

The Strategic Partnership for the Mediterranean Sea
Large Marine Ecosystem (MedPartnership)

MedMPAnet Project

Regional Project for the Development of a
Mediterranean Marine and Coastal Protected Areas
(MPAs) Network through the Boosting of MPAs
Creation and Management

**STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION TOOLKIT
FOR IDENTIFICATION, DESIGNATION AND MANAGEMENT
OF MARINE PROTECTED AREAS**



Stakeholder Participation Toolkit for Identification, Designation and Management of Marine Protected Areas

2013

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Context

The MedMPAnet project is the Regional Project for the Development of a **M**editerranean **M**arine and Coastal **P**rotected Areas (MPAs) **N**etwork through the boosting of MPAs creation and management. It started in 2009 and is led by the Regional Activity Centre for Specially Protected Areas (RAC/SPA) as part of the MedPartnership¹ GEF full size project “Strategic Partnership for the Mediterranean Sea Large Ecosystem”. The MedPartnership is implemented by UNEP and the World Bank while executed by the Coordinating Unit for the Mediterranean Action Plan (MEDU-MAP) and its associated Regional Activity Centers (RACs). This Partnership enables a coordinated and strategic approach to catalyze the policy, legal and institutional reforms, and the investments necessary to reverse the degradation trends affecting this unique large marine ecosystem, including its coastal habitats and biodiversity.

In this context, the Regional Activity Center for Specially Protected Areas (RAC/SPA) signed in 2012 a Memorandum of Understanding with the Centre for Mediterranean Cooperation of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN-Med) for the “Assessment and support to Adriatic countries’ priority needs for legal, policy and institutional reforms to strengthen the creation processes and the management of marine protected areas”.

One of the aims of this MoU, “providing strategic orientations for stakeholders’ participation in MPA management and planning with view to improving good governance of MPAs”, is fulfilled by the production of a Stakeholder participation toolkit adaptable to each country.

The present document entitled *Stakeholder Participation Toolkit for Identification, Designation and Management of Marine Protected Areas* corresponds to this outcome.



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¹ <http://www.unepmap.org/index.php?module=content2&catid=001015>

Introduction

The first question raised is “Why is a stakeholder perspective important?” The importance of adopting a participatory approach, that is ensure the participation of key stakeholders, when planning, identifying, creating and managing MPAs is supported at two levels:

1. The obligation set by **Aarhus Convention** for public consultation: The UNECE Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters, usually known as the Aarhus Convention, was signed on June 25, 1998 in the Danish city of Aarhus. It entered into force on 30 October 2001. As of July 2009, it had been signed by 40 (primarily European and Central Asian) countries and the European Union and ratified by 41 countries. It had also been ratified by the European Community, which has begun applying Aarhus-type principles in its legislation, notably the Water Framework Directive (Directive 2000/60/EC). The Aarhus Convention grants the public rights regarding access to information, public participation and access to justice, in governmental decision-making processes on matters concerning the local, national and transboundary environment. It focuses on interactions between the public and public authorities².

2. Since Rio De Janeiro Conference of 1992, public participation has been recognized as a necessary element of all environmental procedures. Moreover, the involvement of stakeholders at different phases of environmental procedures will ensure:

- a better implementation of recommendations and measures when stakeholders are involved in their formulation;
- contents of proposals adapted to local conditions and situation

Participation can be implemented by means of **approaches, methods** and **tools**. The UNFAO website proposes the following definitions:

- An **approach** can be considered as “systematic combinations of tools and strategies/concepts, held together by a guiding principle, and serving the achievement of a certain goal”.
- A **method** can be considered as “a structured way of realizing a particular participatory intervention”.
- A **tool** can be defined as “certain exercises to cultivate and implement collaborative research, analysis, planning and action”.



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² http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aarhus_Convention and <http://www.unece.org/env/pp/welcome.html>

I. Stakeholders' participation: some basics

In this section, we will try to answer the following basic questions: What are stakeholders? How could we identify them? What are the main categories of stakeholders? What are the linkages between them and the different forms of participation?

WHAT ARE STAKEHOLDERS?

First of all, it is important to define what is meant by "stakeholders" and what it encompasses.

Stakeholders are all those people who have a stake (or share) in a particular issue or system.

A possible definition is: "a stakeholder is any individual, group or organization who affects, or is affected by the situation being studied"³.

Other terms sometimes used in a similar way to stakeholders are "actors" and "interest groups". The word "actors" stresses that stakeholders are active and interact with each other. The use of the words "interest groups" indicates that people can be grouped according to a common interest.

Actually, the definition of what a stakeholder is opens broad debates, because strictly seen, everybody can be considered as a potential stakeholder.

Nevertheless, and under this study, we could propose the following definition:

"Stakeholders are those who use and depend on the MPAs, whose activities affect it or who have an interest in it."

3 "ICRA Learning Materials – Stakeholders – Key Concepts" http://www.icra.edu.org/objects/anglolearn/Stakeholders-Key_Concepts.pdf and GRIMBLE, R and WELLARD, K 1997. «Stakeholder methodologies in natural resource management. A review of principles, contexts, experiences and opportunities." *Agricultural Systems Journal* 55(2): 173-193.

IDENTIFYING STAKEHOLDERS

The identification of stakeholders is an essential first step in the process.

The final selection of stakeholders depends on the people responsible for coordinating the process of planning, identifying, creating and managing MPAs. They have to develop criteria for identifying who should be considered stakeholders. Such criteria might include, for example^{4 5}:

- Existing legal or customary rights to the land or natural resources included in the protected area;
- Degree of economic, social and cultural reliance (dependence) on the land and resources included in the protected area;
- Degree of demonstrated effort and interest in the management of the land and resources included in the protected area (includes unique knowledge, skills and competence for the management of the resources);
- Compatibility of the interests and activities of the stakeholder with national conservation and development policies;
- Compatibility of the interests and activities of the stakeholder with international conventions and agreements subscribed to by the country concerned.

4 GRIMBLE, R and WELLARD, K 1997. «Stakeholder methodologies in natural resource management. A review of principles, contexts, experiences and opportunities." *Agricultural Systems Journal* 55(2): 173-193.

5 BORRINI-FEYERABEND, G., KOTHARI, A. and OVIEDO, G. (2004). *Indigenous and Local Communities and Protected Areas: Towards Equity and Enhanced Conservation*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK. xviii + 111pp.

THE MAIN CATEGORIES OF STAKEHOLDERS

Although many classifications of stakeholders' categories can be found in the literature, here we propose a simple one:

- **Government or public sector:** policy-makers, state/regional / district and municipal level institutions, MPA staff
- **Civil society (not for profit):** NGOs, universities, research institutes, local community organizations, and other groups.
- **Private sector (for profit):** firms, associations, fisheries organizations, tourism, coastal developers, etc.
- **General public.**

The involvement of policy-makers from the very beginning of the process will increase the likelihood of their support of both the process and the outcome. Moreover, stakeholders belonging to different social networks can play a different role in the procedure. Thus, government agencies decide on measures, which could be proposed within the process. Experts (NGOs, scientists) contribute to the process with information on or expert assistance. And implementers will contribute towards carrying out the results in some way. Different actors, however, have different stakes and entitlements with respect to the protected area, and co-management arrangements need not give them equal weight in consultation and decision-making (Borrini-Feyerabend et al., 2004).

Another way of classifying stakeholders is to consider the level of "influence" they have in the decision-making or "importance" for a given project or study. Importance and influence are not the same. Stakeholders can be either active or passive. An 'Actor' is a stakeholder who is actively involved. Some also distinguish between stakeholders and key stakeholders, others between primary and secondary stakeholders. The following definitions are proposed by ICRA ⁶:

- **Key stakeholders** are those actors who are considered to have significant influence on the success of a project.
- **Primary stakeholders** are the intended beneficiaries of a project.
- **Secondary stakeholders** are those who perform as intermediaries within a project.
- **Active stakeholders** are those who affect or determine a decision or action in a system or project.
- **Passive stakeholders** are those who are affected by decisions or actions of others.
- **Important stakeholders** are those whose needs are important to a project or study.
- **Influential stakeholders** are those who have the power to control decisions in an activity or who can influence others in the decision making process.

Some stakeholders will be important at the beginning of the process but not at the end. Others may not be important at the start but become more important later.

"Understanding who should be involved and on which level within an environmental management process is a complex issue. It is very important to understand how different stakeholders are related to each other and how they are related to the resources to be managed.⁷"

WHAT ARE THE LINKAGES BETWEEN STAKEHOLDERS AND THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF PARTICIPATION?

In the present context, linkages are interactions between stakeholders, which allow the exchange or transfer of information, resources or power. These linkages include:

- **Structural mechanisms** which are formal and institutionally recognized, e.g.:
 - Direct supervision or authority
 - Committees
 - Liaison positions
- **Operational mechanisms** which may be informal or temporary, e.g.:
 - Meetings, training events
 - Contracts, partnerships
 - Publications, broadcasts
 - Joint activities

The different forms of stakeholders' participation can be summarized as follow:

- **Information Sharing:** from government to public, or public to government. to keep actors informed, provide transparency, and build legitimacy (e.g. Presentation of results during final workshops).
- **Consultation :** Exchange of views, sharing information, formal consultation processes responding to stakeholders about how their recommendations were addressed (or not, and why) (e.g. to have feedback)
- **Involvement:** Collaboration Joint activities (e.g. work on tools during local workshops) or Joint Decision Making

The improvement of the overall knowledge and information system depends on managing and improving these linkages between stakeholders. Thus and important effort in ensuring stakeholders participation is to balance power between stakeholders (vertical/horizontal linkages).

6 "ICRA Learning Materials – Stakeholders – Key Concepts"
http://www.icra-edu.org/objects/anglolearn/Stakeholders-Key_Concepts.pdf

7 PEGASO project. *Participatory methods for ICZM implementation*. June 2011. UNIVE. http://www.pegasoproject.eu/images/WP4_Factsheets/WP4%20FactSheets_T4.4%20Participation_methods_for_ICZM_implementation.pdf

II. Typology of protected areas governance

First, it is important to understand that different types of governance for protected areas exist and that depending on the type of governance, stakeholders' participation in the various phases within the process of identification, designation, planning or management of MPAs will differ. We propose in table 1 to present the IUCN typology of protected area governance.

Table 1: IUCN typology of protected area governance

There are many ways to characterize or group governance approaches. Because governance is dynamic and site-specific, this typology is best viewed as a set of 'ideal' types. The first is the classic type where the State owns and manages the site as part of the formal protected area system. Protected areas legislation, historically, has been based on this classic approach for defining powers, processes, requirements, enforcement, offences, and associated considerations. The second two types (indigenous and local communities and private owners) reflect the growing worldwide movement of voluntary conservation initiatives, and the fourth type (co-management) may involve any combination of the above.

TYPE	Characterization as part of formal protected areas systems
Governance by government	<p>Classic approach - state owned or state - controlled</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The establishment and management of protected areas are handled by the lead government agency specializing in protected areas which is given the necessary operational powers and responsibilities, in accordance with the relevant legislation. — When the protected areas are established by law, they are managed and maintained by the government in public trust for the benefit of the people and for future generations as their natural heritage. — In case of delegation of (certain) responsibilities to other government or non-government entities, final responsibility and accountability for the actions taken by the entity however, remains with the specialized agency, the minister of charge or the government.
Governance by indigenous and local communities	<p>New-voluntary conservation by indigenous and local communities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — This sort of governance is managed by indigenous peoples or local communities over those land or sea areas to which they have ownership or resource use rights and which they are managing for long term conservation. — A variety of ownership arrangements may exist, separate from the governance structure. The status of such traditional use rights depends on their recognition in the legal system of the country concerned. — This recognition may have a constitutional foundation, or be recognized in statutory law or by judicial decision.
Governance by private property owners	<p>New - voluntary conservation by private property owners (individual or corporate)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The Private Protected Area (PPA) is another special governance type associated with voluntary conservation. — PPAs may be recognized as part of the formal PA system or as outside the formal PA system but serving supportive conservation goals, particularly as buffers and connecting corridors. — The challenge for protected area authorities with respect to PPAs is not whether private initiatives exist but rather "how best to integrate them into national protected area systems and global conservation strategies, and to act harness more private initiatives".
Co-management (shared governance)	<p>Some elements are new-for example, arrangements expanded to partnerships with and among communities, NGOs, private individuals and corporations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — Co-management of PA involves collaboration between two or more partners in the management of a protected area. It is one of the oldest means for government entities to cooperate in the management of state-owned or state – controlled protected areas. — Co-management's arrangements normally entail partnership or consultative agreements that lay out the specific responsibilities of the main actors sharing authorities. The concept is equally applicable at the central and decentralized levels.

Source: Adapted from Dudley, 2008, p.26

III. What are the main phases for MPAs planning, identification, creation, management? And where are the various categories of stakeholders usually involved?

STEPS FROM THE IDENTIFICATION TO THE DECLARATION AND THE MANAGEMENT OF MPAs

Stakeholders' involvement is crucial for all steps of integrated management: baseline review of the situation, target setting, political commitment, implementation and monitoring of the process, and evaluation and reporting. The intensity of the stakeholders' involvement in the process varies but the most common forms of participation are the hybrid ones, a mixture of ad-hoc and formalized participation processes⁸. The involvement and participation of stakeholders should take place at different political levels (national, regional and local) and be applied in a vertical but also horizontal direction in order to achieve sustainable decisions.

The steps of integrated management are incorporated in the different phases from designation to management of MPAs. In Table 2, we outline the different phases with the specific actions, involvement of stakeholders and topics to be analyzed. These phases include: the preparatory phase, the negotiation phase for each site, the declaration phase and finally the management phase.



⁸ Ad-hoc participation processes are developed for a special need and have a short "life" e.g. workshops, internet consultations, presentations etc. Those processes are initiated for a certain special purpose.

Formalized participation on e.g. committees, advisory boards and partnerships are considered to be more sustainable stakeholder involvement methods as they usually exist for a longer period of time and for a more general purpose (Aaltonen S. and Kreutz E., 2009).

Table 2: From the identification to the declaration and the management of Marine Protected Areas: main phases and participatory mechanisms.

Action	Involvement of	Topics
Preparatory phase		
1. Analysis of the MPA legislation	National competent authorities	Gap analysis (national and international instruments)
2. Analysis of the MPA institutions	National competent authorities	Competence, mandate and main issues – Rules of procedures for MPAs declaration and management
3. Identification of sites	Scientific community & national competent authorities	General diagnostic of the marine and coastal environment
4. Ranking and selection of site	Scientific community & national competent authorities	Ranking according to specific national criteria and management categories and detailed analysis of the top priority sites
5. Diagnostic of top priority sites	Scientific community & national competent authorities	Detailed assessment of the main ecological and socio-economic features of the area and its surrounding
Negotiation phase for each site		
1. Definition of the negotiation team	National authorities and scientific community (including social science)	To be defined, including expert from all the disciplines and activities concerned in the area
2. Identification of competent institutional actors at the national, regional and local	Negotiation team	Check list
3. Identification of all stakeholders	Negotiation team	Check list public and private sector, NGOs, associations, cooperatives, etc.
4. Presentation and agreement on the rules of procedures for identification and management of a MPA	Negotiation team	Open discussion with all stakeholders (in particular concerning the marine and coastal environment and human activities)
5. Inquiry on the vision of the future of the marine environment according to different stakeholders	National authorities, scientific community, all stakeholders and the negotiation team	Define the different scenarios for the future of the area based on past and present situation and consider the tendencies for proposing different options
6. Restitution of the inquiry	National authorities, scientific community, all stakeholders and the negotiation team	Selecting the most suitable scenarios
7. Negotiating the area to be considered as a MPA, the category of management, the activities to be included and the relevant regulations for each activity	National authorities, scientific community, all stakeholders and the negotiation team	Definition of the area Definition of each activity and its regulations (one group for each) Common negotiation between all activities (bilateral discussions and all groups together) Final agreement (zoning of the MPA with specific regulations, surrounding regulations if necessary) by consensus
8. Definition of a management or co-management unit (national and local level)	National authorities	



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Declaration phase		
1. Definition of a management or co-management unit (national and local level)	National authorities	Approbation or nomination by Decree
2. Approbation of the management plan	National authority with the MPA mandate	Decree or other legal document defining the management plan and its review mechanisms
Management phase		
1. Management plan implementation	Management Unit	In coordination with all relevant stakeholders
2. Management plan revision	Management unit and all stakeholders	Negotiate and adapt to changes and new challenges

IV. Participatory tools commonly used in the context of MPAs planning, identification, creation, management

Below, are only presented the most commonly used tools to start a participatory process. Annexes to the present document give more methods and tools that have been commonly used as well as references of literature of interest in this field.

The first step in the process of involvement of stakeholders is to clearly formulate and make the starting point of the process understandable by the stakeholders. This is achieved by defining clear objectives for the process itself and the role of the stakeholders.

In order to define the starting point the combination of the **SWOT analysis** and the **PESTLE analysis** can be proposed.

SWOT-ANALYSIS⁹

The SWOT Analysis is a strategic planning tool used to discuss and analyze the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats involved in a topic, a business or an organization and its environment. Strengths and weaknesses refer to things inside the organization. In the case of MPAs, strengths and weaknesses could refer to the legal and institutional framework for the designation of MPAs and the management authorities of the MPAs; opportunities and threats refer to things outside, e.g. public awareness and participation in the identification, designation and management of MPAs and human pressures in the coastal and marine zone accordingly. A SWOT-Analysis can be used to make the most of the strengths and opportunities and at the same time improve the weaknesses and minimize the threats.

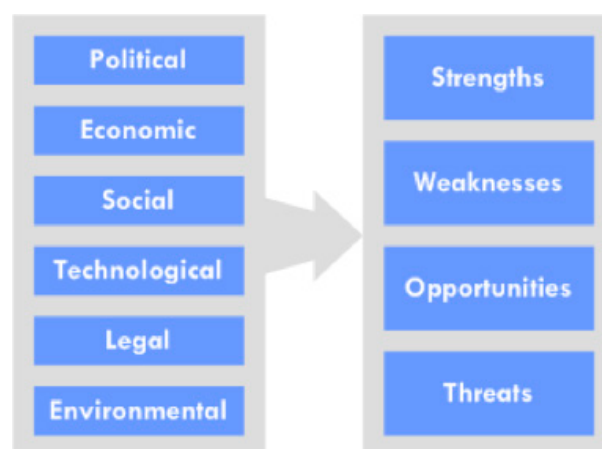
PESTLE ANALYSIS

The PESTLE tool complements the SWOT analysis. PESTLE is the abbreviation for Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal and Environmental factors that are considered when creating a strategic plan.

- Political factors refer to the key political drivers of relevance
- Economic factors refer to the important economic factors
- Social factors refer to the main societal and cultural aspects
- Technological factors refer to are current technology imperatives, changes and innovations
- Legal factors refer to the current and impending legislation affecting the role
- Environmental factors refer to the environmental considerations, locally and further afield

PESTLE is often used within a strategic SWOT analysis. This means that a SWOT analysis is made out of each PESTLE factor. It is an advantage to know the opportunities and threats that lie within. A traditional SWOT analysis would take the context of the PESTLE and analyze how these factors may emerge/impact. The combination of the two methods is illustrated in Figure 1, while the outcome of this combination is the enhanced form of SWOT analysis (Figure 2).

Fig.1: PESTLE and SWOT analysis¹⁰



⁹ AALTONEN S. and KREUTZ E. (2009). Engage your stakeholders - Stakeholder Involvement, "Integrated Management for Russian cities - MATRUSCHKA" project. UBC Commission on Environment (EnvCom)

¹⁰ <http://www.jiscinfonet.ac.uk/tools/pestle-swot/>

At the end of the process the result is an enhanced form of SWOT analysis. The enhanced SWOT analysis enables the stakeholders to use the strengths for taking advantage of the opportunities and reduce the likelihood and impact of the threat. It also helps to overcome the weaknesses that prevent taking advantage of the opportunities and make threats real. The overall outcome of the combined method is to clearly define the tasks and the objectives to be taken for the identification, designation and management of MPAs.

Fig.2: Enhanced form of SWOT analysis¹¹

Translate into tasks for the Project Plan	Strengths	Weaknesses
Opportunities	How do I use these strengths to take advantage of these opportunities?	How do I overcome the weaknesses that prevent me taking advantage of these opportunities?
Threats	How do I use my strengths to reduce the likelihood and impact of these threats?	How do I overcome the weaknesses that will make these threats a reality?



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FOCUS GROUP - PROPOSED PARTICIPATORY METHOD FOR STAKEHOLDERS¹²

After defining the objectives, stakeholders could participate as a Focus Group, a form of a participatory method for stakeholders of various levels. The purpose of this method is to obtain information about people's preferences and values pertaining to the topic of interest, the identification and designation of MPAs, and why these are held by observing the structured discussion of an interactive group in a permissive, non-threatening environment. A focus group is a planned discussion among a small group (4-12 persons) of stakeholders facilitated by a skilled moderator. Thus, a focus group can be seen as a combination between a focused interview and a discussion group.

The moderator leads the group through a semi-structured discussion to draw out the views of all of the participants and then summarizes all of the main issues and perspectives that were expressed. After the event the research staff analyses all results of the focus group(s) conducted and produces a report.

The questions generated for the focus group should be in accordance with the different phases of the process of identification, declaration and management of MPAs. Therefore, the different actions and topics, mentioned in Table 2, should be taken as a guideline for the formulation of the questions to be addressed to the stakeholders.

Then it is key to identify who are your stakeholders. This can be done through a **stakeholder analysis**.

"The term stakeholder analysis was first used in management science for identifying and addressing the interest of different stakeholders in business. Nowadays, stakeholder analysis is frequently used for:

- Policy formulation,
- Project formulation,
- Implementation and evaluation,
- For understanding and analyzing complex situations in natural resource management.

Stakeholder analysis is a way of understanding a system through its stakeholders. It looks at their interest, objectives, power and relationships.

Stakeholder analysis will also show existing patterns of interaction between stakeholders. It will show conflicts and can help find ways to resolve them. By understanding the system, it is possible to facilitate change.¹³"

¹² NIKKI SLOCUM (2003). *Participatory Methods Toolkit, A practitioner's manual*. Belgian Advertising (B.AD)

¹³ "ICRA Learning Materials – Stakeholders – Key Concepts"
http://www.icra-edu.org/objects/anglolearn/Stakeholders-Key_Concepts.pdf

¹¹ <http://www.jiscinfonet.ac.uk/tools/pestle-swot/>

Conclusion

A common general participation framework and stakeholder participation toolkit can be proposed to all the countries considered by this study in Eastern Adriatic. Anyway, the differences in the social, environmental and political contexts and the resources (both human and financial) have to be considered.

Therefore the choice of the particular participatory method to be used will depend on:

- Project context (i.e. project goals, objectives and anticipated outcomes).
- Community context (the willingness to participate, sociocultural aspects).
- Project parameters (including the project size, budget, timeline and resources allocated).
- Project team (i.e. skills of team and availability of the members).



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List of Annexes

ANNEX 1: Sections of interest taken from a document entitled « *Elaboration de stratégies de conservation des espèces. Document de support pour le cours de formation* » (in English, Development of strategies for the conservation of species. Support document for training). April 2013, IUCN-Med, Malaga, Spain.

ANNEX 2: Sections taken from the document entitled "*Participatory methods for ICZM implementation*" produced By UNIVE under the PEGASO project.

ANNEX 3: *Stakeholder Participation: A Synthesis of Current Literature*. Report prepared by the National Marine Protected Areas Center in cooperation with the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Coastal Services Center. Brianne Leigh Kessler, Primary Investigator. September 2004.

ANNEX 4: *Social Science Tools for Coastal Programs: Introduction to Stakeholder Participation*. Prepared by the Coastal Services Center of NOAA

ANNEX 5: Sheet B1 Participatory Techniques. N, CORDIO and ICRAN (2008). *Managing Marine and Coastal Protected Areas: A Toolkit for South Asia*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Bangkok, Thailand; CORDIO, Kalmar, Sweden; and ICRAN, Cambridge, UK. And Sheet B1 Participatory Techniques. IUCN 2004. *Managing Marine Protected Areas: A Toolkit for the Western Indian Ocean*. IUCN Eastern African Regional Programme, Nairobi, Kenya, xii + 172pp.

ANNEX 6: *Guidelines on stakeholder engagement in preparation of integrated management plans for protected areas*. Document prepared by Milena Marega and Nina Urataric in the framework of the NATREG project. April 2011.



ANNEX 1: Sections taken from a document, and its annexes, entitled « *Elaboration de stratégies de conservation des espèces. Document de support pour le cours de formation* » (in English, Development of strategies for the conservation of species. Support document for training). April 2013, IUCN-Med, Malaga, Spain.

« *Les acteurs identifiés (idéalement des individus, mais parfois des organisations) se sentiront beaucoup plus disposés à mener à bien les actions recommandées s'ils ont été impliqués dans l'élaboration des recommandations. En effet, il est rarement approprié de désigner des personnes ou des institutions pour accomplir des actions précises sans leur consentement préalable.* »

ANNEX 1: THE PARTICIPATIVE PROCESS

1. Involvement of Stakeholders

A common characteristic of all the Species Conservation Strategies is that they are a participative process, i.e., a number of stakeholders are involved since the beginning. A stakeholder, in the present context, is defined as an individual or institution that demonstrates some combination of concern (about the outcome of a SCS process), expertise (i.e., has information or resources required to conduct the SCS process), and/or power (i.e., is able to either block or facilitate recommendations which result from the SCS process). Taken together, a potentially valuable stakeholder can either significantly affect the formulation of recommendations at the workshop, and/or be significantly affected by them.

At the range-wide or regional level, SCSs are best developed at workshops attended by higher-level range State government representatives, species specialists, other conservation specialists, and representatives of major NGOs (there may of course be overlap in these categories). These regional workshops should then be followed by a series of national or local action planning workshops, which will be attended by many more range State participants, including additional government staff (e.g., lower-level staff such as park wardens), as well as national and international NGO staff and other species specialists.

The publication of Wildlife Conservation Society "Casting for conservation actors: people, partnership and wildlife"¹⁴ (<http://www.wcs.org/media/file/wcswp28.pdf>) provides interesting insights on the selection and involvement of stakeholders for wildlife projects.

According to this the four key attributes of conservation actors, or stakeholders, are:

Mandate to Manage

Mandate to manage is defined here as the recognition of legal or moral authority, or the ownership of land or resources. Ownership implies recognized or legal rights; authority assumes jurisdiction over a given area or natural resource (conferred through legal or social processes). This qualification can be related to issues of legitimacy and credibility, although ownership and/or authority do not always connote legitimacy.

14 CASTILLO, O et al. (2006). *Casting for Conservation Actors: People, Partnership and Wildlife*. Wildlife Conservation Society, Working paper N. 28.

Capacity to Act

The capacity to act is predicated on having relevant knowledge, skills and resources. The latter can include both human and financial resources, while skill sets might include a broad range of aptitudes in everything from conflict resolution, writing and communication, to strategic planning and research. Knowledge refers to the information required for effective decision-making and action.

Motivation to Conserve

Motivation refers to an actor's interest in a conservation-related objective, activity or role. In general, the efficiency of conservation interventions by an actor positively correlates with the motivation of that actor. However, motivated actors can be either supportive of or opposed to conservation. Motivated actors tend to perceive a benefit from either conservation or subverting conservation, and are thus less passive than indifferent actors. Benefits may be material or economic in nature, or may be cultural, ethical or spiritual.

Power to Influence

Power refers to an actor's political, economic and/or social influence. Without politically powerful allies, a conservation program's efforts remain vulnerable to negative influence. Power in itself does not define an actor's value to conservation, but rather it is how that power is applied which could impact conservation positively or negatively. In this way, references to the actors' 'Motivation to Conserve' will indicate how these actors are likely to wield their power.

2. Conflict resolution

In most species action plans is necessary to reconcile the seemingly contradictory interests of biodiversity conservation with development. Conservationists all over the world are faced with mounting socio-economic pressures that threaten biodiversity and make their jobs challenging. In many cases, conflict just seems to be a fact of nature conservation. This calls for adaptive and innovative approaches, in which conflict resolution techniques are an useful tool. The conflict resolution techniques can be applied only when all parties to the conflict voluntarily agree to try to resolve it peacefully.

We've all seen situations where different people with different goals and needs have come into conflict. And we've all seen the often-intense personal animosity that can result. The fact that conflict exists, however, is not necessarily a bad thing: As long as it is resolved effectively, it can lead to personal and professional growth. In many cases, effective conflict resolution can make the difference between positive and negative outcomes. The good news is that by resolving conflict successfully, you can solve many of the problems that it has brought to the surface, as well as getting benefits that you might not at first expect:

— **Increased understanding:** The discussion needed to resolve conflict expands people's awareness of the situation, giving them an insight into how they can achieve their own goals without undermining those of other people.

— **Increased group cohesion:** When conflict is resolved effectively, team members can develop stronger mutual respect and a renewed faith in their ability to work together.

— **Improved self-knowledge:** Conflict pushes individuals to examine their goals in close detail, helping them understand the things that are most important to them, sharpening their focus, and enhancing their effectiveness.

However, if conflict is not handled effectively, the results can be damaging. Conflicting goals can quickly turn into personal dislike. Teamwork breaks down, talent is wasted as people disengage from their work, and it's easy to end up in a vicious downward spiral of negativity and recrimination.

If you need to keep a project working effectively, you need to stop this downward spiral as soon as you can. To do this, it helps to understand two of the theories that lie behind effective conflict resolution:

Understanding the theory: Conflict Styles

In the 1970s Kenneth Thomas and Ralph Kilmann identified five main styles of dealing with conflict that vary in their degrees of cooperativeness and assertiveness. They argued that people typically have a preferred conflict resolution style. However they also noted that different styles were most useful in different situations. They developed the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) which helps you to identify which style you tend towards when conflict arises.

Thomas and Kilmann's styles are:

- **Competitive:** People who tend towards a competitive style take a firm stand, and know what they want. They usually operate from a position of power, drawn from things like position, rank, expertise, or persuasive ability. This style can be useful when there is an emergency and a decision needs to be made fast; when the decision is unpopular; or when defending against someone who is trying to exploit the situation selfishly. However it can leave people feeling bruised, unsatisfied and resentful when used in less urgent situations.
- **Collaborative:** People tending towards a collaborative style try to meet the needs of all people involved. These people can be highly assertive but unlike the competitor, they cooperate effectively and acknowledge that everyone is important. This style is useful when you need to bring together a variety of viewpoints to get the best solution; when there have been previous conflicts in the group; or when the situation is too important for a simple trade-off.
- **Compromising:** People who prefer a compromising style try to find a solution that will at least partially satisfy everyone. Everyone is expected to give up something and the compromiser (he- or she) also expects to relinquish something. Compromise is useful when the cost of conflict is higher than the cost of losing ground, when equal strength opponents are at a standstill and when there is a deadline looming.
- **Accommodating:** This style indicates a willingness to meet the needs of others at the expense of the person's own needs. The accommodator often knows when to give in to others, but can

be persuaded to surrender a position even when it is not warranted. This person is not assertive but is highly cooperative. Accommodation is appropriate when the issues matter more to the other party, when peace is more valuable than winning, or when you want to be in a position to collect on this "favour" you gave. However people may not return favours, and overall this approach is unlikely to give the best outcomes.

— **Avoiding:** People tending towards this style seek to evade the conflict entirely. This style is typified by delegating controversial decisions, accepting default decisions, and not wanting to hurt anyone's feelings. It can be appropriate when victory is impossible, when the controversy is trivial, or when someone else is in a better position to solve the problem. However in many situations this is a weak and ineffective approach to take.

Once you understand the different styles, you can use them to think about the most appropriate approach (or mixture of approaches) for the situation you're in. You can also think about your own instinctive approach, and learn how you need to change this if necessary.

Ideally you can adopt an approach that meets the situation, resolves the problem, respects people's legitimate interests, and mends damaged working relationships.

Understanding the theory:

The "Interest-Based Relational Approach"

The second theory is commonly referred to as the "Interest-Based Relational (IBR) Approach". This type of conflict resolution respects individual differences while helping people avoid becoming too entrenched in a fixed position.

In resolving conflict using this approach, you follow these rules:

- **Make sure that good relationships are the first priority:** As far as possible, make sure that you treat the other calmly and that you try to build mutual respect. Do your best to be courteous to one-another and remain constructive under pressure.
- **Keep people and problems separate:** Recognize that in many cases the other person is not just "being difficult" – real and valid differences can lie behind conflictive positions. By separating the problem from the person, real issues can be debated without damaging working relationships.
- **Pay attention to the interests that are being presented:** By listening carefully you'll most-likely understand why the person is adopting his or her position.
- **Listen first; talk second:** To solve a problem effectively you have to understand where the other person is coming from before defending your own position.
- **Set out the "Facts":** Agree and establish the objective, observable elements that will have an impact on the decision.
- **Explore options together:** Be open to the idea that a third position may exist, and that you can get to this idea jointly.

By following these rules, you can often keep contentious discussions positive and constructive. This helps to prevent the antagonism and dislike which so-often causes conflict to spin out of control.

Using the tool: A Conflict Resolution Process

Based on these approaches, a starting point for dealing with conflict is to identify the overriding conflict style employed by yourself, your team or your organization.

Over time, people's conflict management styles tend to mesh, and a "right" way to solve conflict emerges. It's good to recognize when this style can be used effectively, however make sure that people understand that different styles may suit different situations.

Look at the circumstances, and think about the style that may be appropriate.

Then use the process below to resolve the conflict:

Step One: Set the Scene

If appropriate to the situation, agree the rules of the "IBR Interest-Based Relational Approach" (or at least consider using the approach yourself.). Make sure that people understand that the conflict may be a mutual problem, which may be best resolved through discussion and negotiation rather than through raw aggression.

If you are involved in the conflict, emphasize the fact that you are presenting your perception of the problem. Use "active listening" skills to ensure you hear and understand other's positions and perceptions.

- Restate
- Paraphrase
- Summarize

And make sure that when you talk, you're using an adult, assertive approach rather than a submissive or aggressive style.

Step Two: Gather Information

Here you are trying to get to the underlying interests, needs, and concerns. Ask for the other person's viewpoint and confirm that you respect his or her opinion and need his or her cooperation to solve the problem.

Try to understand his or her motivations and goals, and see how your actions may be affecting these.

Also, try to understand the conflict in objective terms: Is it affecting work performance? Damaging the delivery to the client? Disrupting team work? Hampering decision-making? or so on. Be sure to focus on work issues and leave personalities out of the discussion.

- Listen with empathy and see the conflict from the other person's point of view.
- Identify issues clearly and concisely.
- Use "I" statements.
- Remain flexible.
- Clarify feelings.

Step Three: Agree the Problem

This sounds like an obvious step, but often different underlying needs, interests and goals can cause people to perceive problems very differently. You'll need to agree the problems that you are trying to solve before you'll find a mutually acceptable solution.

Sometimes different people will see different but interlocking problems – if you can't reach a common perception of the problem, then at the very least, you need to understand what the other person sees as the problem.

Step Four: Brainstorm Possible Solutions

If everyone is going to feel satisfied with the resolution, it will help if everyone has had fair input in generating solutions. Brainstorm possible solutions, and be open to all ideas, including ones you never considered before.

Step Five: Negotiate a Solution.

By this stage, the conflict may be resolved: Both sides may better understand the position of the other, and a mutually satisfactory solution may be clear to all.

However you may also have uncovered real differences between your positions. This is where a technique like win-win negotiation can be useful to find a solution that, at least to some extent, satisfies everyone.

There are three guiding principles here: Be Calm, Be Patient, Have Respect.

Key Points

Managed in the wrong way, real and legitimate differences between people can quickly spiral out of control, resulting in situations where co-operation breaks down and the team's mission is threatened. This is particularly the case where the wrong approaches to conflict resolution are used.

To calm these situations down, it helps to take a positive approach to conflict resolution, where discussion is courteous and non-confrontational, and the focus is on issues rather than on individuals. If this is done, then, as long as people listen carefully and explore facts, issues and possible solutions properly, conflict can often be resolved effectively.

ANNEXE 2: TIPS TO MAKE MEETINGS WORK

The Species Conservation Strategies are built during one or several meetings carried out with the actors or stakeholders involved in the participative process. Having effective meetings is an art as well as a science and it may take some practice and experimentation. There several publications on how to run effective meetings. We have selected these tips published by the Office of the Student from the University of La Verne.

1. Ingredients of an effective meeting:

- There must be a common focus on content.
- There must be a common focus on process.
- Someone must be responsible for maintaining an open and balanced conversational flow.
- Someone must be responsible for protecting individuals from personal attack.

— And, in general, for the duration of the meeting everyone's role must be clearly defined and agreed upon.

The key to success of any meeting, regardless of how it is run, is planning and preparation. When you are planning a meeting, there are some basic questions that you need to ask:

1. Why have a meeting? What are your objectives and expectations?
2. What type of meeting do you want to have?
3. Whom do you want to attend the meeting?
4. What kind of involvement and participation do you want?
5. How many people do you want to attend the meeting?
6. Where are you going to meet? How should the room be arranged?
7. What roles and responsibilities should individuals have during the meeting?
8. Who will have the power and authority to make decisions?
9. What methods and techniques of discussing, planning problem solving and decision-making are you going to use?
10. Will there be an agenda?
11. Will there be presentations?
12. Will there be some kind of record?
13. What are the desired outcomes of the meeting?
14. How are you going to determine task? Deadlines? And responsibilities?

Common problems encountered without formal planning

- Multi-headed animal syndrome: Everyone going in different directions at the same time.
- Personal attack: Attacking individuals rather than their ideas.
- Traffic problem: Difficulty in leaping into the conversational flow and getting a chance to participate.
- Unclear roles and responsibilities: Who is supposed to be doing what?
- Manipulation by group leader: Abuse of power in order to achieve personal objectives.
- Repetition and wheel spinning: Going over the same ideas again and again.
- Confused objectives and expectations: Why did you call the meeting and what is the group supposed to be doing.
- Unresolved questions of power and authority: Do we have the power to make this decision?
- General negativity and lack of challenge: There is nothing that we can do about it, so why try?
- Communication problems: Not listening to or understanding what other are saying or making faulty assumptions.
- Poor meeting environment: Can't hear, can't see, too stuffy, etc.
- Personality conflicts: Lack of openness and trust.

The Interaction Method

One of the most successful ways to run a meeting is called: the Interaction Method. The Interaction Method consists of four

well-defined roles. All four roles are equally important. No one person is in the traditional role of leadership; instead, everyone has a stake in the outcome and is equally responsible for the groups' success and failures. The four roles consist of the facilitator, the recorder, the group member and the manager/chairperson.

— **The Facilitator:** is a neutral servant of the group that does not evaluate or contribute ideas. They help the group focus on its energies and keeping the group on task by suggesting methods and procedures, protecting all members of the group from attack, and making sure that everyone has the opportunity to participate. The facilitator serves as a combination of tool guide, traffic officer, and meeting chauffeur. He/she is also responsible for all pre-meeting and post-meeting logistics.

— **The Recorder:** is also a neutral, non-evaluating servant of the group. They are to write down the basic ideas on a large sheet of paper in front of the participants. The recorder does not edit or paraphrase, but uses the works of each speaker. The objective is not to record everything that is said but to capture enough so that ideas can be preserved and recalled any time.

— **The Group Member:** is an active participant in the meeting. They are responsible to keep the facilitator and recorder in their neutral roles and to make sure that ideas are recorded accurately. As long as the Interaction Method is running the meeting, the control of what happens rests in the hands of the group members. They can make procedural suggestions, overrule the suggestions of the facilitator, and generally determine the course of the meeting.

— **The Manager/Chairperson:** does not run the meeting, but rather becomes an active participant. Otherwise, he/she retains all of their powers and responsibilities. The Interaction Method takes the 'boss' out of the manager.

Other suggestions:

1. Have the recorder post the meeting conclusions via-email.
2. Review what the recorder has written, and set your agenda for next meeting.
3. Set your meeting time and place, before you adjourn.
4. Review and evaluate how you all thought the meeting went, suggest new ideas for next meeting.
5. Bring food and beverages to meeting.
6. Add humor!

2. Facilitating a meeting

Facilitation is the art of guiding but not leading, bringing learning but not lecturing, engaging but not directing. Coming from the Latin "facilitar" meaning "to make easy" the role of the facilitator is not to do for others but to bring out the ability of a group to accomplish a goal. There are books and manuals on facilitation, like many proven business tools. We have included the tips for facilitators recommended by Jon Miller, from the Kaizen Institute (http://www.gembapantarei.com/2010/04/ten_tips_for_better_facilitation.html).

a. Unpack the agenda

As a time-management tip, leaving room for discussion, questions, or extra exercises is usually a good idea within a scripted facilitation session. Even for meetings, too many items on the agenda are a sure formula for just talk and no action. Leaving some space for learners who learn at different paces or in different styles, as well as time for reflection, discussion, or hands-on exercises is useful for facilitating workshops designed to “learn and do,” such as kaizen events.

b. Avoid the back-to-back class drawback

Don't be the professor rushing to her next class, or the trainer who scrambles to rearrange the chairs in time for the next group. Sessions should be at least 20 minutes apart, provided minimal set up and clean up of the room is needed. Who are we kidding when we plan back-to-back, one-hour meetings in this age of no instant transportation? Constraints force us to be more effective. Limiting the usable time for meetings by having time to get set helps us start and finish on time, bringing professionalism.

c. Practice image training

Just as athletes run through the race, fight, or game in their mind in advance, preparing their bodies' neural pathways for the real thing, professional facilitators should close their eyes and mentally walk through the session. More often than not, one will recall a detail or two that may have been missed on a checklist. Image training can include considering difficult situations and practicing how to handle them calmly, rehearsing jokes or stories, or simply imagining the group smiling. When it comes time to execute the facilitation, the mind is ready.

d. Respect the PowerPoint power law

For every PowerPoint presentation, after the 10th slide, attention and interest drop off precipitously. This is a made-up law, but in practice it seems to work as a good rule of thumb. One approach is to put less information on each slide, making the slides flow more quickly. But ultimately, in a facilitation situation, the visuals should be organic, on the fly, and fit to the purpose of the situation rather than pre-packaged.

e. Just stop by the jargon junction

The role of the facilitator is to make it easy for people to speak naturally but also for others to understand them. This may require paraphrasing or asking clarifying questions for the benefit of the group. The facilitator should also be careful to watch out for and manage the use of jargon. Jamming a lot of technical terms, acronyms, or \$10 words into a meeting is a sure way to make people feel less valuable in a group situation. The “jargon junction” is a section of white board or a large sheet of paper in a high-traffic, highly visible area that becomes the home of new jargon, acronyms, and technical terms as they are introduced.

f. Make lists

Perhaps this is a personal obsession but organizing the thoughts of the group into a numbered set by saying: “Let's review. I hear you saying three things...” or giving the objectives for the next hour in numbered fashion gives people a sense of order and time. Many times these lists are reusable from group to group, or can even become best practice tips.

g. Put the agreement in writing

This is always good advice in business. In facilitation, this means that when the group comes to consensus on a point, it is valuable to have them write it down in their own words. Seeing it in black and white allows everyone to see clearly what was agreed upon or proposed, and triggers either closure or the verbalization of disagreement as some fully grasp what is written.

The written agenda, rules of the road—such as no cell phones or laptops, and the list of topics to avoid because they sideline discussion—are all examples of what can be put in writing. Even for small group discussions this is very effective. When the group is required to write down their thought process visibly, it becomes less of a discussion between a few vocal members and more a team discussion.

h. Body language blindness

In communication, it's not what you say; it's how you say it. The longer and more information-rich the intended communication, the more this tends to be true. Someone listening and watching you speak may tune out of the words and tune into the language, especially in difficult facilitation situations. It is important to be aware of body language and the role of nonverbal communication. A facilitator should practice and exhibit positive and appropriate body language. However, as a facilitator, a certain degree of body language blindness can come in handy. What is common is for experienced and sensitive facilitators to pick up on tense body language or tone of voice and react to that situation or that individual, rather than letting the situation play out naturally. This is not to say ignore body language, but only to greet a certain amount of crossed arms, scowls, and shaking heads with equanimity and smiles.

i. Talk less

Facilitators and trainers, thankfully, aren't paid by the word or it would be a disaster. Facilitators need to activate the group, and then shut up. Facilitators should re-rail derailed conversations, then shush. Facilitators can ask questions, point to people who deserve their turn at answering, and then let the group members carry the discussion. The more facilitators speak, the more they expose themselves. The more the group members speak, the more they expose the issues.

j. Take and use feedback immediately

While meeting evaluation forms have value, the “you won't hurt my feelings, please tell me a few things I can do better next time as a facilitator” can be a humbling growth experience, if accepted with an open heart. Ask for the last three minutes of the group's attention and don't miss these opportunities.



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ANNEX 2: Sections taken from the document entitled “Participatory methods for ICZM implementation” produced By UNIVE under the PEGASO project¹⁵

The document “*Participatory methods for ICZM implementation*” produced By UNIVE under the PEGASO project, provides a common basis to support teams in the development of participatory moments for each phase of the Integrated Coastal Zone Management offering guidelines and a selection of available participatory methods.

The following table is presented in section 3 of the document. All participatory methods (including IMAGINE) are described in the annexes of the document.

¹⁵ http://www.pegasoproject.eu/images/WP4_Factsheets/WP4%20FactSheets_T4.4%20Participation_methods_for_ICZM_implementation.pdf

For more details, also read the page dedicated to participation methods in the PEGASO Wiki Portal:

http://www.pegasoproject.eu/wiki/PEGASO_participation_methods

3.1 Participatory methods and approaches related to ICZM phases

Participatory method	Objective	Required Skill level of the facilitators (1 to 5 (1 beginners, 5 expert))	ICZM Phase considered				
			1 Establishment	2 Setting the Vision	3 Analysis & Futures	4 Designing the Future	5 Realising the Future
1 Backcasting	Analysis of alternative future options.	4			✓		
2 Brainstorming	To develop creative solutions to problems.	1		✓			
3 Citizens monitoring	To track and analyse progress towards jointly agreed results and deciding on corrective action	3					✓
4 European Awareness Scenario Workshop (EASW)	To develop future strategies.	4		✓			
5 Expert panel	to hear a variety of informed ('expert') viewpoints	2	✓				
6 Field trips	To let people to 'see for themselves' the place where a development is proposed to be placed.	1	✓				✓
7 Focus Group	To discover the key issues of concern for selected groups.	3	✓			✓	
8 Future Search Conference	To develop a series of options for the future, and agree on a plan of action.	4		✓		✓	
9 Key stakeholder interviews	To elicit detailed information and opinions on an issue.	3		✓			
10 Logical Framework Matrix (Logframe)	To set out the logic of an ICZM intervention and to describe the important assumptions and risks that underlie this logic	4				✓	
11 Mediation and Negotiation principles	To deal with conflict in a creative and positive way, and to find a solution.	5	✓			✓	✓
12 Open Space Technology	To let discuss stakeholders about topics according to their interest in a prevailing climate characterised by uncertainty, ambiguity and a low level of trust.	3	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
13 Scenario testing	To test alternative (hypothetical) futures so as to make better choices today.	4			✓		
14 Snowball sampling	To identify people with particular knowledge, skills or characteristics that are needed as part of a committee and/or consultative process.	2	✓				
15 Imagine workshop 1	to study and understand the context, with a holistic vision of the coastal areas: drivers, pressures, and state	4	✓				
16 Imagine workshop 2	To select indicators.	5		✓			
17 Imagine workshop 3 and 4	To model and explore the trends and the alternatives regarding the future of the area (scenario building).	5			✓		
18 Imagine workshop 5	To define an action or a monitoring plan, and publishing the outputs	3				✓	

Table 2: Participatory methods and ICZM phases



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ANNEX 3: *Stakeholder Participation: A Synthesis of Current Literature*¹⁶. Report prepared by the National Marine Protected Areas Center in cooperation with the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Coastal Services Center. Brianne Leigh Kessler, Primary Investigator. September 2004.

Read in particular pp 12-13.

There are a number of participatory mechanisms that have been recommended in the literature as useful when obtaining information from, or providing information to, stakeholder groups. For instance, public opinion surveys, community forums, facilitated workshops and meetings, visioning, focus groups, and charettes have all been recommended for obtaining information from stakeholders. It is proposed in the same document, to use participatory mechanisms with problem-solving capabilities in combination with mechanisms that involve a broad range of stakeholders to ensure that communities are broadly canvassed. This is not to suggest that traditional mechanisms, such as public hearings, be abandoned, but rather that they be supplemented with workshops, committees, Web sites, focus groups, charettes, surveys, and other participatory techniques.

¹⁶ http://www.mpa.gov/pdf/publications/Stakeholder_Synthesis.pdf

This document prepared by the Coastal Services Center, an office within the federal government's National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), provides guidance on identifying coastal management stakeholders, describes some of the most commonly used techniques for stakeholder participation, and discusses evaluation of stakeholder participation. In Table 4 below you can find the common stakeholder participation techniques and in the appendix A. their guides.

Table 4: Common Stakeholder Participation Techniques

Method	Description
Advisory group/ task force	Small group of people representing various interests that is set up to advise an agency on programs or actions. Advisory groups can be multi-year or indefinite arrangements, while task forces usually complete a single task and then disband.
Charrette	Intense, multi-day effort to design something or solve a problem. There are multiple versions of the charrette, most of which include a design team that attempts to translate public input into a form that could be implemented, for example, a new policy, zoning regulations, or building design.
Field trip	Trip to specific location organized so that participants can match their mental images to real, on-the-ground conditions. Participants may be asked to express their reactions verbally or in writing.
Focus group	Small discussion group led by a facilitator who draws out in-depth stakeholder input on specific questions. Normally, several focus groups are held, and participants can be chosen randomly or to approximate a subset of the community.
Hotline	Widely advertised telephone number that directs callers to someone in an agency who can answer caller questions and collect input.
Internet	Dialogue between agencies and stakeholders using Internet technology such as chatrooms, on-line bulletin boards, e-mail, and Web conferencing.
Interview	Face-to-face or telephone interaction with stakeholders conducted by the agency or by a third-party representative.
Large group/small group meeting	After an opening presentation, the group is broken into smaller groups to discuss an issue or complete a specific task. Summaries of small group discussions and an open comment period may follow.
Open house	Event in which the public is invited to drop in at any time during an announced period. Event includes staffed booths or stations on specific topics and may precede a public meeting.
Poll or survey	Written or oral lists of questions to solicit community impressions about issues at a specific moment in time. Polls and surveys can be administered in person, or via the telephone or Internet.
Public hearing	Formal, single meeting where stakeholders present official statements and positions, and those ideas are recorded into a formal record for delivery to the agency.
Public meeting	A large public comment meeting where the participants stay together throughout the meeting and make comments to the entire audience. Public meetings are less formal than a public hearing. Public meeting may also be used as a blanket term to describe many of the meetings described in this table.
Referendum	A direct vote by the whole electorate on its support of specific proposals or courses of action. Referendums should be preceded by public participation so that the options before voters are credible.
Retreat	A concentrated yet informal meeting away from the typical work setting that emphasizes social interaction as well as discussion of issues.
Town meeting	A less formal public hearing where all stakeholders have the opportunity to speak and may vote on an issue.
Workshop	Small stakeholder gathering, typically fewer than 25 people, designed to complete a specific assignment in a short time period.

(Adapted from Creighton 2005)

¹⁷ http://www.csc.noaa.gov/digitalcoast/_/pdf/stakeholder.pdf

Appendix A: Guide to Common Stakeholder Participation Techniques

Method	Advantages	Limitations
Advisory group/ task force	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides for interaction between agency and full spectrum of community opinion • Creates forum for interaction between groups themselves • Good forum for creating consensus • Group members become knowledgeable and make informed recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selections for group members must be credible to public • Group activity must be linked to real decisions • Requires much staff time and support • Public doesn't automatically accept group recommendations as representative of larger public • Disputes over group's mandate can develop
Charrette	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solves problem or creates product within specific time frame • Public typically has visual alternatives on which to provide input • Repetitive exercises during course of charrette help to build consensus 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires a great deal of planning • Requires a highly skilled and unbiased design team • Time commitment calls for highly motivated and interested participants
Field trip	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often allows for personal interaction and team-building • Helps participants gain better understanding of resources and issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Size of participant group is typically limited • May be difficult to systematically collect participant input
Focus group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helpful in assessing emotional and other qualitative factors • Cheaper and yields greater depth data than surveys 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No claims can be made about statistical accuracy • Public may have false perceptions about how focus group data are used • Cannot substitute for more visible forms of participation
Hotline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensures that callers reach a knowledgeable person and get good information • Can be used for coordination purposes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effectiveness depends on person answering phone • Staff must be thoroughly prepared to provide information quickly
Internet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows widespread access to resources on issues • Allows for participation from geographically broad audience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not everyone has access to the Internet • Training may be required to use some technologies • Technology may be unreliable • Technology is still developing
Interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can provide more in-depth information than any other method • People provide more information in private than they will in public 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time-consuming • The number of interviews possible is usually limited by time • Skilled interviewers are required • Interview responses are not visible to the rest of the public
Large group/ small group meeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides great interaction despite large group size • Participants can solve problems or complete tasks • Produces greater enthusiasm than other large meetings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group may resist breaking into smaller groups • Logistics of smaller break-out groups can be cumbersome • Organized groups may dominate some small groups

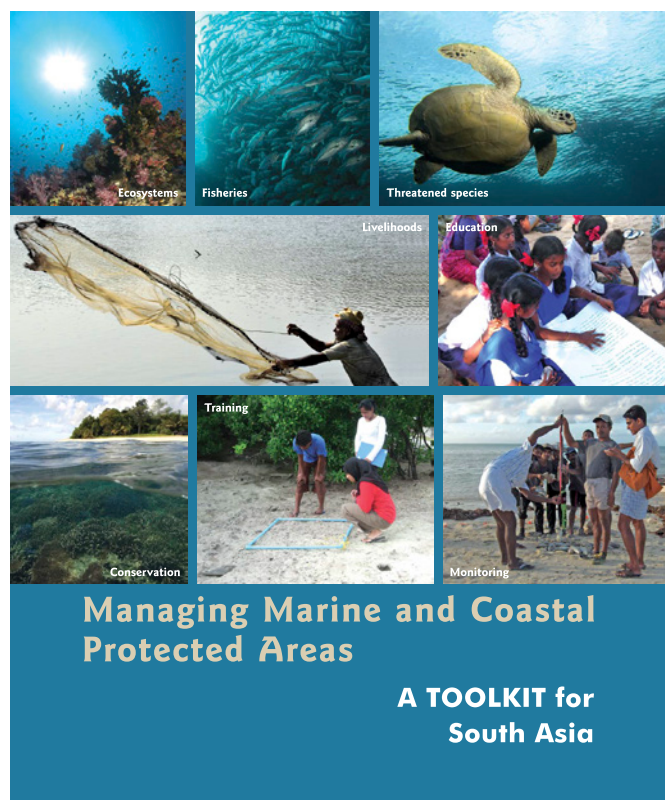
Method	Advantages	Limitations
Open house	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows one-on-one interaction between stakeholders and agency • Can be designed so that participants can provide written comments • Event design is highly flexible and can be made formal or informal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants may not hear the views and opinions of others • May be difficult to systematically collect participant input • Does not give stakeholder groups an audience to address
Poll or survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps to assess opinions of broader public • Results can be described and presented quantitatively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requires trained staff to conduct process • Faulty methods can yield misleading results • Only provides results for a particular moment in time—results may change in near future • Potentially high costs
Public hearing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All participants can have their comments recorded verbatim • Highly transparent; all participants can hear what others say 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May result in speeches rather than discussion of issues • Does not provide for interaction • Can be manipulated or controlled by organized groups
Public meeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be less formal than a public hearing • Participants can have their comments recorded (usually not verbatim) • Typically more interactive than public hearing • Highly transparent; all participants can hear what others say 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May result in speeches rather than discussion of issues • May contribute to polarization of parties • Can be manipulated or controlled by organized groups
Referendum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Widely accepted as legitimate expression of public sentiment • Allows for inclusion of all stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voters may be swayed by emotional appeals • May not be legally binding in some communities until changes in law are made
Retreat	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Useful in building relationships between individuals • Could help break impasse • Effective for consensus-building 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Potentially expensive • Participants must have significant time to commit • Public may criticize use of taxpayer funds for a retreat
Town meeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater interaction and less formality than public hearing • Provides for much interaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May contribute to exaggerated or fixed positions • May not provide venue for problem solving
Workshop	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective for problem solving or completing a task • Highly interactive • Useful for producing agreement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limits number of participants that can be involved • Those with fixed positions may resent workshop process

(Adapted from Creighton 2005)

CREIGHTON, JAMES L. 2005. *The Public Participation Handbook: Making Better Decisions through Citizen Involvement*. Jossey-Bass. San Francisco, CA.

ANNEX 5: Sheet B1 Participatory Techniques. N, CORDIO and ICRAN (2008). *Managing Marine and Coastal Protected Areas: A Toolkit for South Asia*¹⁸. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Bangkok, Thailand; CORDIO, Kalmar, Sweden; and ICRAN, Cambridge, UK. And Sheet B1 Participatory Techniques. IUCN 2004. *Managing Marine Protected Areas: A Toolkit for the Western Indian Ocean*¹⁹. IUCN Eastern African Regional Programme, Nairobi, Kenya, xii + 172pp.

Within both documents of IUCN “*Managing Marine and Coastal Protected Areas: A Toolkit for South Asia*” and “*Managing Marine Protected Areas: A Toolkit for the Western Indian Ocean*”, read Sheets 1.



18 http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/mpa_toolkit_for_south_asia.pdf

19 http://wiomsa.org/mpatoolkit/Themesheets/Title_imprint.pdf

ANNEX 6: *Guidelines on stakeholder engagement in preparation of integrated management plans for protected areas*. Document prepared by Milena Marega and Nina Urataric in the framework of the NATREG project. April 2011.²⁰

Guidelines on Stakeholder Engagement in Preparation of Integrated Management Plans for Protected Areas is one out of five documents of the JOINT STRATEGY FOR INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT OF PROTECTED AREAS (JSIMPA) which aims to help NATREG project partners in planning the management of protected areas. This document is based on the conviction that management planning is most successful when key stakeholders and particularly local inhabitants are informed and consulted during the planning process, so that they gain a sense of ownership and commitment for the implementation of management actions. The main purpose of this document is to provide strategic guidelines and practical tools for the engagement of stakeholders in the management planning process. Below, some of the tools are listed.

Tools for consultation

Consultations with stakeholders are especially relevant for discussions about the existing problems, visioning, searching for alternative solutions and scenarios, setting special objectives, and value judgments. Depending on the objectives we want to achieve, stakeholders' involvement may be undertaken as a large or small part of the activities of any particular stage. Tools for solicited feedback (when stakeholders are asked for their views) could be:

- questioning, listening and reporting,
- comment periods and actions,
- focus groups,
- surveys,
- public opinion pools,
- inclusion of individual stakeholders in consultative bodies,
- workshops, seminars, conferences,
- public hearings,
- non-binding referenda,
- open hours,
- citizens' panels,
- advisory committees, etc.

Tools for active participation in decision-making

Active participation tools enable stakeholders to exercise significant influence on decision making, but the final decision still remains with the government. These tools are relevant for pointing out and deliberating about specific questions and aspects regarding an issue and making recommendations.

- consensus conferences,
- citizens' juries,
- working groups,
- participatory visioning and scenario-development,
- stakeholders' forums,
- dialogue processes.

20 http://www.natreg.eu/uploads/Guidelines_stakeholder%20engagement_final.pdf

Preliminary data collection was realized within the framework of the NEREUS project, funded by MAVA Foundation, in collaboration with the Mediterranean wetlands initiative (MedWET)



MedPartnership

The Strategic Partnership for the Mediterranean Sea

MedMPAnet Project

Regional Project for the Development of a Mediterranean Marine and Coastal Protected Areas (MPAs) Network through the boosting of MPA Creation and Management (<http://medmpanet.rac-spa.org/>)

The MedMPAnet Project is implemented in the framework of the UNEP/MAP-GEF MedPartnership, with the financial support of EC, AECID and FFEM.

