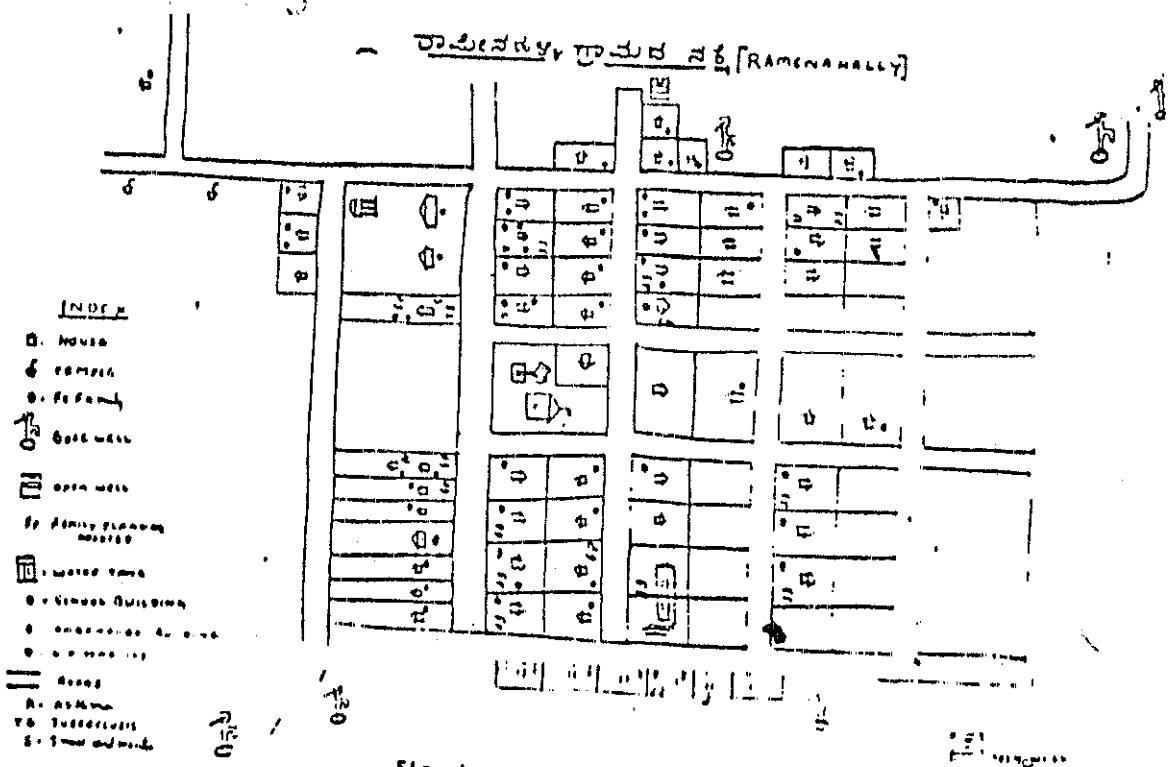


Fig. 1 - Shows village social map showing
(Map drawn by villagers of
RAMENAHALLY
VILLAGE

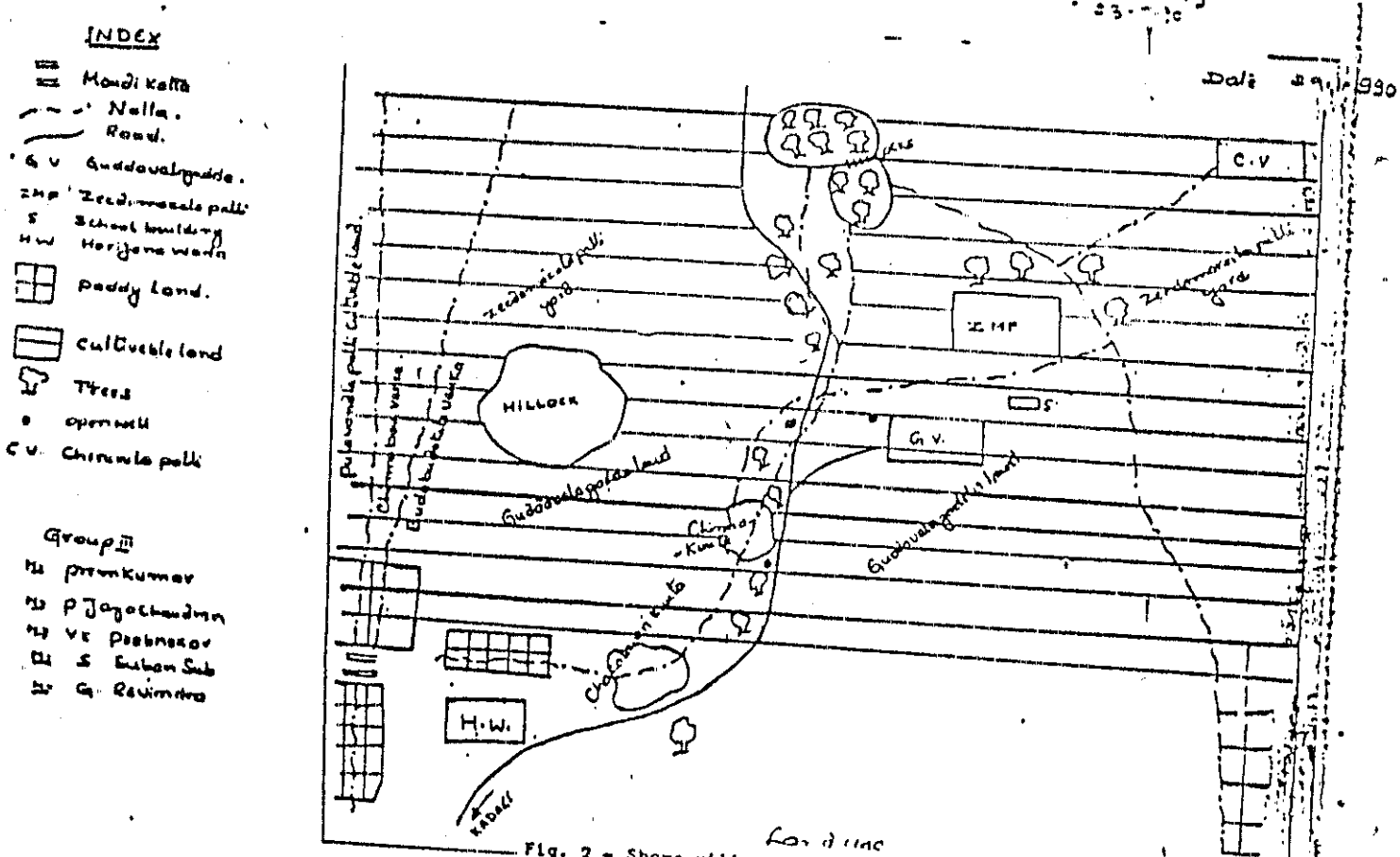
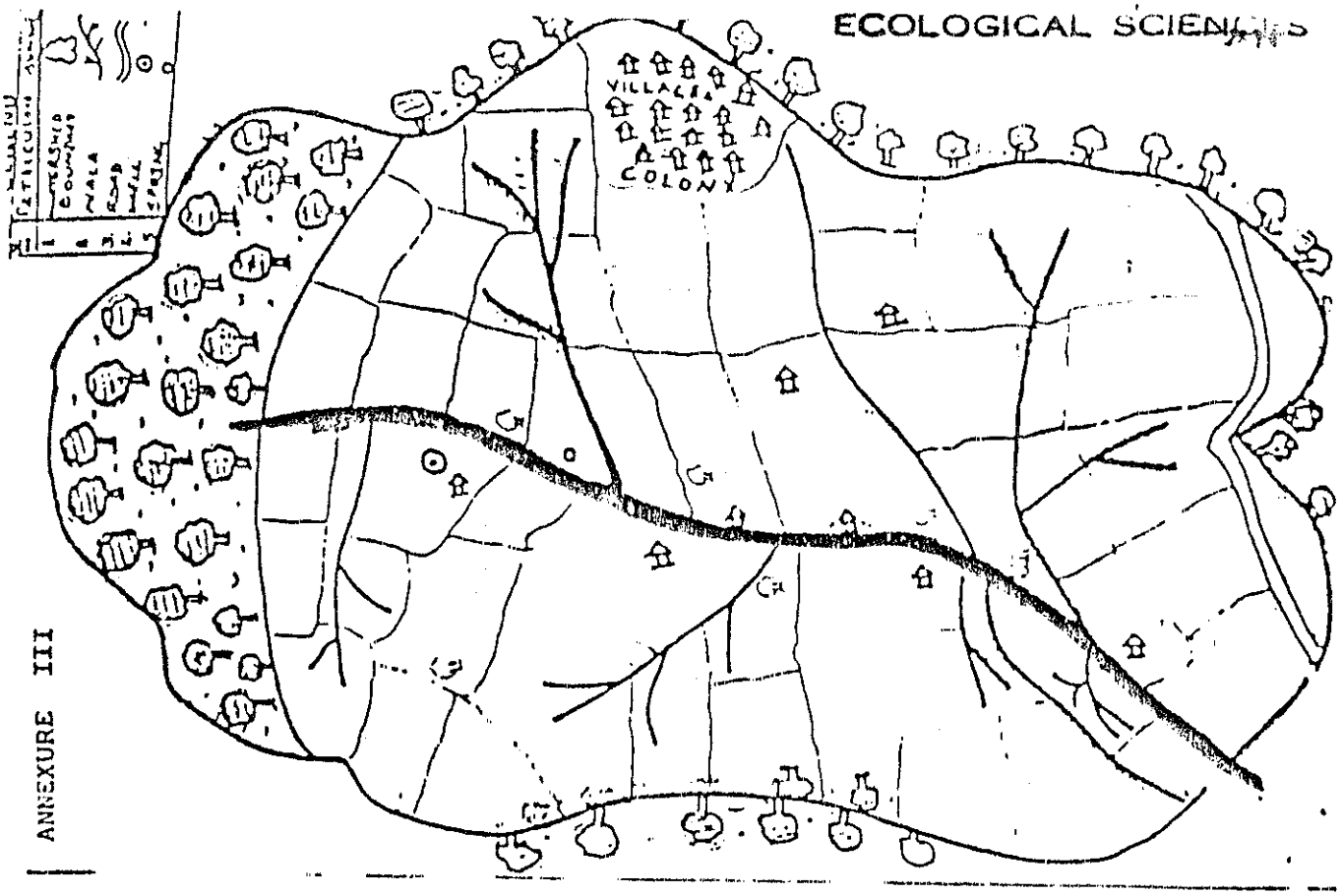
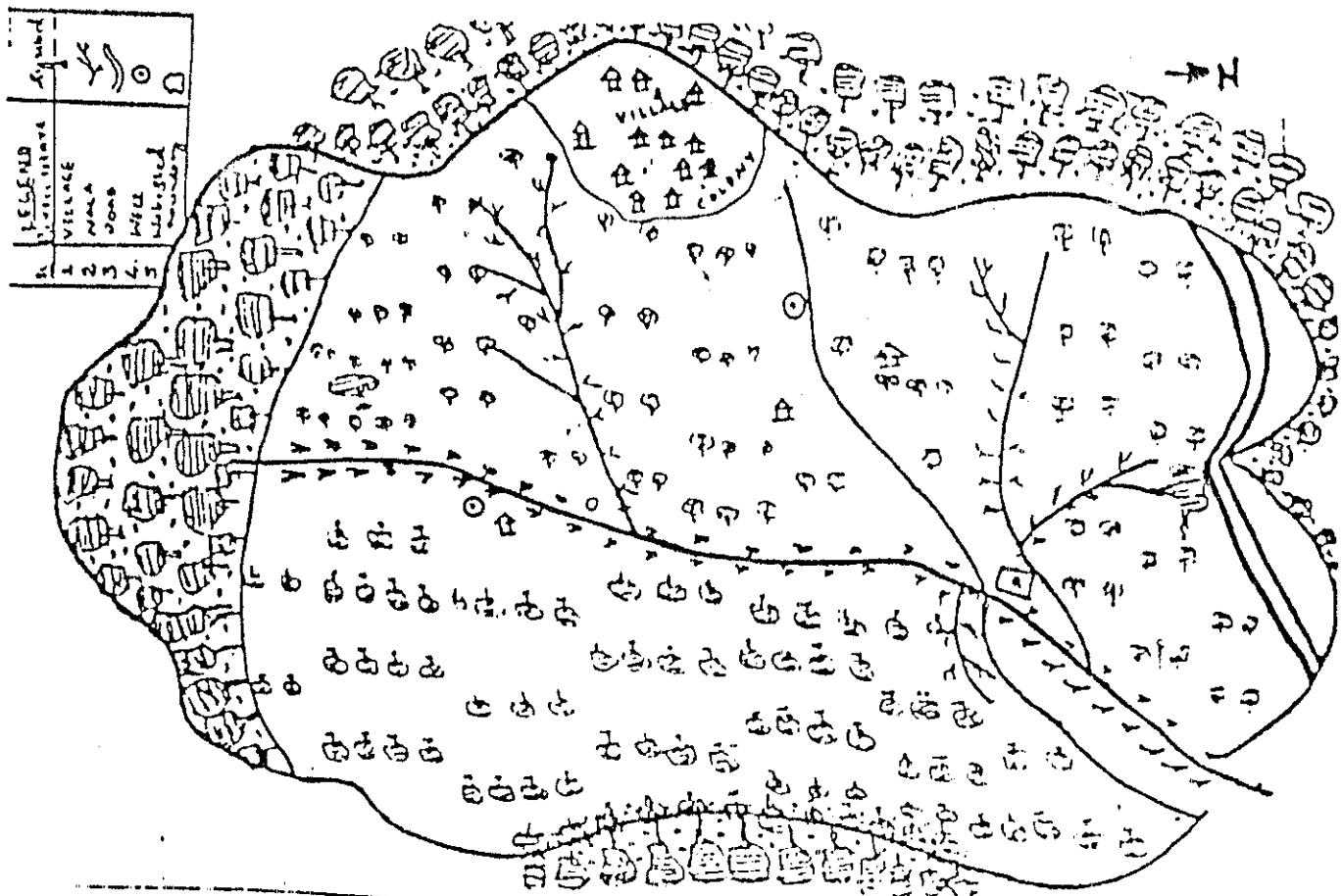


Fig. 2 - Shows village resource map showing land use, trees, water bodies, hillocks etc. as drawn by villagers of Godavellaqudda Village.



ANNEXURE III



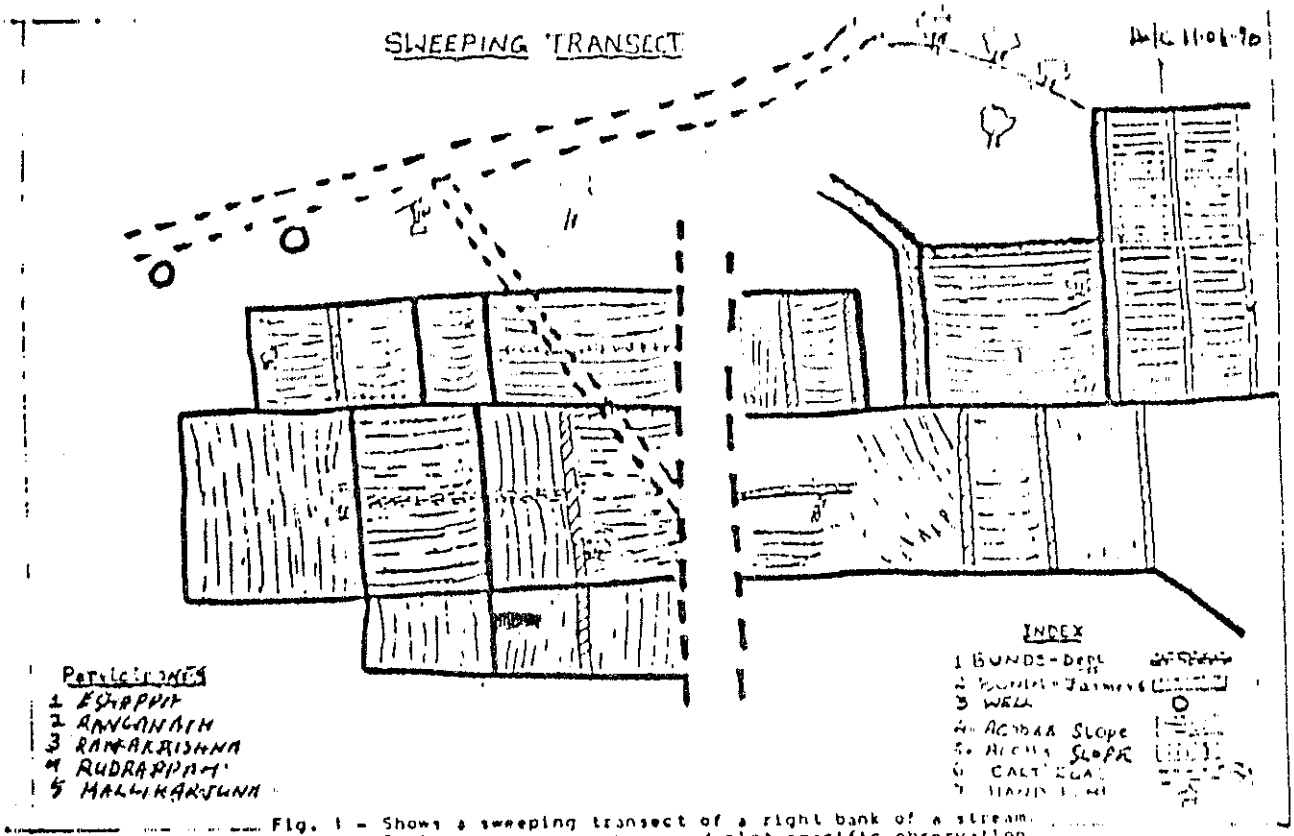


Fig. 1 - Shows a sweeping transect of a right bank of a stream. Includes survey members and plot specific observation. (Simbu Village)

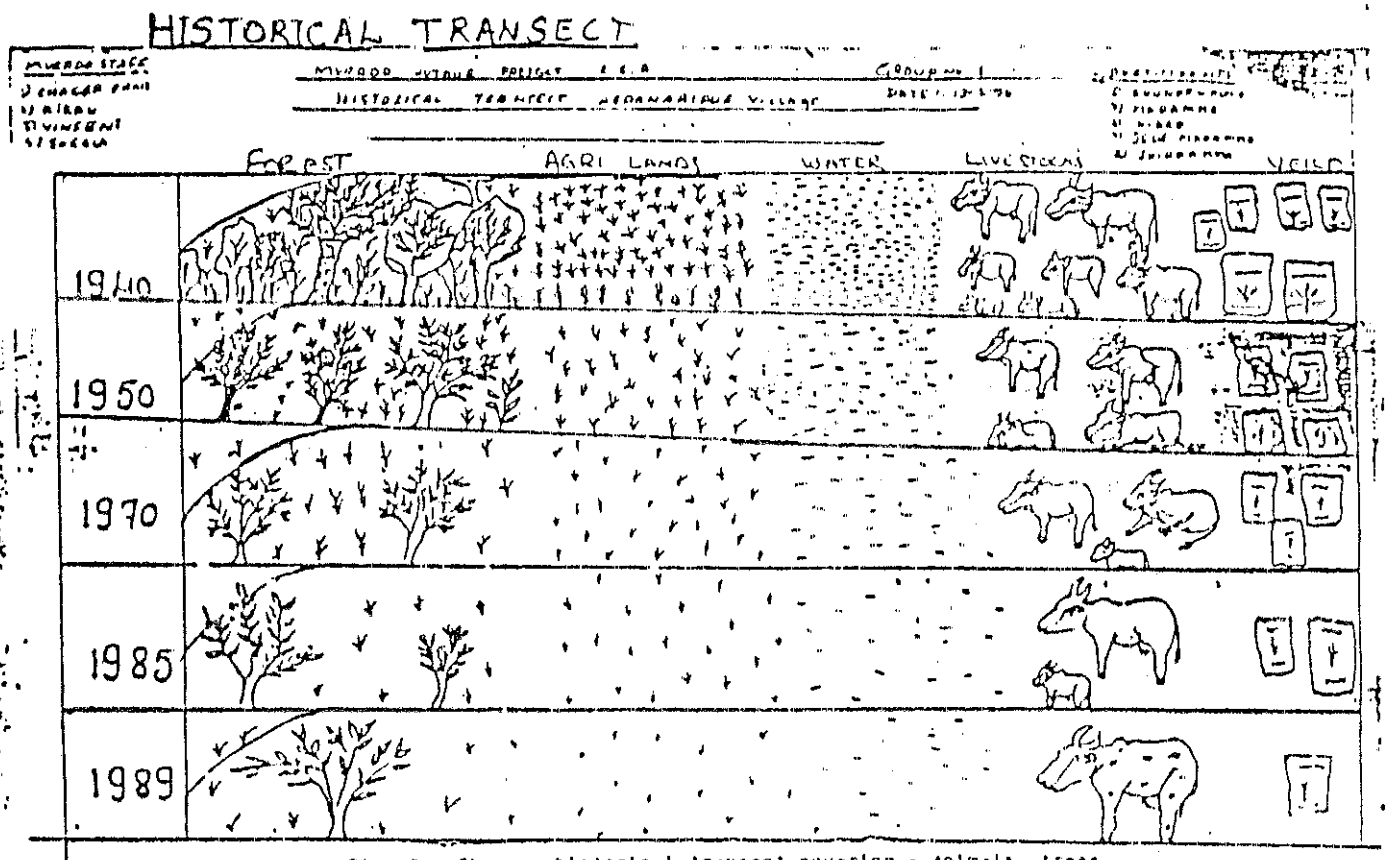
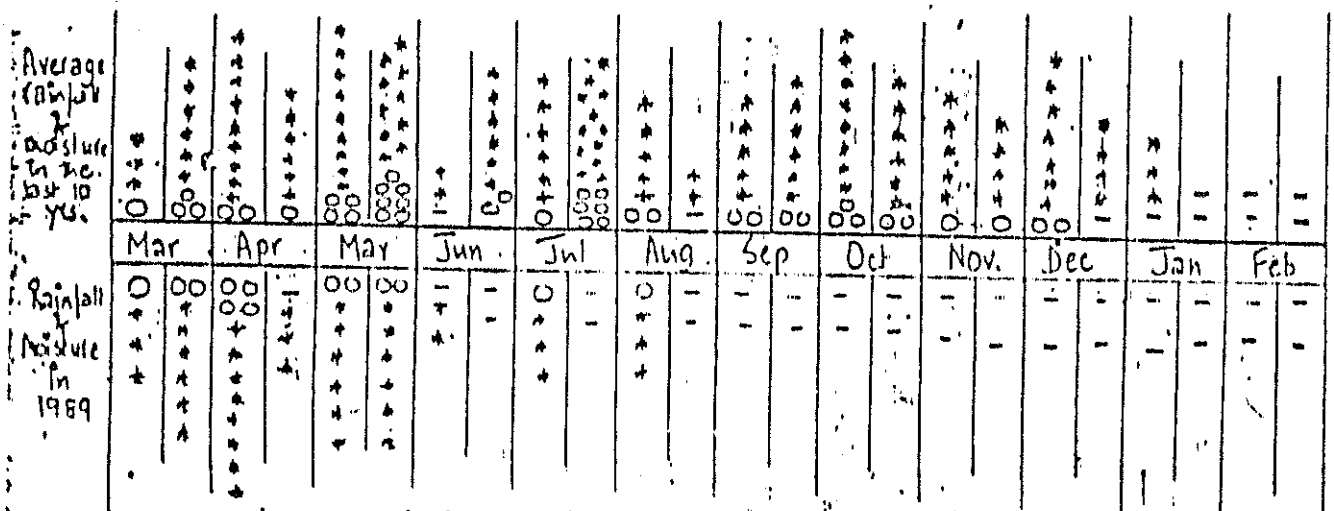


Fig. 2 - Shows a historical transect covering - Animals, trees, water and crops (Drawn by villagers of Attanayakkanapura Village)

Seasonality of rainfall

O = Stone
* = Lablab seed

1 Seed = 1 rainy day
1 Stone = 1 inch of moisture in the soil



Talking to this group of farmers we discovered that moisture in the soil is more relevant than quantum of rain or number of rainy days. Fig. 1 – Shows seasonality of soil moisture. (Drawn from original diagram given by villagers of Neegu).

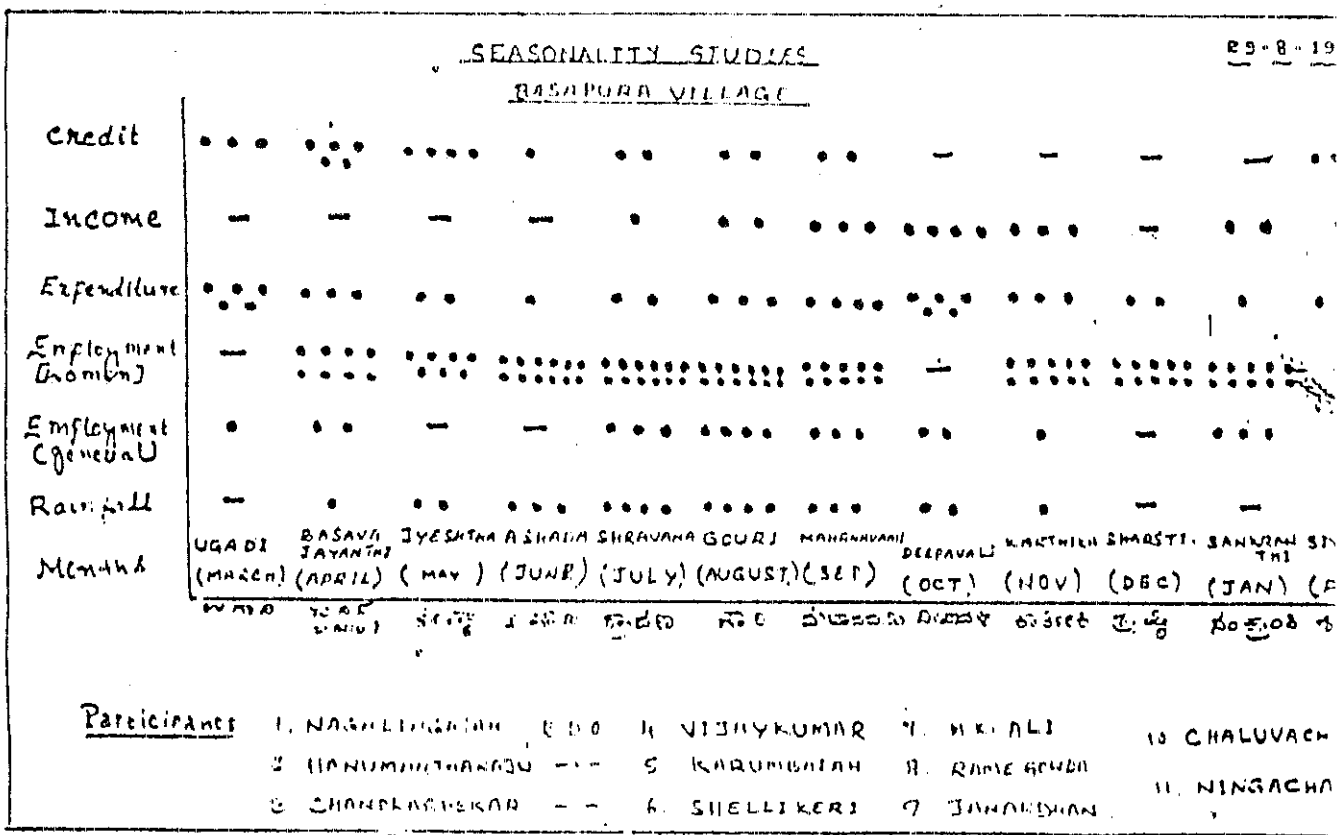


Fig. 2 – Shows seasonality of employment, income, credit etc. (From information given by villagers of Basavapuram)

LIVELIHOOD RANKING FOR NON-AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES

GOGAVELLAGUDDA

	Time Conservation	Profits	Labour	Loan	Hard-work
Cobbler	○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	○	○ ○	○○
Tamarind	○○○	○ ○ ○ ○	○○	–	○ ○
Leaf plate	○○○	○ ○○	○	–	○○
Custard apple	○○○	○○○ ○○	○	–	○ ○ ○
Brick-making	○ ○ ○ ○○	○ ○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○ ○	–	○ ○ ○ ○
Firewood	○ ○ ○ ○	○ ○	○	–	○ ○ ○ ○
Pongamia	○ ○	○	○	–	○ ○

Fig. 1 – Shows matrix ranking of non-agricultural livelihoods – according to villagers own criteria (Drawn by village women at Gogavellagudda Village).

Small Farmers
1. Elias
2. Suresh
3. Padmavathi

Participants
P. Lakshmi
2. [illegible]
3. Gangulamma
4. Gangalamma

AN EXERCISE IN RANKING

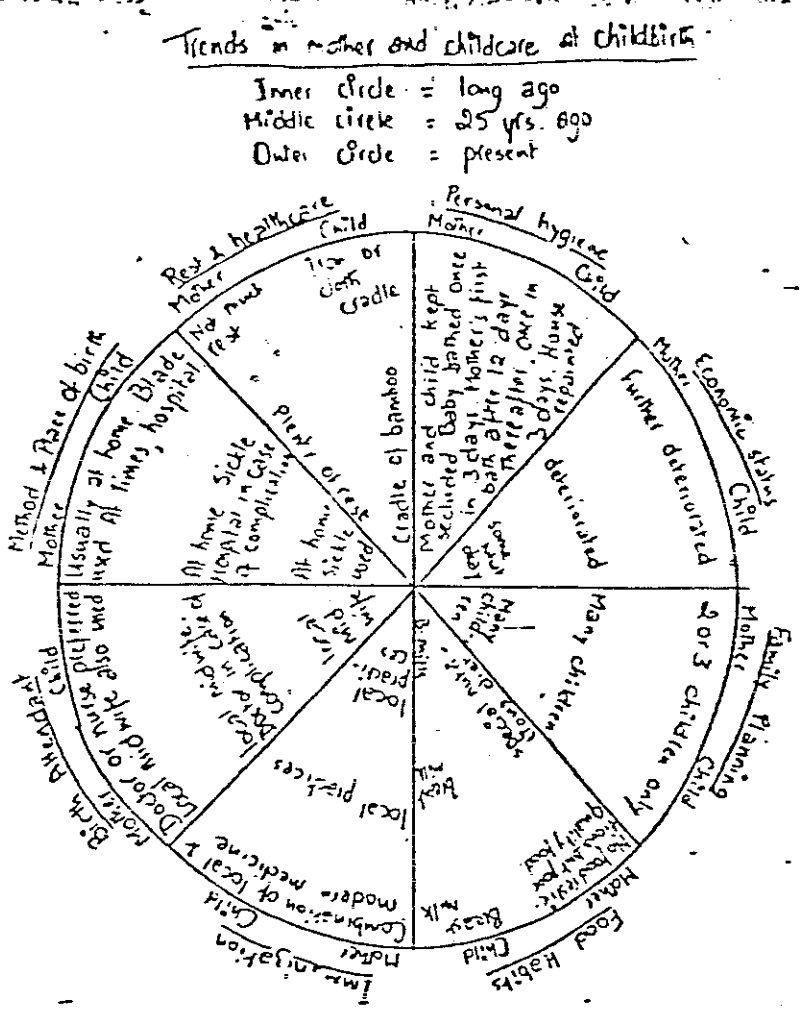
Rank → Varieties ↓ Qualities	Indet 5	+ Disease tol	Kari Mudga	Chitte	Bili Mudga	Balaga
FARMER'S CRITERIA						
Yield	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○ (6)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○ ○○○ (6)
Straw	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ ○○ (4)
Drought resistance	○○○ ○○ (5)	○○○ (3)	○○○ (3)	○○○ (3)	○ ○○ (3)	○○○ (3)
Disease resistance	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)
Duration*	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)
Seed availability	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○ (2)	○○ (4)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ ○○ (4)	○ (1)
Taste	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ (3)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ ○ (3)	○○ (2)
Value	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○ ○○○ (6)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○ ○○○ (6)

* More Stones indicate better quality. In this case, the shorter the duration the better the rating should have been. The farmers did the opposite and we did not notice.

Cotton → Varieties ↓ Qualities	Varalakshmi	DCH	LRA	LCH	MCU-5
Yield	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ ○○ (4)	○○ (2)
Value	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○ (2)	○○ (2)	○ (1)
Disease ** resistance	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○ ○○○○ (8)	○○ (2)	○○ (2)	○○ (2)
Cost of cultivation	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○ (3)	○○○ (3)	○○○ (3)
Duration	Same for all	=	=	=	=
Fuel	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○ ○○ (5)	○○○ ○○ (5)	○○○ ○○ (5)
Drought resistance	Same for all	=	=	=	=
Seed availability	Nil	○○○ ○○ (5)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)	○○○○○ ○○○○○ (10)

** Farmers understood the question to be "disease prone ness" (a negative quality) and not disease resistance (a positive quality)
* Farmers used more stones to mean higher cultivation costs (a negative quality) whereas it should have been vice versa.
Ranking has to be done with care or else it will lead to mistakes in analysis and interpretation

Fig. 2 – Shows matrix rankings of crop varieties – Finger Mil and Cotton (again according to villagers own crit at Hoogu Village.



[Information collected from middle class household. Cannot be generalized for all households]

Fig. 1 – Shows trends in mother & Child care over 3 generations – Grand mother, mother and child. (Drawn from information gathered from women at Neegu Village.

Mudiyamma's Life Story :

1935 : Born in a poor family – Mudiyannur.
Childhood : Living on alms & casual work.
1950 : Married to an equally poor person in Gundalpet.
1951 : First son born.
1954 : Loses her husband.
Back to Mudiyannur with her son –
For livelihood – casual work & Missionaries help.
1956 : Migrated to Bangalore – working with nuns.
1960 : Comes back to the Missionaries in Panarahally.
1961 : Finds her new marriage partner – Bagyarathnam.
1962 : Bagyarathnam ex-communicated and returns to Mudiyannur.
The first son placed in bondage – second son born.
1964 : Life's struggle worsens – Drought.
1965 : Has a third son – Unable to feed children.
Sickness in the family – forced to seek alms.
Her another son and a daughter in succession.
1970 : Second & third sons placed in bondage in order to release the eldest and get him married.
1972 : Worst drought – No drinking water –
walks 5 kms to Doddapurma for water.
1980 : Eldest son releases one of his brothers and gets him married.
1982 : Loses her husband.
1985 : MYRADA's intervention in second son's development (Laurance) – Sericulture; cross bred calf.
1986 : Second son releases both brothers and gets the elder married.
1987 : Moves to Government allotted house with Laurance's family – Gets her daughter married.
1988 : Participants in the development attempt of Laurance – I.R.D.P. LOAN – Bicycle shop.
1990 : Narrates her life struggle – 2 meals a day
Freedom from struggle
Looking forward .....

Fig. 2 – Shows time line of a family. Indicates crisis periods in a poor woman's life, and how she managed these crises. (Information from Mudamma of Mudiyanur Village)

3rd Nov.

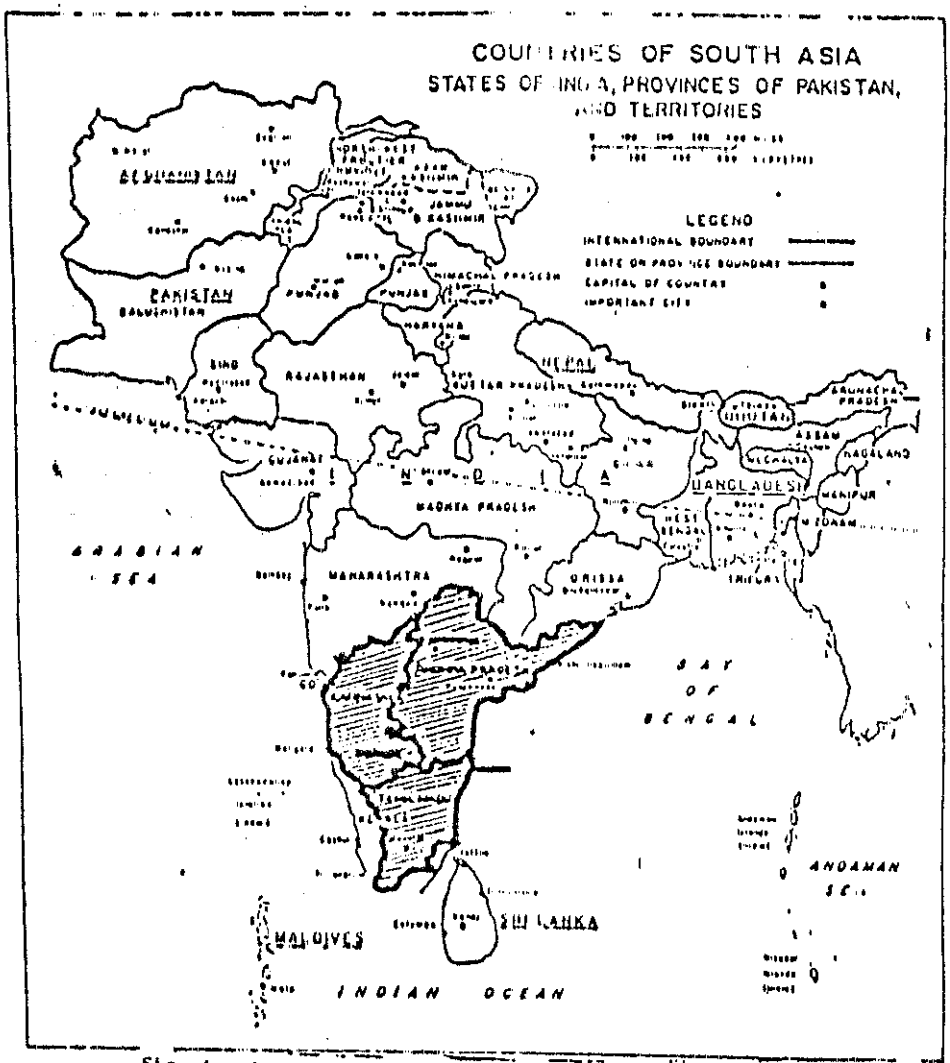


Fig. 1 - Shows map of India with the 3 southern states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh & Tamil Nadu in which MYRADA is operating.

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MYRADA
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ENHANCING PARTICIPATION IN PRA'S

PURPOSES :

The purposes of this note are:-

1. To share what our experiences are in this area with other PRA practitioners/beginners.

2. To encourage you to try them out yourself, adopt and develop them further, and add to the menu.

BACKGROUND AND USES

Of late there is a growing agreement that Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) should give way to Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). This underlies the importance of Participation. Presuming that all development programmes are meant to improve the conditions of rural poor, it is important that we hear what they have to say about their situation and how they feel it could be changed for the better. Planning and implementating rural development programmes with people's participation is considered one of the keys to sustainable rural development. Apart from the participation of the weaker sections (tribals, landless, schedule Caste, women etc), it is also necessary to involve other significant constituents of the village - local leaders, youth, school teachers, etc and enlist their support in the programme.

METHODS

Most of the ideas listed below may be known and practised already. They are also not a complete list. You may already be knowing and practising several others. Perhaps you will discover and develop several more. However, what we have done up to now are the following.

a) Protocol

From our experience we find that the success of a PRA exercise in village is enhanced if the 'required' protocol is followed. Try as we might, we cannot wish away vested interests, power and the establishment. It helps therfore to have a preliminary meeting with the village elders, opinion leaders, chairmen and youth leaders a few days before the exercise. This step is important as it gives the exercise a sanction of legitimacy. Legitimacy - for village persons of

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all categories to participate either directly by attending sessions or indirectly through interviews and legitimacy for the 'outsiders' to move freely about in the village (of course respectfully and sensitively) and investigate/ interview/ observe. We have had several and varied experience in relation to the following of protocol (or lack of it). In most villages where the exercise was properly explained the degree of participation was much higher - either in the freedom with which we were able to approach villagers, or the freedom with which they approached and spoke to us. In one case where we did not follow PROTOCOL, there was absolute confusion, where people did not volunteer to come for the sessions and interviews and when (outsider) participants 'rounded up' interviewees. More often than not, they were not from the interest group for whom the proposed development programmes were being planned. In yet another case where we failed to follow PROTOCOL, the big boss in the village hired out a loud speaker and music set for Rs. 125/- per day for 4 days and played blaring music every evening from 6.30 p.m. onwards - a time when the evening presentations and dialogues took place. To cap it all, on the final day, he even hired a dance troupe to draw crowds. 'Utilising' a proper entry entrusty carefully to build further on the relationships, interactions and exchanges are also very important (as outlined in the following paragraphs).

b> Village Camping

This is an item which we have included as a MUST in all our PRA Programmes. Apart from saving time in transit and easing logistics considerabley, village caming helps to soften break down barriers between the outsiders and the villagers. A great degree of access to the villagers and vice versa is achieved. From our experiences even staying within the campus of the host NGO, in the village where the PRA exercise is held is not sufficient to remove barriers between the villagers and visitors. We have also found that the act of sharing food(either ours or theirs) definitely enhances the participation level.

In every case where we ate with the villagers there was a general feeling of warmth and well being, comradeship and collegiality and most important equality as human beings. In one case where we cajoled an old women into cooking for us, the villagers were quite sceptical that we would eat their diet and when we did, they became much closer to us and even told us that this was the first time that they had seen 'officers' eat their food and eat with them.

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shouting at everyone about the evil of cutting down trees. We reprimanded him saying that his contribution was a negative one. He then adopted a more 'mellow' lecture mode giving us his views on why trees should not be cut. Meanwhile participation had received a set back, that took quite some time and effort to restore to a desired level.

Lecturing is a one sided conversation to be avoided at all costs. As bad (if not worse) is interrupting. Several times a rich harvest of information has been lost due to frequent interruptions and interventions on the part of outsiders.

f) Starting on the Right Note

In every PRA exercise that we have conducted, we have found that the 'PARTICIPATORY MAPPING' and TIME LINE exercises have generated a great deal of interest and enthusiasm among the participants from both sides. Not only do these exercises draw out participation from the villagers, they have also, as they expressed to us (particularly the younger generation) found them very interesting and informative. This is a good platform from which to launch subsequent enquiries into topics and the more sensitive social issues.

ADVICE

Most of this has been mentioned already but ..... some.....

DOs	DON'Ts
1. Do enlist the support of insiders - school teachers, village elders, etc. - till confident that you can manage without them. Use the youth to 'Tom Tom' and gather people together for meetings.	1. You guessed right ! DON'T LECTURE ! - FOR GOD'S SAKE !! and, DON'T INTERRUPT.
2. Fix appointments with the participants/key informants on the eve of any interview sessions/exercises.	2. Don't put your agenda before theirs.
	3. Don't move around the village as if you owned it.
	4. Don't be put off by any non-participation beyond your control. Try to think what's going wrong. Talk to other

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c> Ice Breakers

Initially we organised a few 'social' games at some point during the introductory sessions of the first day. Gradually these became an integral part of the exercise and the frequency increased to atleast once daily, in the evenings. Again a higher level of enthusiasm accompanied by a greater degree of commaraderie was the result. Barriers broke down. At one RRA exercise we took along a few indoor games and a volley ball set and the villagers (youth) insisted that we play for a while before resuming discussions. Needless to say that they came back refreshed and energetic and continued their participation whole heartedly, the whole atmosphere acquiring the character of a discussion between friends. At the most recently concluded PRA in Andhra, we (and the villagers) made it a point to break atleast 3-4 times a day either into a group song, a dance or a game. This made a positive difference in the participation, the quality of the discussions and the outputs.

d> The 1:1 Ratio

One of the early lessons we learnt in PRA was that descending on the village in large numbers is counter productive. We therefore, during the PROTOCOL & PREPARATORY stages made requests to the village leaders and to the NGOs/MYRADA Project who were hosting the exercise that they should try and ensure that the representation from the village consisted of atleast as many persons as there were 'outsiders'. For psychological reasons a 1:1 ratio (outsider to villager) works better than a 2:1 ratio. Even better is a 1:2 or 1:3 ratio. This gives the villager confidence of numbers apart from enabling them to participate actively, volunteer information, take pains to make us understand and cross verify information among themselves. In some cases, it was counter productive as some villagers could also slip into a lecture mode (as easily as do many outsiders).

e> The Mode - Friendly Enquiry vs. Lecture

Without a doubt the lecture mode we are used to is disastrous in PRA. This will be discussed in detail later on in this paper. But for now it should suffice to say that if accurate and relevant information gathering is the objective of PRA then the enquiry mode is certainly more effective. At one of the recent RRAs we had an ex-Government beaurocrat with us, who during the preliminary introductions saw a farmer cutting down a tree (on his own land). The beaurocrat first started

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DOs	DON'Ts
3. Recognise and respect the villagers and their knowledge. Make them feel that what they know is important, old people are the most experienced and knowledgeable. Try sincerely to be a learner for a few days.	villagers and ask their advice on what to do and how to go about it. Don't hesitate to ask villagers for advice.
4. Be alert and sensitive to the mood of the village and the villagers. If they are preoccupied and busy with market day or sowing or getting in their harvest before it rains, the last thing they would want is to sit and spend 3 or 4 hours of precious time talking to outsiders.	5. Don't allow a We - They situation to evolve. Consciously keep mixing with the villagers, especially during the evening group presentations, look around and see where your outsider colleagues are positioned, are they interspersed with the villagers or are they in a group by themselves.
5. Join in the village tasks. This helps to bring a sense of equality. Think of other ways of bringing this about.	6. Don't stick with only one section of the population either and exclude others - unless for a specific purpose.
6. Do make the sessions enjoyable for the villagers, for you and for the other participants. If they are boring well then.....	7. Don't exclude the women and children.

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INTERVIEWING IN PRA

PURPOSES :

The purposes of this note are :

1. To share some ideas and experiences on the subject of interviewing, with other PRA practitioners/beginners.

2. To outline the main guidelines/methods which have been used as a basis from which you can adopt existing methods and invent new ones and further add to and develop the methodology.

BACKGROUND AND USES :

Interviewing techniques are an essential skill in any kind of work. This is especially so in rural development where the outsiders level of information and understanding about the rural situation is limited. We need to find out more about rural people and rural situations from the rural people themselves.

The word 'INTERVIEW' indicated an interaction between two or more persons and an exchange of views leading to a better understanding. In its true sense it indicates dialogue. In the past such interactions have been lop sided with 'us' the outsiders presuming to know much more about 'them' (rural people) and their situation than the rural people themselves. Questionnaire surveys and the questionnaire mode of inter viewing, also haven't helped matters. No real communication takes place. Add to this the rural tourism, with the superior attitude of outsiders, who are doing the rural people a 'favour' by being 'good' enough to 'talk' to them, and we have a very one sided kind of situation.

Good interviewing helps us to gain more accurate insights into rural situations, problems, customs, practices, systems, values and the way rural people think, act and perceive things. This is especially critical while designing rural development programmes meant for the people themselves.

Good interviewing facilitates an information flow that is true, authentic and relevant. This formation will form a reliable basis for planning. But first, what constitutes a good interview? How do we open that tap which allows a free and easy information flow to take place?

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METHODS AND PRINCIPLES OF INTERVIEWING :

Many of the items listed below will already be known and practised by you. A short 15 minute session on Do's and Dont's of interviewing will help sharpen awareness and enhance the quality of the interviewing and consequently the outputs too.

a> THE INTERVIEWERS - Some desirable attributes are :

- Sensitivity (to various, moods, meanings, nuances, expressions and responses etc.)
- Good interpreters (of various, moods, meanings, nuances, expressions and responses etc.)
- Alert (looking for leads, observing people and things.)
- Willing learners.
- Willingness to embrace error (willingness to make and accept mistakes and learn from them).
- Good facilitators (ability to make people talk and trigger off an information flow that is authentic, interesting and useful to both insiders and outsiders).

b> TYPES OF INTERVIEWS :

1. Individual Interviews - where the information is of a specific, sensitive, confidential or personal nature. For eg. the individuals use of family planning methods or an individuals personal history, or individuals stress coping mechanisms. The individual is interviewed alone and in privacy so that (i) There are no disturbances/ interruptions.

   (ii) The interviewee feels free to give information either about himself, others, or other sensitive matters.

   In this, it is desirable that an atmosphere of trust is established between the interviewer(s) and the interviewee.

2. Group Interviews - are of a more broader nature and may be based on specific topic. Eg. Agriculture, Health, Education, seasonality, etc. The information sought is not

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of a personal or confidential nature. For group interviews a relatively secluded spot slightly away from the village, such as a field or a hill top or under a tree, inside someones house - is desirable. Good group interviews can also take place in relatively busy spots such as the village tea shops, market place, bus stop etc.

3. Informal/Casual/Unexpected Encounters : These may take place at the bus stop, tea shop, or while wandering around the village or fields. Such encounters also contribute a good deal of information often very interesting and useful.

c> INTERVIEWEES :

These would depend on the purpose of the exercise and the information that is sought. In a general PRA it is desirable to get a cross section of the people involved in the interviews. These may include the following categories.

- Big, small and marginal farmers.
- Landless
- Artisans
- Other occupational groups.
- Old, middle aged and youth.
- Women.

In a PRA conducted for a specific purpose eg. tank desilting it is generally the rule to interact with the user and other interested groups. For eg. in Tank desilting it would mean that the following would have to be contacted and involved.

- farmers in the command area.
- farmers in the area beyond the command, who have irrigation wells.
- farmers in the upper cachement
- fishermen community who may be dependent on the tank.
- brick-makers who may be using the tank bed for bric making.

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- Women who fetch water from and wash clothes in the tank.
- Cattle owners whose animals drink from the tank.

In addition to the above there are also the following categories of people who may be sought out specially.

- The 'old and wise' men of the village.
- Village school teacher.
- Local innovators and experimenters.

d> TEAM :

An individual interview should preferably consist of just one interviewer, though a group of 2 or 3 persons is also O.K.

In the case of group interviews, the interview team could consist of between 2 to 5 person, each person with a specified role eg. INTERVIEWER (or the one who asks questions), RECORDER (the one who writes down information) and OBSERVER (the one who sees that the rules of the game 'interviewing' are being followed). All 3 roles are extremely important and it is preferable that they are rotated so that every one has an opportunity to experience different roles,

It is also desirable that the team consists of subject specialists as this enhances the quality of the interview, the processing of information and the final output. Eg. For a topic Animal Husbandry and Fodders - it is useful to have persons on the team who are familiar with the subject and who will be able to relate to the subject and the information that is given (subject specialists need not necessarily be graduates).

e> MATERIALS : (Refer Robert Chamber's paper on PRA kit) -will depend on the kind of interview. However, in general a note pad and pen, seeds and counters (different sized stones will do), sticks etc. Map material such as Rangoli powder for ground mapping and modelling, Chappatis for Venn diagramming or list of families and name slips for wealth ranking will be required. Also required will be sheets of chart or drawing paper and coloured felt pens for diagramming. You can also think of new things, an Abacus perhaps or an egg-box for matrix ranking.

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↔ THE INTERVIEW PROCESS :

After the interview teams have been formed and the interview topics decided upon, there are a few useful steps that could be followed :-

1. Understanding the Topic

What is the information that we are seeking ? Why do we need it ?

2. Planning the Interview

How will we get this information? From whom? What are the basic sets of questions that we need to ask? How are we going to ask them (mode)? Who plays what role (interviewer, recorder and observer)? Where shall we sit? (ask the farmers!) How shall we present the information? How do we divide up the work among ourselves?

Once this is clear the interview can be got on with.

3. DURING THE INTERVIEW

As already mentioned being sensitive and alert helps. It is important to catch nuances and sieze on leads and openings to gain further information/insights. At the same time it is required to 'cut off' at a certain point (optimal ignorance). The group should themselves decide what this point is. This helps in efficient time utilisation. As also does 'appropriate imprecision'. Eg. we do not need to measure each and every plot or bit of land to arrive at details of total acreages and land use. Approximate percentages will do as well.

You may find the do's and don'ts listed on the next page useful.

DO'S	DON'TS
• Have a short 'Buzz' session on do's and don'ts of interviewing.	
• Spend time on a) Forming the interview team b) Fixing the roles and responsibilities. c) Understanding the topic. d) Planning the interview. e) Selecting interviewees. f) Selecting a spot for the interviews.	
3. - feel that you are a learner (leave status, achievements and experience behind.)	- Don't feel superior to the villagers.
- show your interest and enthusiasm in learning from people.	- Don't feel that there is nothing more for you to learn.
- be sensitive to the moods (anger, boredom, hurt, anguish, enthusiasm etc.) and build on it.	- Don't hesitate to clear your doubts and curiosities with the farmers - (but don't do it in an ignorant fashion either).
- be alert - look for information and leads, seize on them and follow up.	
4. Do also - Follow protocol as required by the situation. Introduce a culture of making prior appointments with the interviewer/informants as you would do for other important people	- Don't take the villagers for granted - treat them with respect.
- Create an atmosphere of confidence, trust and enjoyment (even women should feel like expressing themselves.)	- Don't blunder about confused

DO'S	DON'TS
- Remember that everyone has something to say. Involve the silent ones especially women.	- Don't monopolise the interview.
- Avoid conversation monopolies (In case you run into 'talkers' take them for a walk so that the others can carry on undisturbed.)	- Don't follow a single track of interest only to you.
- Listen carefully and facilitate an information flow.	- RIGHT! DON'T GAS and DON'T LECTURE. I'm getting tired of saying this.
- Allow triangulation to take place (i.e. cross checking of information by the farmers themselves.	- Don't interrupt it disturbs the flow of thought of the interviewer and upsets his/her concentration.
- Terminate 'bad' interviews without feeling bad about it. But do try to analyse what went wrong.	- Don't misinterpret information.
- Record the names of the informants and give them credit for the information they have given. (How about some chai or sharing lunch with the interviewee?)	
- Facilitate and control the interview.	- Don't all talk at the same time - it is confusing.
5. Share the work among yourselves and change roles too.	
- Remember good team work is an important part of any successful activity.	
6. Check alienation from your group. Involve yourself in what is going on.	

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SOME TIPS AND ADVICE :

1. For interviews with women, we find the older women (the mothers and grandmothers) are more at ease while discussing things with men.

2. Triangulation or refining the information takes place in different ways at different stages and levels. These should be allowed to happen or even induced in some of cases some of these are.

   Stage 1 - During the interview itself - discussions take place on statements made or on information given. The discussions/ cross checking is enhanced in an atmosphere of participation is present.

   Stage 2 - During the group presentations in the evening - the larger group. Here there is a larger (hopefully) critical audience who can challenge the presentation.

   In both cases a discussion should be encouraged and allowed to happen - infact at time even instigated.

   Stage 3 - Actually pertains to the outsiders making there own verifications/cross checks. This they will do by :-

   a) Checking information out with colleagues/other groups either during and after the exercise/interview.

   b) Checking with other farmers.

   c) Checking with information obtained from other excercises/ practitioners about similar situations/topics.

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पर्यावरण तथा वन मंत्रालय, भारत सरकार

NATIONAL WASTELANDS DEVELOPMENT BO
Ministry of Environment & Forests, Government of India

V.K. Thakral
Deputy Secretary

Ref M.E.F (NWDB) 8-22/90-MIC

Date Dated: 4.10.91

To

Prof. Madhav Gadgil,
Centre for Ecological Research,
Indian Institute of Sciences,
Bangalore.

Sub: Workshop on microplanning from 12-14th September at Bangalore.

.....

Sir,

Kindly recall that during the feedback session of the last workshop, you had requested all the participants to send write-ups on their experiences and comments on the workshop to you for compiling a report. I hope you might have started getting write-ups/comments from the participants. I will be grateful if you can kindly compile and send us a consolidated report on the workshop.

We had also noted down comments given by various participants and a copy of the same is placed at annexure 'A'. The feedback session points are stated briefly in annexure 'B'. This is for your reference.

Yours faithfully,

(V.K.Thakral
Deputy Secretary

'पर्यावरण भवन' सी. जी. ओ. काम्पलेक्स नई दिल्ली-110003 तार : 'वेस्टलैण्ड्स' टेलेक्स : 031 66600 NWDB IN
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FEED BACK . At the end of the course of participants were asked to speak on th methodology adopted in the course its contents and the usefulness of the course to the main theme. They are also allowed to ask seek any clarification or make any fresh points.

1. DFO, Palghat - said that the extent of degraded forests in his district is only 2000 ha. Some private land will also have to be taken up for afforestation. They shall be in a position to supply the IWDP project within 2 months.

2. Sh. P. Anur Reddy, Dy. Conservator of Forests (Social Forestry) Z.P. Bellary - was of the view that the subject of the people's participation was dealt very well in the course. The course concentrated squarely on micro-planning, which was the main theme. He suggested that similar training programme needs to be done for the junior forest and revenue officials. He promised to send the project report for Bellary by the end of the September.

3. Shri M.V. Krishnegowda, Dy. Conservator of Forests, Tumkur, Karnataka - informed that IWDP Project of Rs.2.7 crores is ready. However, concept of people's participation and the definition of sharing of usufruct rights needs to be added the project which will be sent by the mid October.

4. Sh. C.S. Yalakki, Divisional Forest Officer, Nilambur (north) Malappuram District Kerala - said that the training camp was a good exposure to a new concept of integrated development. No project has been prepared so far. The project will be prepared after consultation with the public.

5. Dy. Conserv tor of Forests, Kolar - Found the course very good and the village visit very successful. The appreciated the concept of people's participation at the planning and implementation stage.

6. Sh. Subhash C. Khuntia, Chief Secretary, Zilla Parishad Bellary, Karnataka - said that the idea of interdisciplinary approach was very useful. IWDP project should follow the system adopted by Dry Land Development Boards smokeless chullas should be dovetailed with the literacy programme and population control.

7. Sh. S.N. Khurana, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Pune - The training camp was very useful and he had learnt a lot of things. In view of the large percentage of NGOs in Pune the involvement of the people in IWDP project is possible.

8. Sh. V. Giriraj, Additional Collector, Pune - felt that the training programme would give a good impetus to the micro-planning exercise it should be linked with the literacy programme He promised to send the project report by first week of November.

9. Sh. A. Ramkumar, District Forest Officer, Fort, Vellore, North Arcot District, Tamil Nadu - said that the course was very useful. Since the district has just been selected. IWDP Project will be prepared and send by Jan.92.

10. Sh. M. Amanullakhan, District Forest Officer, Vinayaga Nagar, Madurai, Tamil Nadu - informed that they already have IWDP project covering 200 ha. The training programme was a good opportunity to share views and plenty of time was given for discussion.

11. Sh. Dilip Kumar, Conservator of Forests, Karnataka - suggested that low cost measures or technologies should be devised to cover larger areas.

12. Sh Rana, Assistant Inspector General of Forests, NWDB - suggested some training programme should be done for junior functionaries.

13. Sh. K. Tirupataiah, District Forest Officer, Anantapur - said that the training was useful and after this training. They will be able to prepare micro-plans easily. IWDP project for this district will be sent before Ist Nov.

14. Collector, Anantpur - was of the view that Agriculture officers and Agriculture Extension agencies should be used for implementation of IWDP projects. The Collector promised to send the report for Anantpur before Ist Nov.

15. Sh.P.H. Kurian, Collector Kalahandi, Orissa - said that the problems in the district are of great poverty and of complete non-availability of forest produce. Because of this if a scheme for sharing of usufructs with the Panchayat is made then it will not succeed. There is need for subsidised charcoal fuelwood in the distt. It is only on availability of these inputs that the forest will be safeguarded. The project will be submitted by Ist Nov.

16. Collector, Mallapuram - said that the course was a very good exposure to micro-planning exercise. There is no further scope for forest in his district. There are no degraded areas

and no land is available for afforestation.

17. Sh. K. Tirupataiah, District Forest Officer, Anantpur - was of the view because of the course his thinking regarding joint management has undergone a transformation. Training programmes like this bring out the rich experience of distts into focus. This networking of sharing of experience should be expanded. He suggested that those who shall implement this programme should be trained and NDDB should institutionalise the training.

18. Sh.V. Giriraj, Additional Collector, Poona - promised to send the IWDP project by Ist week of Nov. They shall be taking up the project in smaller parcels of land coering small micro sheds which may or may not be linked. Private land of marginal farmers whall also be covered. He was happy with the participatory approach of the training programme where no opinion or view point was forced to be accepted.

19. Collector, Mallapur - said that the training programme and field visit was useful. He suggested that a model micro plan may be discussed in the future. The format of the micro plan should also be discussed.

20. Sh. Irshad Khan, Director, NDDB - emphasised the sustainability of the training exercise and also suggested that a proportion of income from the project should be reinvested in plantations.

21. Sh. Samar Singh, Additional Secretary, NDDB - said that while it is not possible to have a ready answer to all the complicated problems raised, it was possible to search for a solution. He emphasised that the training programme on micro plan have to be a continuous process. The Distt. Collectors will have to initiate similar programmes at the distt. level. At these training courses junior officials and NGOs must be involved.

The main difference between the micro planning exercise and the traditional distt. planning is the concentration of efforts to provide a solution to local needs. While distt. plan talk of the whole distt. and discuss impersonal numbers the micro plan relates to local needs and is an intensive exercise covering the whole area.

Points arising out of feed back of the workshop

i) There was a general consensus among the participants that the workshop/training was very useful. There was positive feedback on the duration, content, methodology and conduct of the three-day-long workshop. Even the field visit on 13.9.91 arranged by MYRADA was found to be useful.

ii) Some of the participants felt that while the training given to them was useful, there was also need to train and sensitize other staff of forest department and DRDA. Such training should be conducted at district level through appropriate agencies.

iii) It was felt that education and awareness about forestry could be made a part of the literacy missions/campaigns launched in several distreicts of the country.

iv) There was a suggestion on more publicity measures to be taken to raise awareness in general public . For this, media like folk music, drama, skits should be organised extensively. Video shows/pictures also would be useful for the purpose.

v) The Collector,Mallapuram wanted to know whether the plan preparation and implementation in selected districts of Kerala would be done through the Collector or through the DRDA. He also pointed out that in Kerala,DRDAs are part of Zila Parishad and the Collector has not much involvement in that matter.,

vi) It was desired that the concept of microwatershed should be elucidated by visual material like a transparency, so that one is clear about watershed, microwatershed, etc.

vii) Some participants desired that for facilitating project preparations, some model report could be prepared with formats, broad headings etc.

Responding to a question about possible duplications with others programmes he said that a dialogue is on with the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperation to prevent a duplication between the IWDP and programmes sponsored by the Agriculture ministry. However it should be possible to have a linkage between the two programmes.

Shri Samar Singh, emphasised the importance of equity as being a point central to the issue of land degradation. This point has to be built in to the programme and there is to be a clear definition of the benefits the project will bring to the entire community.

Sh. Samar Singh, emphasised the need for local institutions to be built up to help in the preparation, implementation and latter monitoring of the project.

Summing up Sh. Samar Singh said this is an exciting project being taken up for the first in the country. There is no model However a model will evolve as the programme progresses and answers to the aspirations and needs of the people.