TRAINING MANUAL

Mobilizing Communities

Community Based Disaster Preparedness

CBDP

Danish Red Cross

EUROPEAN COMMISSION

Humanitarian Aid

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Session 1:

Introduction to Community Organizing

In previous sessions you learned that one of the most critical activities that must be continuously undertaken in order to effectively implement a community-based disaster preparedness program is community organizing. As an RCV in an area implementing a CBDP program you are expected to perform mobilizing and organizing functions.

What is Community Organizing?

Community organizing refers to the process of mobilizing people and assisting them to identify problems and concerns that affect them, prioritize these, develop the confidence and will to take action on resolving these problems and in so doing extend and develop cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community.

In the context of our CBDP program, our objective is to initiate and sustain a process of mobilizing community residents and stakeholders in order to develop their capacity and readiness to respond and take action on reducing the adverse impacts of disasters, especially to the most vulnerable, in the community.

1. Principles of Community Organizing:

1. Trust in the people and their capacity to change and develop. People should be given the chance to self-realization and change towards their own empowerment and development
2. Start where the people are, in terms of needs, resources and capabilities. In initiating any interventions, changes and innovations should start from simple to complex, micro to macro, and short-term to long-term. People should be given a sense of achievement to minimize frustration and discouragement.
3. Community organizing should be based on the interest of the vulnerable sector. It should be responsive to the needs of the people.
4. Community organizing should result in the people working towards a self-reliant community. It should be able to transform community conditions in order for people's capabilities are developed and enhanced to shape their own development.
5. Consensus must be practiced. In working with the people, the majority rules but the minority should be respected.
6. Community organizing should be gender sensitive. It means recognizing the contribution and capabilities of women in the organizing efforts. It also means being sensitive to their needs. Similarly community organizing should recognize the potential contribution, capabilities and needs of different ethnic & religious groups as well as children and the elderly.
7. Community organizing is a means and not an end. Community organizing is one part of the overall process of development.

3. Process of Community Organizing:

There are many ways of mobilizing and organizing communities. Your choice of mobilization and organizing activities will have to be based on the specific situation in the community. Hence, the following steps in community organizing need not always follow the order presented here but, generally, the organizing process is initiated by taking the following steps:

1. Rapport building.
Establish contact persons and develop rapport with the local residents.

2. Community situational analysis.
Data on the situation of the community should be gathered using PRA tools. The information gathered by the community themselves is then analyzed to give everyone a view of community conditions.

3. Identification of vulnerable groups
Identify the most vulnerable group within the community by using the criteria set forth by the people themselves.

4. Identification of natural leaders
Identify "natural leaders" or residents that are morally respected by the community. They are very important in mobilizing community participation

5. Feed back / validation of information gathered.
Validate the result of the analysis of the data and information gathered by presenting it to the community for verification

6. Analysis of problems / issues.
Facilitate meetings and discussion among community members in order to identify and analyze the critical issues and problems within the community

7. Planning for solution
Plan out solutions together with the community, facilitate do not impose.

8. Organization of the core group.
Organize or facilitate the formation of small groups of leaders and volunteers in the community to help facilitate the mobilization of the community.

4. Effective Social Mobilization and Organizing Strategies

It is not easy to mobilize people to participate in CBDP activities. People have many important things to do – livelihood activities, go to work, bring kids to school, attend to household chores, wash clothes, go to market, political opinion/trend etc. Also they may have already attended numerous meetings and workshops in the past and, depending on their experience, may be wary of attending still another.

Since the CBDP program was first implemented in 1998, however, a number of RCVS have been able to come up with effective strategies that have helped ensure community participation and ownership of the program. A collection of these practical tips and strategies include the following:

1. Find every opportunity to improve on your skills. In the case of one newly recruited RCV. The village chief who also happened to be an RCV always gave the new RCV a few minutes after each community meeting to talk in front of everyone. This quickly gave him confidence in speaking in public.

2. In another village, information and other public awareness messages were provide after each and every village meeting, with the permission of the village chief, of course.

3. When trying to convince people, or groups of people, to participate in CBDP group activities, focus on the importance of the disaster mitigation and preparedness activities and the benefits that they and the community will see from working to reduce disaster risk. Clearly define and communicate these benefits.

4. In another village, one RCV who was also a teacher initiated an effective health and hygienic practices information dissemination by beginning with his own pupils in the school.

5. When problems arose over the maintenance and upkeep of water well in one village, the RCV approached the monk and teachers in the village for assistance in educating and convincing people in sharing the responsibility for its upkeep. The monks and teachers were well respected in the community, hence, agreement was soon reached.

6. Timing of the CBDP activities need to take into consideration the work cycle of members of the community. Workshops, for example, could be held in the afternoons when most of the household chores would already have been done.

7. To mobilize people involvement we need to ensure they are aware and understand of our project. Start to build trust, confident by very much focusing on the interventions to the most vulnerable people (in fact community people have their own political opinion). So that step by step most people will start to attend all meetings conducted under the project.

8. Initiate more field based activities for the RCVs and DOs to be undertaken in the community. So that community day to day be aware of the RCVs, and DO as well as the project. Similarly, the RCVs will feel more confident in their performance.

5. Sustaining CBDP initiatives

After the implementation of the community's first project, you will realize that community members and stakeholders begin to trust each other more and the possibilities for collaboration and cooperation between community members and stakeholders would have increased tremendously. This is especially true when the initial project was implemented successfully.

At this stage it becomes very important to continue activities with the other identified and prioritized community disaster reduction projects. The following are suggestions on how to sustain and keep the momentum of a CBDP program continue:

1. Quantify and document the benefits of your community mitigation program over specific time periods. For example, "This year, thanks to efforts of all community members, we were able to raise the elevation of the safe area and saved the livestock of _____ families".
2. Be ready to articulate small successes of the program to the entire community. Success leads to increased awareness and creates a bandwagon effect. Use local media, neighborhood gatherings, and meetings to create and maintain interest. Be generous in recognizing and praising the efforts of community volunteers and leaders. Favorable publicity can bolster their motivation to continue with the process.
3. Help community residents and organizations understand what role they might play in creating a community disaster preparedness plan. Individuals appear to be more motivated and enthusiastic when the focus is on empowering them to take charge of their own safety and reduce their disaster risk.
4. Identify and recruit other program "champions" or advocates in the community for the purpose of further mobilizing community residents and organizations in working together to create disaster-resistant communities. There may be people in the community whose enthusiasm is contagious, and who are able to rally excitement – both within and among groups.
5. Find simple ways to educate people about disaster preparedness and mitigation, and develop a common understanding of vision and goals. A shared vision helps individuals and groups overcome potential and actual differences.
6. Involve all community organizations and as many community residents in the CBDP program right from the very beginning, whenever possible, so that they will feel that they have already invested their time in the program and feel a sense of ownership in it.
7. Take advantage of partnerships that naturally arise after a disaster. Nurture and build momentum after the urgency of the recovery effort is past.
8. Work collaboratively and inclusively. Share ideas. Give everyone a chance to contribute and "buy in" to the overall goal. Invite everyone appropriate to the meetings and discussions.
9. Be persistent, and keep a positive, "can-do" attitude. Brainstorm ways to overcome obstacles. If a project doesn't work out the way it was initially envisioned, find another way to make it work or to capture value from the work that was done.
10. Adopt project ideas from other groups, agencies, and communities; most of them are glad to share what they have learned and what has worked for them. Keep a good idea going by replicating projects in different parts of the community and from group to group.
11. Recruit intermediary groups and/or individuals to network with potential partners reluctant to interface with official authorities.
12. An effective participatory or community-based monitoring and evaluation system and annual plan updating can help keep the project on the front community topics for discussion.
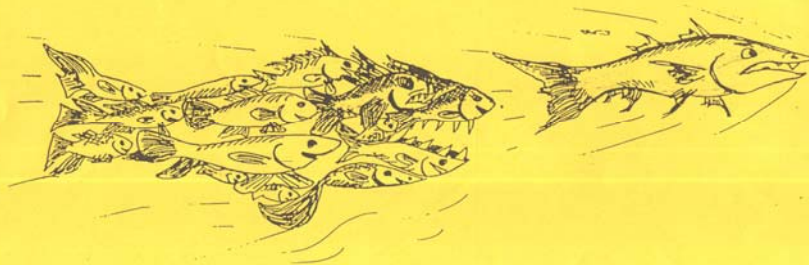
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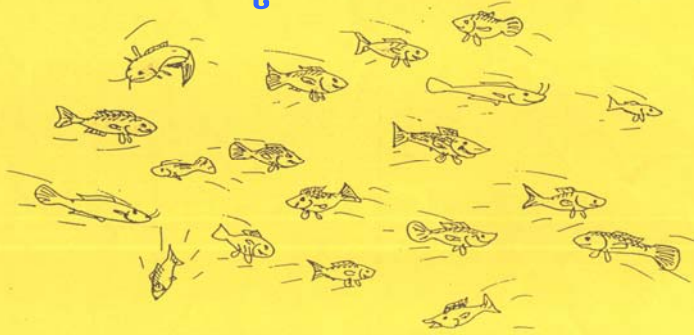
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Session 2:

Group Facilitation

In the course of mobilizing community stakeholders for the CBDP program you will be playing a number of important roles or functions. One of the most critical functions you will have is that of a facilitator.

I. The RCV as Facilitator

A facilitator helps members of a group decide on what they want to accomplish in a meeting and helps them carry it out. As a facilitator you are expected to ensure that community group discussions and meetings go on smoothly and that the objectives and agenda set for discussions and meetings are achieved. The facilitator fills a role of a chairperson but never directs the group without its consent.

Facilitation skills are most thoroughly learned thru observation and experience. You will learn jus as much from mistakes and bad meetings as from the good ones. All these experiences will be useful to you as you learn to improve your skills in facilitation.

When facilitating a group discussion or meeting, your aim is to make the flow of ideas smoother. As a facilitator, you aim to make the process of learning easier. You also want to make sure that ideas come from everyone and not just from one person or group or from us alone.

We must also remember that though we have a set agenda, the people participating also have their own reasons for attending. Sometimes, these two will contradict, sometimes they compliment. But conflicting or not we should not simply dismiss the other, we have to acknowledge it before everyone and talk about the dissenting ideas or opinions as a community.

II. How to be a good facilitator?

1. Be an active listener
Good facilitator shows interest in what people have to say. They listen closely enough to summaries or paraphrase what is said, to pick up on the direction of discussions and to detect underlying attitudes or judgments. Active listening is key to all facilitation skills.

2. Be observant
Good facilitator observe group dynamic, including who is speaking and who is not, and how various groups of people interact, e.g women or men and different ethnic groups. They use observation to understand how and when different methods must be used to ensure that everyone has the opportunity to participate.

3. Ask questions
Good facilitators used questions to start, focus and deepen the learning of the e participants. A simple "why?" is often enough to move a discussion to a deeper level Who? What? and how? are all good questions for bringing out the details.

4. Be flexible

Good facilitators respond to the need of the participants and are willing adapt or change methods, tools and questions in order to do so.

5. Be organized

Good facilitators are well organized. All necessary material and logistics are prepared so that people do not loss time and become frustrated. The facilitator keeps the overall RA objectives in mind throughout the entire process.

6. Be knowledgeable but clear

Good facilitators are knowledgeable about development, but they are also able to communicate in simple statements and to ask focused questions. Good facilitator speaks in plain language and do not uses fancy words or jargon.

III. Pointers for Good Facilitation

In terms of acquiring facilitation skills, experience will be your best teacher, however, here are some pointers to help you achieve this:

♦ Create an atmosphere conducive to sharing by being open and sincere. Try to make everyone feel welcome and important.
♦ Make sure that everyone is aware of why the meeting or discussion is being held and that the discussion does not get away from the topic or agenda to be discussed.
♦ Ensure that all ideas and opinions of participants to the discussions are given a chance to be heard but also be ready to say "stop" when the discussion gets confrontational or when someone is starting to dominate the discussion too much.
♦ One of the most important things you should learn and master is how to summarize.
♦ Acknowledge the contributions of participants specially those that contribute significantly to the discussion. This will encourage greater participation from the person you acknowledged and from the others who are present to participate.
♦ Be aware of time limitations and mange the discussion accordingly.
♦ Practice, practice and more practice. The skill of facilitation takes time to acquire but you will never get it if you don't practice.

IV. Basic Steps in Facilitating a Meeting

Some community organizers have found the use of the following facilitation steps useful in conducting a meeting:

1. Introductory activity can be started while waiting for latecomers
2. Get along agreement on who should facilitate and for how long
3. Agenda review and approval. Show the group the agenda and give an idea of what is to be covered and how. You may need to explain why each item has been included and how it fits the group's needs. Go through the whole agenda before asking for any comments.
4. Make sure someone is taking notes. Select a timekeeper, if appropriate, and clarify expectations about sticking to the time allotted for the meeting.

5. Use short agenda items, fun items, announcements and breaks throughout the meeting to provide rest and relief from more emotionally taxing items.
6. Go through each item of the agenda, one by one. After discussing each item on the agenda, it is sometimes useful to make those present in the meeting to applaud, congratulate them or dramatically cross the item off the agenda chart to signify a successful agreement or discussion.
7. Before the end of the meeting select a convener, facilitator or planner, subject matter, time and place of the next meeting. This should be done before the participants start to leave
8. Evaluate the meeting. Start with the good and positive aspects, then things that could have been improved. Insist on getting concrete suggestions for improving the negative aspects. Try not to end on a negative note. Do not get caught up in further discussion of the agenda items.
9. Try to end the meeting with a feeling of togetherness – a song, shaking hands, standing in a circle and saying things we like about each other – anything that affirms group solidarity.
10. End the meeting on time. If the agenda is taking longer to discuss, renegotiate it. Get group agreement whether time can be extended or items will be held for discussion during the next meeting.

Conflict resolution

I. Basic Steps in Conflict Resolution

1. Conflict Analysis

The process of conflict resolution should allow conflicting parties to define the cause and the dynamics of the relationship before devising solutions. This can help the parties involved to clarify the conflict together and to avoid becoming entrenched in opposing positions. This discussion will not only lead people to a better understanding of why they are acting or feeling the way they do about the issue, but will enable them to present a clear picture of their interests and needs.

Negotiations often focus on positions (how much the parties want), rather than on interests (the underlying reasons why they want it). By focusing on their own interests, people will be better able to develop creative and collaborative options for resolution.

Relevant questions to ask in conflict analysis are the following:

a) Parties
- Who are the main parties involved?
- Who are the secondary parties?
- Are the parties well defined?
- Do the parties want to work towards a solution?
- Are the parties capable of working with each other?

b) Substance of the problem
- How do you characterize the conflict?
- Different interests? Different values?
- Perceived differences that do not really exist?
- Most constructive way to define the problem? Central issues?
- Secondary issues?
- Are the issues negotiable?
- Key interest of each party? Interests the parties have in common?
- Positions that have been taken? Options for resolution?

2. Identification of the type of conflict

It is important to identify the type of conflict since different types of conflict require different kinds of solutions.

a. *Conflict about limited resources*,   whether material, social or psychological. This is an issue of "who gets what". There may be only so much land, money, time, affection, respect or authority to be shared. Who gets it?

b. *Conflict about values*. These are convicts about what is right or best and what is Wrong. They involve beliefs, attitudes, and Values. These include issues of political Stand, strategies and tactics, culture, religion and ideologies.

c. *Conflicts about identity.* Although connected to values, conflicts about identity are more fundamental. These are conflicts between the sexes, between ethnic groups, or between classes.

d. *In reality, it is not easy to distinguish types of conflicts.* Ethnic or religious conflicts can be rooted in unequal access and control over resources.

3. Determining the appropriate conflict resolution procedures

The following questions are relevant to determine appropriate conflict resolution procedures:

♦ Does a consensus process serve the parties' interests?
♦ What constraints might affect the nature of a conflict resolution process activities, available resources, timing)
♦ What other obstacles must be overcome?
♦ Are the parties experienced in using dispute resolution procedures?
♦ What are chances for success?

4. Options for conflict resolution procedures

♦ Communities and stakeholders might have different interests, but not necessarily involved in a conflict; they can meet and solve problems through discussion, consultation and decision-making.
♦ Conflicts between parties with a more or less equal power position, and with high chances for success, can be solved through empathy development and simple negotiation towards a win-win situation.
♦ Conflicts, the causes of which are deeply rooted in the economic political sphere (root causes of vulnerabilities) are difficult to resolve through a negotiation process between parties. Advocacy, campaigning, networking and lobbying will be more appropriate to influence policies and public opinion. There are many experiences of stretching the bounds of the legal system or acceptable methods of to pressure the resolution of conflict including those outside of the legal framework ("underground" tactics).

5. Empathy Development

Part of building a collaborative approach to conflict resolution is to develop empathy for an understanding of another's situation. It is also important to know how others perceive your interests, needs, threats, demands and offers.

II. Consensus Decision Making:

1. Steps to Reaching Consensus

Many small groups find it effective to work towards consensus. The consensus process allows the group to come to one decision with which everyone agrees. Following are some tips for reaching consensus and a quick tool to measure where your group stands.

Purpose: To guide a team through the process of reaching consensus
When to Use: Whenever making a consensus decision
Whom to Involve: All team members

First, review the meaning of consensus and the process of achieving consensus. Then agree on a targeted time period to reach consensus.

1. Identify Areas of Agreement

2. Clearly State Differences

- State positions and perspectives as neutrally as possible.
- Do not associate positions with people. The differences are between alternative valid solutions or ideas, not between people.
- Summarize concerns and list them.

3. Fully Explore Differences

- Explore each perspective and clarify.
- Involve everyone in the discussion - avoid a one-on-one debate.
- Look for the "third way." Make suggestions or modifications, or create a new solution.

4. Reach Closure

5. Articulate the Decision

- Ask people if they feel they have had the opportunity to fully express their opinions.
- Obtain a sense of the group. (Possible approaches include "go rounds" and "straw polls," or the Consensus Indicator tool. When using the Consensus Indicator, if people respond with two or less, then repeat steps one through three until you can take another poll.)
- At this point, poll each person, asking, "Do you agree with and will you support this decision?"

2. Tips for Consensus Building

Do's

- Try to get underlying assumptions regarding the situation out into the open where they can be discussed.
- Listen and pay attention to what others have to say. This is the most distinguishing characteristic of successful teams.
- Encourage others, particularly the quieter ones, to offer their ideas. Remember, the team needs all the information it can get.

- Take the time needed to reach the point where everyone can agree to support the group's decision.

<u>Don'ts</u>

- Do not vote. Voting will split the team into "winners and losers" and encourage "either-or" thinking when there may be other ways. Voting will foster argument rather than rational discussion and consequently harm the team process.
- Do not make agreements too quickly or compromise too early in the process. Easy agreements are often based on erroneous assumptions that need to be challenged.
- Do not compete internally; either the team wins or no one wins.

Session 4:
Resource Mobilization

I. What is Resource Mobilization?

In the process of the community's journey towards becoming disaster resilient, resources will be needed so that the activities and projects listed in its disaster risk reduction plan (i.e., community action plan) can be pursued. Hence, there will be a need

to initiate a process of gathering these required resources. This process is called resource mobilization.

Resource mobilization is the term used to describe the capacity of the individual or community to identify and utilize existing and potential resources in a cost-effective manner to produce greater benefits and impacts to themselves and the community. Sometimes the term fundraising is used instead of resource mobilization especially when the objective is to raise money. But resource mobilization is not just about raising money, it is about obtaining the various resources (e.g., materials, equipment, labor, technical expertise, etc…) at the right time and the right place so that the community's vision and objectives are achieved.

II. Key Activities in Resource Mobilization

1. Resource Mobilization Committee

Fundraising is a very demanding and challenging task that requires time and hard work so it is recommended that a resource mobilization committee or team be selected or community residents select people who will lead the resource mobilization efforts.

Since the committee's activities will involve funds and valuable resources, it must be chaired or headed by a person who is very well respected and known to be trustworthy and honest.

Members of this committee or team must be good communicators because they will have to converse and interact with potential local and external donors. Writing skills will also be very helpful because some solicitations will have to be written including some project proposals if donors will require.

Members must be able to accept the rejection of some requests. Rejection is a part of fundraising and is inevitable and must be treated as a learning experience. Because of this members of the committee or team must also be highly motivated.

2. Determine Resource Mobilization Objectives

Before trying to approach any potential donor, the purpose or justification for which resources or funding is solicited should be very clear. Answering and deliberating upon the following questions may help the resource mobilization committee accomplish this.

♦ What are you asking for?
♦ What projects and activities are you asking funding for?
♦ Why these projects are chosen? Why is this so important?
♦ Who does it benefit? What will it result to?
♦ Who/what would it affect if it was not addressed?
♦ What evidence is there that the need exists?
♦ What is the solution you are proposing?
♦ What evidence is there that this solution works?
♦ What measures will be taken for financial accountability of funds received?

You will need to know **how much** you need to raise. Describe the project and all the different expenses in detail. Each project needs costing as exactly as possible. Be sure to include all incidental or indirect costs like travel, supplies, postage, etc…). Answering these questions is important because it also gives you concrete ideas as to **who** these projects might appeal to.

3. Identifying Sources of Funding

Mobilizing and soliciting resources from outside the community should be only undertaken after comprehensive efforts are made to generate and mobilize resources within the community. While some communities are better endowed with natural or industrial resources than others, they all have untapped assets at their disposal in one form or another.

These include the skills and time of their residents, local businesses with specific areas of expertise, communal water sources, etc… Community-mobilized resources also become significant when these can be used to leverage a larger donation (e.g., SIELA and CRC projects) that require community counterpart.

Only after you ask yourselves these questions; where can we solicit funds and resources from? And how can we, as a community, generate resources on our own? What is the whole range of constituencies (sources of income), of support for your charity and its work? Make a checklist of all possible sources. Begin with the following examples:

- ♦ Potential local or internal donors: friends, family members, co-workers, employer, neighbors, local leaders, businessmen, business establishments or companies, local organizations and clubs (at provincial, district and/or commune levels), community organizations, strangers or the general public, etc…

- ♦ Potential external (outside the community) donors: national government or government agency grants and aids, international donor agencies grants and aids, private donations and gifts, loan and credit programs of government or private financing institutions, religious congregations, charitable institutions, etc…

Which ones are likely to fund which aspects of the charity's work? Answering this involves understanding their different motivations to give. Which aspects or components of the projects will appeal to the different donors?

4. Strategize and Plan

When you have clearly defined the activities and projects that require funding (Step 2) and identified the whole range of possible people who have the capacity to donate resources (Step 3), it will be easier to match each of the activities and projects that require funding support with the most appropriate potential donors.

Each potential donor, however, will have their own specific approach and strategy of soliciting. Asking a wealthy businessman to donate resources, for example, should be approached differently than if you were asking community residents to give resources. In addition, the amount to be solicited will also vary depending on the potential donor.

There is no one best strategy or approach to a potential donor. As learned on the previous step, different donors have different agendas or priorities. This will depend on the situation and conditions at the time solicitations are made.

Almost always, resource mobilization or fundraising is taken to mean the solicitation of funds either from internal or external sources. More often than not, resource mobilization is always equated with asking for or soliciting money.

There are a number of fund raising and income generating activities and projects that can be pursued within the community. The CRC, for example holds annual balls which also serves as fundraising events. Other examples include charity raffles, and other village events, community or group-managed or operated livelihood projects, savings and capital build-up projects, etc…

5. Doing the Actual Fund Raising

Fundraising is about understanding and motivating the donor, be that donor an individual or an organization. It is about finding the donor, establishing a relationship with the donor and extending and developing it.

The fundraiser is seeking a long-term relationship, which maximizes all areas of income potential. Developing a relationship with the donor is central to the role of the fundraiser.

6. Monitor and evaluate your resource mobilization efforts

Record and document all the committees' activities and most especially the lessons learned from all the experiences. It takes time to get fundraising and resource mobilizing skills and often times it takes creative and innovative ideas to get the attention of potential donors. At the end of it all, conduct a review of all fundraising and resource mobilization efforts and plan again for the next year. The task at hand is for the long-term and there will always be need for resources.

The resource mobilization activities given above won't solve all your fundraising problems. They won't compensate for your or your community members' lack of interest or action. But if you pursue these steps and activities mentioned above, you should stand a far better chance of getting the resources you need.

Also remember that this is a long-term effort to fulfill your community's vision. It's your mission, your goals, and your resource mobilization and fundraising program. Only you can do what needs to be done. We simply hope we've made it just a little easier for you to do it.

To meet these challenges you will need to be self-motivated and you will need persistence and even more persistence.

Session 5:

Preparing Project Proposals

I. Outline for a Project Proposal

1. Identification and Description of the Problem
- Basic data on country, region, sector, community
- Definition of problem
    - Clear information on how serious it is
    - Causes of the problem
- Existing local efforts to solve the problem
- Knowledge and experience about efforts elsewhere
- Summary of why a new project is necessary

2. The Proposed Project
- Brief description of the project
- Statement of project goals and specific objectives in terms of expected results
- Why the proposed solution is appropriate
- Identification and rejection of other alternatives
- Expected project benefits (direct and indirect)

3. Plan of Action
- Description of activities
- Timetable, including reports and evaluation

4. Management and Staffing
- Organizational structure for project management
- Functions, responsibilities of different senior jobs
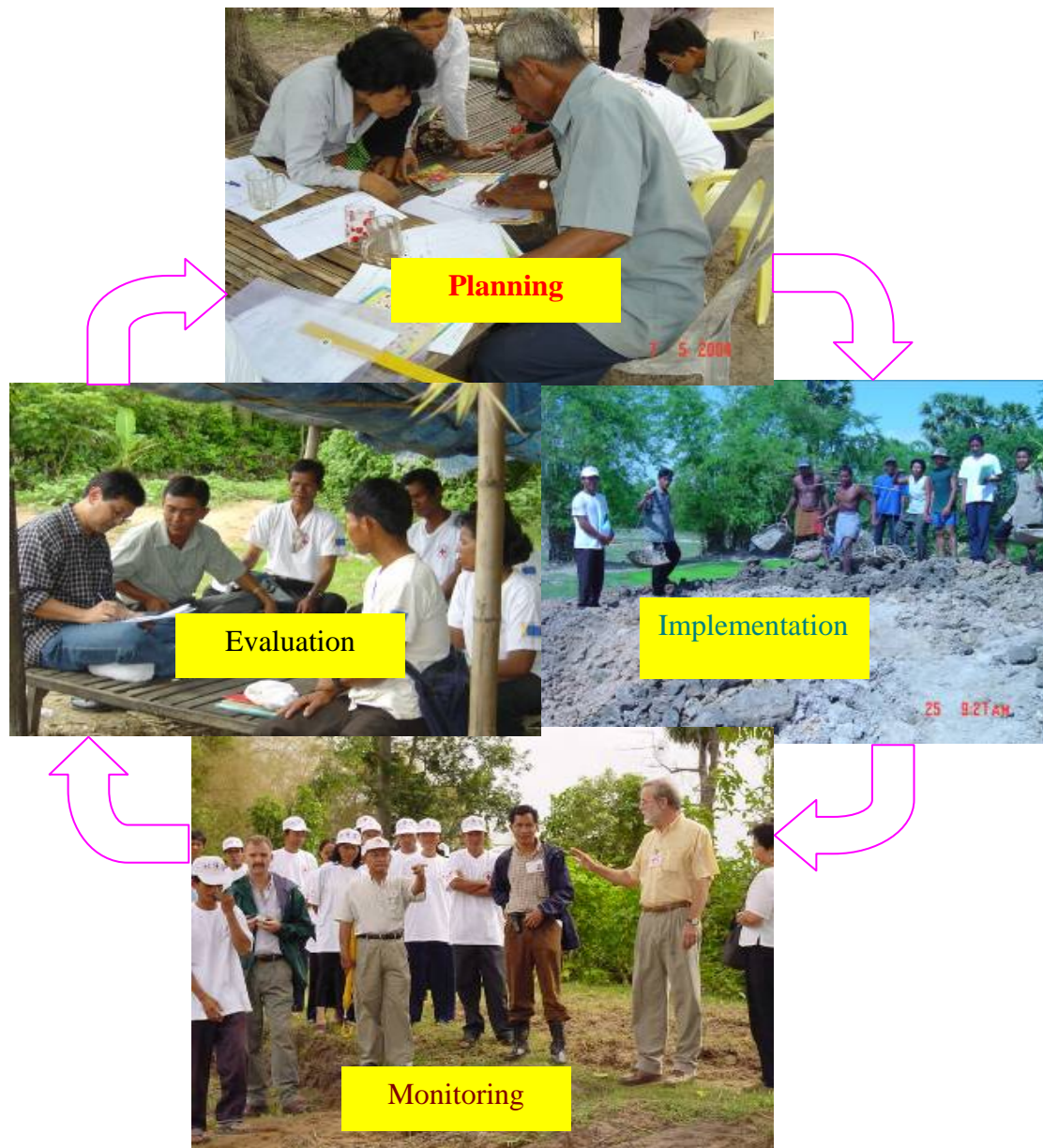- Personnel and recruitment requirements

5. Budget
- Budget summary of expenditures
- Description and costing of inputs required
- Long-term financial projections

6. Expected Funding Sources
- Proposed sources and amounts of initial funding
- Other possible sources of assistance
- Long-term financing plan for running costs

Session 6:

Project Management

I. Steps in Project Management

1. Project Planning

This is the starting point for every project. The main activity at this stage is to define the 'problem' (i.e. why am I doing this?) and to generate possible project ideas and alternatives to address it. You, as the project developer (or sponsor), are the person primarily responsible for generating these ideas, testing them, and identifying potential funding. The most important questions to clarify at this stage are the:

- What results do you want to achieve?
- How will you achieve these results?
- What assumptions are you making?

- What are the alternatives?
- How much will it cost;
- Who will pay for it?

Under the CBDP program, the community project planning is done based on information gathered from the HVCA. All CBDP stakeholders (e.g. the most vulnerable people, RCVs, RCLs, CCDMC, village chief, police, VDC, representative of other local NGOs or association, etc ....) are encouraged to attend the HVCA as well as the planning of the project before implementation.

2. Project Implementation

The project is carried-out ('implemented') according to the contract or other agreement made. The sponsor (or borrower) is responsible for the project's successful implementation. It is managed by the project team assigned by the sponsor.

Projects are usually managed as a series of separate, but interrelated tasks and activities. The tasks and activities are carried-out in a sequence and a time frame developed during the preparation of the project. All projects are subject to change and their success depends firstly on how well they have been prepared and secondly on how well changes are managed. It is necessary to think about how a project will be implemented and how monitoring will occur when you are preparing a project.

3. Project Monitoring

Why monitoring?
- To check the continuous progress of the activities planed
- To gather and analyze the data of the problems to be used to develop a better strategy or to solve the problem
- To ensure that the plan is appropriately followed
- To identify the weak and strong point of the project

How to monitor:
- Observe and interview the villagers
- Compare the information collected before and after implementation of project
- Compare the response from the difference villager or beneficiaries group
- Verify with the action plan.

There are two mains information which are relevant to monitoring:
- Internal monitoring - information shared among the project team regarding the progress, results and management of tasks carried-out;
- External reporting - information presented to the donor and stakeholders, on the implementation of the project, usually in the form of reports for each phase, or task, of the project.

The Project Manager is usually the person responsible for both the internal monitoring and the external reporting, according to the project methodology and timescale. Reporting usually covers financial, technical and institutional aspects

of the project, the use of resources, measurement of performance and outputs, and an assessment of progress towards achieving the project's objective.

4. Project Evaluation

It is important to consider how a project will be evaluated early in the development of a proposal. Evaluations are usually carried-out jointly or individually by the donor and the project proponent, with the involvement of the project team as appropriate. The donor or the project proponent may use consultants in the evaluation process if specialist advice is required. The project is generally assessed against its objectives in terms of its:
- Performance;
- Efficiency and;
- Impact.

Some other reasons for evaluation:
- To measure the progress
- To identify the strong and weak points of project implementation
- To seek for the best effort applied during the implementation
- To be better in planning for the next step
- To identify what has been achieved and find out the benefit of the project to the beneficiaries

Evaluation may take place at particular stages of the project cycle:
1. Prior to starting implementation in order to assess what it is likely to achieve;
2. During implementation e.g. mid term, or at other key points ('milestone evaluation'). This is often related to reports produced during implementation;
3. At the end of implementation (i.e. the evaluation stage);
4. Some time after the project has finished in order evaluating long-term impacts (known as ex post evaluation).

An important purpose of evaluation is providing feedback to the donor and project proponent. Evaluation sometimes leads to the identification of new project ideas.
Difference of the monitoring and evaluation:

Areas	Monitoring	Evaluation
When?	Continuously	At the particular time
What kind of information and how to get?	Information which can be gathered directly with the involved group	Specific and detail information which can be a bit difficult to find
Why	To compare the activities carrying on to the plan	To ensure whether or not the project achieve the goal and objectives
Who does this	project staff which involved partly in daily activities of the project	Internal and external skillful expert with assistant from the project staff
How to utilize the result	To improve the quality of the implementation, and revise the plan. It is also used as a basis for the evaluation	To measure or judge the impact of the project to the beneficiaries in order to revise the goal or objective or to be a basis for future decision

Similarity of monitoring and evaluation
- To learn
- To improve the quality of the project
- Gather all significance information

Livelihood Diversification

Objectives:
At the end of the session, the participants will have:
1.   Define the concept of livelihood;
2.   Describe the five types of resources that affect livelihood;
3.   Enumerated livelihood options, which can be done using available resources.

I.   <u>Definition of Livelihood</u>

Livelihood options
Livelihoods are a key area in strengthening local capacities for disaster management. It has been observed by various studies that those families, who have more potential to avoid disasters and if affected, recover quickly and easily. Those with low pay-off livelihood, however, may sustain relatively greater losses and damages and, as a result, will be further weakened to cope with future disasters. For them, recovery from the losses and damages will also be more difficult as compared to the better-off families in the same locality with the same experience of disaster.

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social) and activities required for a means of living.) A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with, and recover from stresses and shocks, and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets - both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base. (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Cited. in DFID (1999) livelihood options are the set of opportunities, choices, strategies and activities which are available to individuals and families from which they can select their means of living.

People require a range of resources to achieve positive livelihood outcomes (example: reduced vulnerability, more income, increased well-being, improved food security, more sustainable use of the natural resource base); no sin category of assets is sufficient to yield all the many and varied livelihood outcomes that people seek. Livelihood options

involve ways of combining using assets and capabilities. This is particularly true for poor people whose access to any given category of resources tends to be very limited. As a result they have to seek innovative ways of nurturing and combining their resource ensure survival.

II. Types of Resources

Building on 5 types of resources
There are five core resource (or capital) categories upon which livelihoods are built. These are **human**, **social**, **natural**, **physical**, and **financial resources**.

Resource / Asset endowments are constantly changing. It is imperative to incorporate a time dimension into any analysis of resources. A temporal analysis of trends in overall asset availability (e.g. if society fragments, the overall 'stock' of social capital might decline) will demonstrate which groups are accumulating assets, which groups are losing, and why these groups perform the way they do. Where processes of social exclusion are at work, those who are already poorly endowed with assets may well be becoming gradually, but notably, more marginalized.

Human Resources
Human capital represents the skills, knowledge and ability to command labor and good health, which enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve livelihood objectives (or outcomes). At the household level, human capital is a factor of the amount and quality of labor available. This varies according to the household size, skill levels, leadership potential and health status, etc.

Human resources are building blocks or means to achieve livelihood outcomes. However, accumulation of human resources can also be an end in itself. III-health and lack of education are regarded as core dimensions of poverty by many. Thus, overcoming these conditions may be one of the livelihood objectives.

Human capital is important and necessary to be able to use any of the other four types of resources to achieve positive livelihood outcomes.

Social Resources
People draw upon social resources in the pursuit of their livelihood objectives. Social resources are developed through:

- Networks and connections, either vertical (patron/client) or horizontal (between individuals with shared interests) that increase people's trust and ability to work together and expand their access to a wider circle institutions, such as political or civic bodies;

- Membership of more formalized groups (people's organizations, community associations, women's groups) which often entails adherence to mutually-agreed upon or commonly accepted rules, norms and sanctions; and

- Relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges that facilitate co-operation, reduce transaction costs, and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor.

All the above factors are inter-related. For example, membership in community groups and associations can extend people's access to and influence over other institution. Social resources are most intimately connected to structures and processes. The

relationship between social resources and structures, and processes is two-way. The structures and processes can be a product of the social resources. At the same time, these structures and processes influence social resources. For example, when people are already linked through commons and sanctions they may be more likely to form new organizations their interests. Strong civil society groups help shape policies and people's interests are reflected in legislation.

Social resources can help increase people's incomes and rates of saving by improving efficiency of economic relations because mutual trust and lower the costs of working together. Networks facilitate innovation, the transfer of knowledge, and the sharing of that knowledge. There is therefore a close relationship between social and human resources.

Natural Resources
Natural resources (or natural resource base) refer to the natural stocks from which resource flows and services (e.g. nutrient cycling, erosion protection) useful for livelihoods are derived. Examples of natural resources and services deriving from it include:

- Land
- Forests
- Marine/wild resources
- Water
- Air quality
- Erosion protection
- Waste assimilation
- Storm protection
- Bio-diversity (its degree and rate of change)

Natural resources and disasters/shocks are closely linked. Many of the shocks that devastate the livelihoods of the poor are also natural processes that destroy natural resources (e.g. fires that destroy forests, floods and earthquakes that destroy agricultural land).

Natural resources are very important to vulnerable/poor people who derive all or part of their livelihoods from resource-based activities (farming, fishing, gathering in forests, mineral extraction, etc). However, people's survival will be at risk without the protection and conservation of the natural resource base. For example, health will deteriorate where air quality is poor as a result of polluting industrial activities or natural disasters. People's health and well-being depend upon the continued functioning of complex ecosystems.

Physical Resources
Physical resources are the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. The following components of infrastructure are usually essential for sustainable livelihoods:

- Affordable transport;
- Secure shelter and buildings;

- Adequate water supply and sanitation;
- Clean, affordable energy; and
- Access to information (communication).

Lack of particular types of infrastructure can be a core dimension of poverty. Without adequate access to services such as water and energy, human health deteriorates and long periods are spent in non-productive activities such as the collection of water and fuel wood. The opportunity costs associated with poor infrastructure can preclude education, access to health services and income generation. For example, without transport infrastructure, farmers will have difficulty to access production inputs and to bring their agricultural produce to the market. The increased cost of production and transport means that producers operate at a comparative disadvantage in the market. Insufficient or inappropriate producer goods also constrain people's productive capacity and, therefore, the human resources at their disposal. More time and effort are spent on meeting basic needs, production and gaining access to the market.

Financial Resources

These are resources that people use to achieve livelihood objectives. There are two main sources of financial resources:

- Available Stocks: Savings are the preferred type of financial resources because they do not have liabilities attached and usually do not entail reliance on others. They can be held in several forms: cash, bank deposits or liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery. These financial resources can also be obtained through credit providing institutions.

- Excluding earned income, the most common types of inflows are remittances, pensions and/or other transfers from the state. In order to make a positive contribution to financial resources these inflows must be reliable.

Financial resources are perhaps most versatile of the five categories of assets.

- They can be converted - with varying degrees of ease - into other types of resources.

- They can be used for direct achievement of livelihood outcomes (for example, when food is purchased to reduce insecurity).

- Rightly or wrongly, they can also be transformed into political influence and can free people to have time for more active participation in organizations that formulate policy and legislation that govern access to resources.

Because financial resources are least available to the poor, the other types of resources become all the more important to them.

III. Spatial nature of resources

All the five types of resources (or assets) have a spatial or geographical specificity. These locations can be divided into following categories.

- Lowland plains (countryside, arid zones; rural areas and urban centers)
- Mountainous (or upland) regions
- Coastal Areas

Lowland plains

Usually, lowland plains have well developed physical resources such as roads, transport, telecommunications, electricity, and other infrastructure, which are necessary links with the markets. Its infrastructure is developed to channel natural resources. For example, canals, tube-wells, industry and markets absorb the crops, woods, machinery to utilize the land in an effective manner, etc. At the same time, the countryside may have exhausted much of its natural resources through over exploitation. Opportunities for development of human resources may be a lot more than the mountainous regions in terms of availability of schools, hospitals and educational and training institutions. A lot more social networks and connecting systems may be present in the countryside and people may have more chances to become members of various formal and informal relationships/institutions. Thus, they will have more opportunities to enhance their livelihood options. However, networks and other connecting systems in countryside may have authoritarian structures of relationships amongst the members because of the prevalent feudal or tribal systems. The countryside may have enough financial institutions to provide financial resources and may have markets to provide diverse sources of livelihoods.

Mountainous (upland) regions

In terms of natural resources, the mountainous regions may be very strong in having forests, fruit trees and water. However, many components of the physical resources (e.g. roads, communication systems, modern means of transport, shelter, and energy/electricity) may either be not available or are of very poor quality. Thus, the lack of these physical resources will limit the livelihood options for the residents. Such regions may be very poor in terms of financial resources because they are neither linked to markets, nor do they have modern service sectors from which they can earn money. Their social resources may be very strong, but may not have effective influence on the national political (and social structures and processes, due to their remoteness from the centers of authority. Human resources in mountainous regions may not have the opportunities to develop (e.g. learn modern skills for business and the service sector due to the absence of educational and training institutions).

Coastal Zones

The coastal zones will have natural resources related to the sea which include fisheries and various types of seafood products, minerals, oil and sea plants. They will have different types of physical infrastructure, which includes ships, boats, jetties/piers, ports, etc.

IV. Livelihood Activities

The location of resources is a strong factor in determining the nature of livelihood and activities. A brief list of (location - based) livelihood options is given for coastal communities, upland regions and lowland plain areas.

Some livelihood options for coastal communities

a. Aqua-culture

- mud-crab fattening
- mollusk culture (abalone / green mussel / oyster)
- fish culture in cages or pens
- seaweed harvesting

b. Capture fisheries
- fish Corrals
- fish traps:
  - Modified multi-purpose fish trap
  - Milkfish fry gathering
  - Prawn-fry gathering

c. Land-based activities
- salted fish drying / dried fish & other seafood
- salted and smoked fish processing
- fish sauce production
- duck raising
- salt production using plastic sheets
- boat building

d. Community based eco-tourism

Some livelihood options for mountain (upland) regions
- upland rice production (chamkar)
- resin tapping (e.g. for boat sealant)
- livestock rearing (poultry, pigs, cattle)
- small-holder cashew nut plantation (+ intercropping) and processing
- small-holder coffee plantation (+ intercropping) and processing
- small-holder rubber plantation (+ intercropping) and processing
- small-holder fruit-tree plantation (+ intercropping) and processing
- handicraft making (baskets, clothing, jewelery, wood carving & sculpture)
- commercial and ornamental bamboo farming and production
- furniture making
- wood for paper production and processing
- fuel-wood production
- community based ecotourism
- wild fruit harvesting and processing
- medicinal plants harvesting and preparation (e.g. yellow vine, ….)
- growing plants / trees for essential oil production (e.g. sandalwood, …)
- honey collection and processing
- commercial, shade tree and ornamental tree production
- gold and gem mining

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Assessment
A process of systematically collecting information, which is analysed to make a determination of a specific condition or situation.

Capacity
The capacities of people and the communities they live in are the basic building blocks of disaster preparedness and development. Capacities are the resources and skills people possess, can develop, Mobilise or have access to, which allow them to have more control over shaping their own futures. Capacities can be physical assets like the ownership of land or cash, they can be skills, like literacy, they can be social, like community organisations or national welfare systems, they can be personal, like the will to survive or belief in an ideology or religion.

Community
A group of people who live in the same geographic area, share resources, have common interests with similar cultural beliefs. The community forms part of the overall national administrative structure.

Disaster
A serious disruption of the functioning of a society causing widespread human, material or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope using only its own resources. Disasters may be classified according to speed of onset (sudden or slow) or according to their cause (natural or man induced, or perhaps a combination of both). Disasters combine the elements of hazards and risks, and vulnerability.

Slow-onset disasters
Refers to situations in which the ability of people to sustain their livelihood slowly declines to a point where survival is ultimately jeopardized. Such situations are typically brought on or precipitated by ecological, social, economic or political conditions.

Sudden-onset disasters
Sudden calamities caused by natural phenomena such as earthquakes, floods, tropical storms, volcanic eruptions. They strike with little or no warning and have an immediate adverse effect on human populations, activities, and economic systems.

Technological disasters
Situations in which large numbers of people, property, infrastructure, or economic activity are directly and adversely affected by major industrial accidents, severe pollution incidents, nuclear accidents, air crashes (in populated areas), major fires, or explosions.

Disaster mitigation
Mitigation refers to measures, which can be taken to minimize the destructive and disruptive effects of hazards and thus lessen the magnitude of a disaster. Mitigation measures can be of different kinds, ranging from structural (physical) measures, such as flood defences or safe building design, to non-structural measures, such as training, legislation and raising public awareness. Mitigation can take place at any

time: before a disaster occurs, during an emergency, during recovery or reconstruction.

Disaster preparedness
Measures that ensure the readiness and ability of a society to: (a) forecast and take precautionary measures in advance of an imminent threat (in cases where advance warnings are possible), and (b) respond to and cope with the effects of a disaster by organizing and delivering timely and effective rescue, relief and other appropriate post-disaster assistance.

Preparedness involves the development and regular testing of warning systems (linked to forecasting systems) and plans for evacuation or other measures to be taken during a disaster alert period to minimize potential loss of life and physical damage; the education and training of officials and the population at risk; the establishment of policies, standards, organizational arrangements and operational plans to be applied following a disaster impact; the securing of resources (possibly including the stockpiling of supplies and the earmarking of funds); and the training of intervention teams. It must be

Disaster Management
Disaster management is a collective term encompassing all aspects of planning and responding to disasters, including both pre- and post-disaster activities. It may refer to the management of the risks and the consequences of disasters.

Emergency
An extraordinary situation where there are serious and immediate threats to human life as a result of disaster, imminent threat of a disaster, cumulative process of neglect, civil conflict, environmental degradation and socio-economic conditions. An emergency can encompass a situation in which there is a clear and marked deterioration in the coping abilities of a group or community.

Evacuation
The orderly removal of endangered persons away from threatened areas. Plans and procedures for possible evacuation should be developed beforehand, taking into account individual needs, and be understood by community members.

Hazard
A rare or extreme natural or human made event that threatens to adversely affect human life, property or activity to the extent of causing disaster. A hazard is a natural or human-made phenomenon which may cause physical damage, economic losses, or threaten human life and well-being if it occurs in an area of human settlement, agricultural, or industrial activity.
It may be based in man-made hazard such as armed conflict, intimidation, hostility, etc., or it may be based in deprivation, such as environmental and technological deprivation, political or economic deprivation, illiteracy, etc. It may be a combination, with man-made events exacerbating a natural phenomenon, e.g. deforestation increasing the risk of flooding. The disruption cause to people's lives can be in the form of personal injury, malnutrition, the loss of property or livelihood, or in extreme cases, the loss of life.

Hazard assessment
The process of estimating, for defined areas, the probabilities of the occurrence of potentially-damaging phenomena of given magnitudes within a specified period of time. Hazard assessment involves analysis of formal and informal historical records,

and skilled interpretation of existing topographical, geological, geomorphologic, hydrological and land-use maps, as well as analysis of social and economic and political conditions.

Hazard mapping
The process of establishing geographically where and to what extent particular phenomena are likely to pose a threat to people, property, infrastructure, and economic activities. Hazard mapping represents the results of hazard assessment on a map, showing the frequency/probability of occurrences of various magnitudes or duration.

Post disaster assessment
The process of determining the impact of a disaster or events on a society, the needs for immediate, emergency measures to save and sustain the lives of survivors, and the possibilities for expediting recovery and development. Assessment is an interdisciplinary process undertaken in phases and involving on-the-spot surveys and the collation, evaluation and interpretation of information from various sources concerning both direct and indirect losses, short- and long-term effects. It involves determining not only what has happened and what assistance might be needed, but also defining objectives and how relevant assistance can actually be provided to the victims. It requires attention to both short term needs and long-term implications.

Preparedness

Measures to ensure the readiness and ability of a society to forecast and take precautionary measures in advance of an imminent threat, and to respond to and cope with the effects of a disaster by organising and facilitating timely and effective rescue, relief and appropriate post-disaster assistance.

Rehabilitation
Rehabilitation refers to the actions taken in the aftermath of a disaster to enable basic services to resume functioning, to assist affected people self-help efforts to repair physical damage and community facilities, to revive economic activities and provide support for the psychological and social well-being of the survivors. Whilst it initially focuses on enabling the affected population to resume more-or-less normal (pre-disaster) patterns of life, it should always strive to reduce vulnerability and create an improvement in living standards. It may be considered as a transitional phase between immediate relief and the pursuit of on-going development.

Reconstruction
Reconstruction is a part of rehabilitation. It is defined as the replacement of buildings, machinery, equipment and materials destroyed or damaged in disaster. Reconstruction must be fully integrated into long-term development plans, taking into account future disaster risks and possibilities to reduce such risks by incorporating appropriate measures. Damaged structures and services may not necessarily be restored in their previous form or location. It may include the replacement of any temporary arrangements established as a part of emergency response or rehabilitation.

Response
Disaster Response can be defined as the activities and interventions taken immediately after the occurrence of a disaster event. These activities include those that save lives and property, emergency assistance to disaster casualties,

evacuation of community members, shelter and medical care and actions to reduce the probability or extend of secondary damage, such as anti-looting security patrols or sandbagging against impending floodwaters.

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It is better to be 1 year early, than 1 minute too late.

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