

A TOT MANUAL
NONVIOLENT
CONFLICT
TRANSFORMATION

IMPRINT

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Icons used:



Facilitation Note



Case Study



Role Play



Handout



Recommended Literature



Recommended Websites

Table of Contents

FOREWORD	vii
INTRODUCTION.....	ix
PART 1 – CONCEPTUAL OVERVIEW	1
1.1 Why Nonviolence Matters to us.....	2
1.1.1 Satyagraha – a nonviolent approach to conflict transformation.....	2
1.1.2 Struggle for a Mother Tongue: The Nonviolent Language Movement of the Bengalis in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh)	5
1.1.3 Composite Heritage.....	8
1.1.4 Poem.....	10
1.2 How Adults Learn	11
1.2.1 Adult Learning Cycle.....	11
1.2.2 Problem-Posing Education.....	12
1.2.3 The Training Cycle.....	14
PART 2 – CURRICULUM FOR TRAINING OF TRAINERS	17
2.1 Objectives of the Training of Trainers	17
2.2 Theory of Change for the Training of Trainers	17
2.3 Participants.....	17
2.4 Specific Contents and Respective Learning Objectives.....	18
2.5 Cross-Cutting Topics.....	20
2.6 Methods.....	21
2.7 Structure and Sequencing of Contents.....	21
2.8 Trainers	23
2.9 Monitoring and Evaluation	23
2.10 Concluding the Training	24
2.11 Post-Training Support	24
2.12 Quality Criteria.....	25
2.13 Sample Schedule for Training of Trainers.....	26
2.14 Adaptations for Different Settings	28
PART 3 – MODULES	30
3.1 What is Conflict?	31
What is Conflict?	31
Own Understanding of Conflict.....	32
Different Definitions of Conflict	34
Key Aspects of a Definition of Conflict	35
Conflict Handling Modes.....	36
3.2 What is Violence?.....	37
What is Violence?.....	37
Different Types of Violence	38
Violence Triangle	40

3.3	Causes of Conflicts	41
	Positions, Interests and Needs	42
	Harvard Negotiation Project (Conflict Resolution School)	42
	Fundamental Human Needs Theory (Conflict Transformation School)	43
	Fundamental Human Needs.....	44
	Needs and Satisfier Journal.....	46
3.4	What is Conflict Transformation?	47
	Difference between Conflict Transformation and other Approaches	48
	Principles of Conflict Transformation	49
	Framework of Conflict Transformation	52
3.5	Conflict Analysis	55
	Timeline.....	56
	Camel’s Back / Phases of Conflict.....	59
	Conflict Scenarios.....	63
	Actor Mapping.....	66
	The Pyramid	69
	Problem / Conflict Tree	73
	The Onion.....	76
	ABC Triangle	79
	Dividers and Connectors	82
	Systems Map	84
3.6	Designing Interventions	88
	Spectrum of Strategic Options	89
	Criteria for Good Intervention Design.....	90
	Roles of Third Parties.....	91
	Own Role in Conflict Transformation	92
	Methods of Conflict Transformation	94
	SWOT Analysis.....	95
	Objective Tree	99
	RPP-Matrix.....	101
	Developing Options for Intervention in a Conflict.....	106
	Roleplay Scenario: “Conflicts in ATONIA”	109
3.7	Nonviolent Action.....	112
	What is Nonviolence?.....	113
	Methods of Nonviolent Action.....	114
	Effectiveness of Nonviolent Action.....	117
3.8	Communication	119
	What is Communication?	119
	Why Communication Matters?	119
	The Anatomy of a Message	120
	Detecting the Four Sides of a Message	122
	Active Listening	124
	Communication Skills	127
3.9	Dialogue	129
	What is Dialogue?	129
	Difference between Debate and Dialogue	129

3.10	Negotiation	131
	What is Negotiation?	131
	Principled Negotiation – the Harvard Approach.....	132
	Negotiating a Conflict	134
3.11	Facilitation.....	136
	What is Facilitation?.....	136
	Guidelines for Facilitating a Conflict	137
	Facilitating a Conflict Meeting	140
3.12	Mediation.....	143
	What is Mediation?.....	143
	5 Phases of a Mediation Process	144
	Mediating a Conflict.....	145
3.13	Dealing with the Past	148
	What is Dealing with the Past?	148
	Colourful Barometer: Dealing with the Past.....	150
3.14	Peace Education.....	152
	What is Peace Education?.....	152
	Education for Peace: Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge	153
3.15	Humanitarian Assistance and Development Work	154
	Working in Conflict / Working on Conflict	155
	Conflict Sensitivity	156
	The Do No Harm-Approach.....	158
3.16	Holistic Security	160
	What is Holistic Security?.....	160
	Holistic Security in a Nutshell	162
	Security Strategies	163
	Psycho-Social Security / Emotional Well-Being.....	164
	The Stress Relief Table	167
	Physical Security: Draw your Day.....	170
	Digital Security	172
	Security Plans and Agreements	174
	Security in Groups and Organisations.....	176
ANNEXES		179
Case Studies		180
	Case Study “Conflict over Land Rights in Bangladesh”	181
	Case Study “Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Sri Lanka”	186
	Case Study “Kampong Svay Area Development Programme in Cambodia”	191
Recommended Literature		196
Recommended Websites		199

Foreword

Dear Reader and User,

Nonviolence has a long and rich tradition in South Asia. It is like an ever-evolving mosaic to which countless, mostly unknown women and men contributed and still are providing bits and pieces. Like anywhere else in the world, its path is marked by great achievements and utter failure, by societal advancement and ignoring rights of women and minorities, by peace and conflict. Nonviolent movements and action can be found in every corner of the subcontinent, as communities had to develop approaches to handle conflict and to transform it in a manner that prevented future violence. And they adjusted those approaches over time, fitting to specific local context and changing environments.

While the repertoire of local communities is rich and diverse, this is being challenged in multiple ways. Current social, political and economic dynamics as well as the impacts of climate change, like cyclones, floods, droughts and changing rainfall patterns, are contributing to this. In this context especially conflicts over natural resources, like land and water bodies, are increasing and so is the use of violence. And again especially women and members of minority groups are mostly affected. New and emerging challenges require context-specific adaption of existing nonviolent approaches. In Bangladesh, more and more practitioners aim to accompany this adaptation process by providing input and support to local communities. By this, they are contributing to the ever-evolving mosaic of nonviolence in the country.

This manual aims to support those practitioners in their endeavour. It was tested and revised as part of a Training of Trainers, in which staff members of local and national NGOs participated. In between two seminars, they applied their experiences in trainings they conducted with local people in the context of a land conflict in Northern Bangladesh, which traces back for decades. During the trainings they exchanged with community members of the affected village as well as with representatives of the local civil society, local authorities and police. We are very grateful to all of them for their contributions and feedback provided during the manual's compilation.

We are very thankful to Jochen Neumann and Wolfgang Heinrich to develop and compile this comprehensive manual, focussing very much on its application in practice, yet providing theoretical background and input when needed.

We are also thankful to our colleagues in Human Rights and Advocacy Team both in NETZ Bangladesh Office and Germany Office for their sincere efforts to coordinate the manual development process including the associated trainings.

And without the support by the “zivik” funding programme of the “Institut für Auslandsbeziehungen” (ifa) with German Federal Foreign Office’s funds this publication would not have been possible to realise. We are appreciating this important support very much.

We do hope that this manual can be of support for you, dear Reader and User, in your journey to add another piece to the mosaic.

Habibur Rahman Chowdhury
Country Director, NETZ

Niko Richter
Director, NETZ

INTRODUCTION

This “Nonviolent Conflict Transformation Manual” has been developed to support trainers who want to introduce others to the field of nonviolent conflict transformation. We consider this manual to be quite comprehensive. It entails more concepts, tools and practical exercises on these than fit into an introductory workshop or even in a training of trainers.

How the manual is structured

In the first part of this manual we introduce the key concepts on which the training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation is based. We first give details why nonviolence matters to us as a main point of reference. Secondly, we explain how adults learn.

In the second part of this manual we will present the detailed curriculum for the training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation which is based on the concepts presented in part 1.

The third part of this manual entails all relevant topics for training in nonviolent conflict transformation. The first four chapters will give background to key contents like conflict, violence, causes of conflict and conflict transformation as an approach. Then, a chapter on conflict analysis follows in which some ten tools are presented, usually with a sample or example. The important step from analysis to action is addressed in the next chapter on designing interventions. Again several tools for strategizing are offered. The next nine chapters focus on important methods, skills or areas of conflict transformation – ranging from nonviolent action, communication and mediation to dealing with the past, peace education as well as humanitarian assistance and development work. The final chapter of part 3 is dedicated to holistic security. We consider it relevant to be aware of all aspects of your own and your organisation’s security when working in the field of nonviolent conflict transformation. You might not face the threat of a direct and violent attack on you as a person, but how about your digital security or your stress level when being exposed to trauma or traumatised people. We consider caring for your own well-being as part of nonviolent resistance.

In the annex we provide three case studies which cover enough details about a conflict setting so that these can be used for all conflict analysis tools as well as strategy tools in this manual. Additionally, recommended literature and websites are listed for continuing the learning process.

How to use the manual

As newly trained trainers you can refer back to the contents and exercises we presented to you in your training of trainers. Feel free to study the material in depth. But also go beyond the contents that fitted in your training of trainers. The facilitation notes for each exercise will give you step-by-step directions how to implement these. Obviously, you might have to adapt the wording or focus for your respective participants and their context. Use your own experience and imagination to go beyond our suggested course of action.

As an experienced trainer you will have your list of topics that you usually cover and your set of exercises that you like to use. Feel free to use this manual to look at some other topics for which we offer the most relevant pieces of contents and at least one exercise to reflect and practise key concepts and tools for these topics.

As a coordinator of training activities you might want to train more people as trainers. Feel free to refer to the detailed curriculum for a training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation. Depending on the training days you can organise you can include more topics and practical exercise from this manual than we could, as our ten days are only the very minimum for a training of trainers.

We would like to thank those many practitioners who reflected on their experiences and shared their conclusions, and in particular their training material with us. The chapter on holistic security was shared with us by Peter Steudtner who developed this approach with some other colleagues. Special thanks goes to KURVE Wustrow – Centre for Training and Networking in Nonviolent Action, based in Germany but working with partner organisations in many conflict areas worldwide. Much of the material we refer to in this manual is based on their “Manual for a Training of Trainers Course” from 2007. “Working with Conflict”, published by Responding to Conflict in 2000, was another key resource we used in recent years for our training work. Many traces of their comprehensive guide will be found in this manual. We are grateful for the good starting point and inspiration they gave to us, and to many other colleagues.

We hope to inspire us to use our training manual, and adapt it to your own context and personal style. We are very much interested in getting to know how you could make use of this manual and how you further developed the material.

Finally we would to thank NETZ Bangladesh for their trust and patience with us. We hope they and the newly trained trainers can use this manual well for nonviolent conflict transformation in their local context.

Jochen Neumann & Wolfgang Heinrich



Part 1:
Conceptual Overview

PART 1: CONCEPTUAL OVERVIEW

In this first part of the training manual we introduce the key concepts on which the training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation is based.

First, we give details about the main points of reference with regard to nonviolence, i.e. Gandhi's understanding of nonviolence, the historical example of the nonviolent language movement in Bangladesh and the composite heritage approach.

Second, we explain how adults learn. The most important concepts for us are the action learning cycle by David A. Kolb and the problem-posing education by Paolo Freire. Both approaches stress that the experience of adults is key for a successful learning process – prior experiences are seen as resource and starting point for reflection and learning while more experiences should be generated in praxis-oriented exercises. Finally, we introduce the training cycle and the respective tasks are relevant in the different phases of a training – starting with identifying the training needs, leading to designing the training and developing the training material before it is implemented, monitored and evaluated.

Based on these concepts we will present the detailed curriculum for the training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation in the following second part of the manual.

1.1 Why Nonviolence Matters to us

1.1.1 Satyagraha – a nonviolent approach to conflict transformation¹

“Satyagraha” is the political philosophy of Mahatma Gandhi. Gandhi called his overall method of nonviolent action Satyagraha. This translates roughly as "Truth-force." A fuller rendering, though, would be "the force that is generated through adherence to Truth." Nowadays, it's usually called nonviolence. But for Gandhi, nonviolence was the word for a different, broader concept – namely "a way of life based on love and compassion." In Gandhi's terminology, Satyagraha-Truth-force-was an outgrowth of nonviolence (Mark Shepard). The basic spirit of Satyagraha is firm devotion to the principles of truth, nonviolence, and suffering. The philosophy of Satyagraha is centred on the foundations of nonviolent action and resistance. It is a technique of social change that can be successfully applied in all forms of social and political conflict.

Satyagraha refuses to use physical violence against the oppressor, seeking to eliminate antagonisms between the oppressor and the oppressed, aiming to transform the oppressor. It is highly effective in realizing change through moral force and encouragement. Conflicts, according to Satyagraha, can be resolved using nonviolent action which is based on the concept of refusing to do harm to the others, in particular, to opponents. Nonviolence means not only complete abstaining from all physical, mental, and emotional grievances against others but also cleansing oneself of all hatred and desire for revenge. Nonviolence is based on the assumption that all human beings unfailingly respond to gestures of love. In fact, nonviolence always seeks to propose mutually acceptable agreements without any form of humiliation or manipulation of power to others.

Satyagraha practitioners follow a variety of nonviolent techniques including civil disobedience, economic boycotts, and varying forms of strikes. The first step is to carefully determine the facts, the issues of truth and justice for the emancipators. The next step is to talk with the opponent, try moral persuasion, and make every attempt to negotiate. Satyagraha also follows the step to make it clear to the opponents that their failure to respond positively would result in nonviolent resistance or civil disobedience. If negotiation fails, the next step is to launch a nonviolent campaign after informing the opponents, the media, and the public.

A Satyagraha campaign would usually follow to certain fundamental rules:

Self-reliance: A Satyagraha campaign should be completely independent.

Initiative: Continuous assessment of situation and initiate pressure through the approach of passive resistance, to take the movement forward.

Propagation of the campaign's objectives, agendas, and goals: Continuous communication and information sharing with the opponent, the public, and the participants in the campaign

¹ Based on Devi Akella (2009), "Satyagraha: The Gandhian Philosophy of Conflict Management", *Journal of Workplace Rights*, Vol. 14(4): 503-523.

about the overall goals and objectives of the campaign.

Reduction of demands to minimize deviation from truth: Reassessment of the situation to adjust and minimization of demands as much as possible is also required.

Advancement of the movement: The Satyagraha campaign encourages modifications through analysing each stage in the light of ever-changing circumstances.

Examination of weaknesses: In Satyagraha campaign, the followers should maintain morale and discipline and be extremely careful so no impatience, aggression, or negative and violent attitudes emerged within the group.

Search for avenues of cooperation: The followers must make every possible effort to encourage their opponent through demonstrations of sincerity, honesty, and self-suffering.

Refusal to bargain: Satyagraha does not believe in compromise with regard to predetermined agendas and goals. There is no scope of bargaining or deviation from the demands made.

Steps in a Satyagraha Campaign

A Satyagraha campaign usually follows a sequential order of stages:

Negotiation and arbitration: At the beginning of campaign, efforts should be taken to resolve the conflict or grievances through normal established channels. The preliminary actions should be centered on activities that minimize the risk of conflicts. The followers should demonstrate that direct action is their last and final weapon and they use it only when no other option for peace is available.

Direct action: When it is realized that a conflict situation cannot be resolved by the methods of the first stage, participants are required to go for direct action. But the followers of Satyagraha need to carefully assess the circumstances, their opponents, the public opinion, their own capacity for self-discipline before going to direct action.

Agitation: In this stage, the followers seek the support of the people who are most affected by the dispute. The objective is to generate awareness among all the affected groups. This stage includes action by the participants against the opponents taking the form of demonstrations, slogan shouting, boycotts, mass meetings, and strikes. Pamphlets, books, and papers explaining the reason for the dispute, its implications, and its consequences are circulated and distributed. The followers need to engage media as instruments of mass propaganda to publicize speeches, group meetings, debates, and discussions. The main objective is to gain widespread interest in the issue from a sympathetic population so as to influence the decisions of the opponents.

Ultimatum: If there are no symptoms of agreement, the followers are required to issue an ultimatum to the opponent. An ultimatum offers a constructive solution to the problem, contains no offensive language, and is broad and flexible in terms of wording. The members then need to list the demands of the group, which need to be met within a

specific time. The ultimatum aims to force the issue on the opponent and threaten direct action if it is ignored or not settled.

Self-purification is the concept of self-sacrifice and suffering in order to morally persuade the opponent and pressurize toward a just settlement of the dispute. Fasting is one of the techniques of revolutionary strategy as self-purification. Refusal of lucrative posts, gifts and products by the opponents are notable examples of self-purification.

Types of resistance: Resistance takes the form of picketing, strikes, hunger strikes and all nonviolent forms of general large-scale strikes. Strike means abstention from work till the opponent accedes to the demands of the group. Strikes are usually accompanied by continued education of the public about the cause of the conflict.

Economic boycott and non-cooperation: This takes the form of non-payment of taxes, boycotting of schools and offices, exclusion, and voluntary exile. It demonstrates that the followers of Satyagraha are to suffer in silence. Such suffering usually generates sympathy from community members. This automatically breaks down the momentum of the opposition.

Civil disobedience: One of the important stages of Satyagraha is the followers disobey the laws of the country. By this refusal to obey the laws and statutes of the state, the importance and influence of the government is destroyed. Disobeying unjust statutes and bringing people's attention to that fact assists in generating public sympathy and support. Usually, this step is followed when there is a movement against the government. No government allows deliberate disobedience or breach of its laws. Civil disobedience is usually met on the part of the government with the arrest and imprisonment of the law breakers.

Assertive Satyagraha and parallel government: In this final stage, the followers make an effort to take over or replicate governmental functioning with the support and cooperation of the public. In the final stage of the campaign, the followers gradually take over the functions of the opponent's government.

In conclusion, it is important to remember that the nature and type of a Satyagraha campaign is determined by the nature of the circumstances and the conflict itself. This is also dependent on leadership, levels of commitment and discipline, and capacity to adapt the principles, procedures, and philosophy of Satyagraha to the specific situation.

1.1.2 Struggle for a Mother Tongue: The Nonviolent Language Movement of the Bengalis in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh)²

The language movement in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) in 1948 - 1952 is the first widespread nonviolent movement that carried mobilization and pressure by hundreds of thousands of Bengali supporters against the government of Pakistan, dominated by the West Pakistan and laid the foundation for the emergence of Bengali nationalism. The nonviolent struggle for establishing Bangla as the state language influenced the entire Bengali population by shaping its national identity beyond a politically limited idea and inspired people to think and dream of own independent state.

After the emergence of Pakistan as an independent state in August 1947, the Pakistani government ignored the spirit of the people of the then East Pakistan and promptly started using Urdu for currency, stamps, and other official papers with the intention of making Urdu the state language without any public debate. As soon as the common people of East Pakistan understood about the controversy over the future state language, they expressed open support for the recognition of Bangla as one of the official languages of the country. The extraordinary participation of people from all sectors, whether men or women, old or young, rich or poor, emphasized the commitment of struggling together through nonviolent collective actions. This combined force strengthened their collective desire to protect and use their own language, and formed their collective identity around Bengali language and culture.

The below table shows the history and steps of the successful language movement in non-violent method in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) at a glance:

Action	Method/Type	Timeframe	Direct Impact
Setting up sociocultural organizations	Nonviolent intervention/ Creative	1947–1948	They offered an organizational structure for the language movement and mobilized Bengalis in their struggle for Bangla to become a state language
An 18-page booklet “Pakistan’s State Language: Bangla or Urdu?” was published	Protest and persuasion	September 15, 1947	The booklet defined objectives for the Bangla movement and became an inspiration for Bengalis
Demonstrations	Protest and persuasion	1947	Under popular pressure, the chief minister of East Pakistan signed an eight-point agreement, including a clause on a resolution to make Bangla one of the state languages and the official language of East Bengal Province

² Based on Ishtiaq Hossain, (2012), “Bangladesh: Civil Resistance in the Struggle for Independence, 1948–1971”, in Maciej J. Bartkowski (ed.), *Recovering Nonviolent History: Civil Resistance in Liberation Struggles*, Lynne Rienner: Colorado, pp.198-217.

Action	Method/Type	Timeframe	Direct Impact
Strikes	Non-cooperation/ Economic	1947	
Protests after the eight-point agreement was rejected	Protest and persuasion	February 25, 1948	Maintaining momentum of the language movement
All-Party State Language Council of Action formed in Dhaka	Nonviolent intervention/ Creative	March 2, 1948	Building a platform of political support across various parties and political groups The Council called for an East Pakistan-wide strike on March 11, 1948
Strike	Non-cooperation/ Economic	March 11, 1948	Students and faculty of Dhaka University joined the strike, picketed the provincial government, and urged government workers and businesspeople to join the strike. Strikers collected money, which was used later in making posters and banners
Government officials from the provincial government staged a walkout	Non-cooperation/ Political	March 1948	Government officials were joined by workers of the East Bengal Railway Police tried to break up demonstrations that spread throughout the city
Dhaka University State Language Action Committee set up	Nonviolent intervention/ Creative	March 1950	The committee mobilized students, raised public funds, and distributed posters and leaflets encouraging people to commemorate March 11 and circulated a memorandum demanding Bangla as a state language
New All-Party State Language Council of Action formed	Nonviolent intervention/ Creative	January 1952	Coordinated protests and called for demonstrations on February 21
Student protests	Protest and persuasion	February 21, 1952	Police opened fire, killing five people, and injuring many others. Thousands gathered and prayed at the university campuses for those killed in demonstrations
Funeral homage for killed protesters	Protest and persuasion	February 22, 1952	Police again opened fire. Ongoing protests forced the provincial government to introduce a motion calling for the recognition of Bangla as an official language of East Pakistan

Action	Method/Type	Timeframe	Direct Impact
Students erected Shahid Minar (Monument for the Language Martyrs)	Protest and persuasion; Nonviolent intervention/ Creative	February 1952	Shahid Minar became a powerful rallying symbol for Bengalis
General strike	Non-cooperation/ Economic	February 25, 1952	Police detained student and political leaders of the language movement. Dhaka University was closed by the authorities. Protests and demonstrations spread to other towns

Source:

Ishtiaq Hossain, (2012), "Bangladesh: Civil Resistance in the Struggle for Independence, 1948–1971", in Maciej J. Bartkowski (ed.), Recovering Nonviolent History: Civil Resistance in Liberation Struggles, Lynne Rienner: Colorado, Appendix.

As the consequence of the killing on students on 21 February 1952, the political parties of East Pakistan formed a United Front (UF), continued the campaign on the promise to make Bangla a national language and a language of instruction in the East Pakistani education system. In March 1954 at the first East Bengal Legislative Assembly election the UF decisively defeated the ruling Muslim League. Thereafter, Bangla was spoken in the East Bengal Legislative Assembly and used officially at East Bengal. Finally, Bangla was adopted as an official language of Pakistan along with Urdu in the first constitution of Pakistan, under article 214(1), enacted on 29 February 1956.

UNESCO General Conference approved to celebrate 21 February as the international mother language day in 1999. It has been celebrated throughout the world since 2000 to promote the cultural and linguistic diversity for sustainable societies. It is within UNESCO's mandate for peace that it works to preserve the differences in cultures and languages that foster tolerance and respect for others.

1.1.3 Composite Heritage

A way towards peace, harmony and democracy

What can be done so that conflicts do not erupt into violence? How does a society hold together when it is so full of conflict? What are the places where people meet despite their differences? What do they all share with each other? Which public spaces are accessible to all? Is there something like a common heritage that everyone shares with each other, despite their differences? What is this intersection that can bridge and connect diverse identities? What brings people together despite their diversity, even antagonism?

These and many more questions led a group of civil society actors from South Asia – triggered by the 2002 Gujarat violence in India – to search for commonalities in their societies. They found dances, games, languages, poetry and places of common religious worship. But also economic practices, food and drink, habits of life and material goods belonging as cultural goods not only to one, but were shared by all communities in a region.

At the end of many workshops and conversations, the concept of composite heritage emerged. It represents an understanding of a common, composite heritage that exists in a society and that can work towards peace, harmony and democracy. This concept leads to the elaboration of what is culturally common in a given context. For this can link different identities to each other without them having to give up their uniqueness and diversity. The concept of local capacities for peace (LCP) emerged during the same period. The developers realised early on how compatible the two concepts are.

Shaping identities and appreciating otherness

The question of identity is central to composite heritage. It offers a starting point to ask the questions: How is identity constructed? Can even national identities be shaped tolerantly, i.e. without recourse to exclusionary rhetoric and enemy images? Composite heritage tackles these questions: Who am I? To whom do I belong? What belongs to me? It encourages finding self-determined answers that respect others and recognise the freedom to choose one's own identities. Systematically using the power of culture to strategically address social conflicts is what makes the composite heritage approach special.

With the concept of composite heritage, activists in India and other South Asian countries have since been countering the very effective power play that pits “identities” against each other. Composite heritage is an approach that specifically addresses this point of mobilising identities. In doing so, they helped people to understand that and how identity comes about – how it is constructed. It enabled those in conflict to see through who was suddenly playing identities that were important to them against each other. Individuals and groups learned to consciously and positively shape their own identities. In this way, they could understand and live together with different cultures, histories, ways of life and habits, religions, languages and ways of doing business as an opportunity for the future. And they could reject those who wanted to make them believe that only a certain heritage was a good one.

With composite heritage, people were able to discover that what they had perceived as their own cultural heritage was developing vividly out of the exchange and encounter with other cultures. This realisation of shared diversity did not take away any of the identity-forming power of “one’s own” heritage. Rather, the recognition of this experience made it possible to recognise the otherness of others and to appreciate it as a contribution in a lived relationship. This was preceded by the recognition and appreciation of one’s own diverse cultural heritage.

Enabling early interventions

Composite heritage stands for understanding conflict situations in a way that best enables early intervention. When commonly shared spaces become targets for attacks, this can be an important early warning sign. In most cases, this has already been preceded by a time when encounters became less frequent. Those who have become alert have learned to watch out for the signs. But even when violence has become visible, causes for conflict can be reduced again, in which the shared heritage can be enriched, strengthened and preserved.

Practitioners highlight the impact composite heritage can make on people who are directly affected by conflict. They develop an attitude that recognises differences and makes them resistant to being pitted against other population groups. Composite heritage helps to recognise the mobilisation of groups against each other. It gives indications of what can be done preventively, but also de-escalating and healing.

1.1.4 Poem

হিংসায় উন্মত্ত পৃথ্বী

রবীন্দ্রনাথ ঠাকুর

রচনাকাল (বঙ্গাব্দ): ২১ ফাল্গুন, ১৩৩৩/৫ মার্চ, ১৯২৭

Earth is frenzied with fury

Rabindranath Tagore³

Composed: 21st Falgun, 1333 (5th March 1927)

Bangla

হিংসায় উন্মত্ত পৃথ্বী, নিত্য নির্ধুর দ্বন্দ্ব;
ঘোর কুটিল পন্থ তার, লোভজটিল বন্ধ ।।
নূতন তব জন্ম লাগি কাতর যত প্রাণী--
কর' ত্রাণ মহাপ্রাণ, আন অমৃতবাণী,
বিকশিত কর প্রেমপদ্ম চিরমধুনিষ্যন্দ ।
শান্ত হে, মুক্ত হে, হে অনন্তপুণ্য,
করুণাঘন, ধরণীতল কর কলঙ্কশূন্য ।
এস দানবীর, দাও ত্যাগকঠিন দীক্ষা ।
মহাভিক্ষু, লও সবার অহঙ্কারভিক্ষা ।
লোক লোক ভুলুক শোক, খন্ডন কর মোহ,
উজ্জ্বল হোক জ্ঞানসূর্য-উদয়সমারোহ--
প্রাণ লভুক সকল ভুবন, নয়ন লভুক অন্ধ ।

শান্ত হে, মুক্ত হে, হে অনন্তপুণ্য,
করুণাঘন, ধরণীতল কর কলঙ্কশূন্য ।
ক্রন্দনময় নিখিলহৃদয় তাপদহনদীপ্ত
বিষয়বিষবিকার জীর্ণ খিন্ন অপরিতপ্ত ।
দেশ দেশ পরিল তিলক রক্তকলুষগণ্টানি,
তব মঙ্গলশঙ্খ আন' তব দক্ষিণপাণি--
তব শুভসঙ্গীতরাগ, তব সুন্দর ছন্দ ।
শান্ত হে, মুক্ত হে, হে অনন্তপুণ্য,
করুণাঘন, ধরণীতল কর কলঙ্কশূন্য ।

English Translation

Earth is frenzied with fury; in constant vile conflict;
Awfully crooked its path; tangled in wily greed.
All sore souls pray for the new birth of a Savior
Save us O Great Life with Thine life giving words
Let bloom the love-lotus with ever flowing nectar
O the ever Serene, Free and Holy Presence
Let your Mercy absolve Earth of its stains
O Generous One initiate onto the firm renouncing path
O Supreme Mendicant claim our ego as your alms
Let all forget their cares, woes; delusion be severed
Let knowledge as the radiant sun dawn in its splendor
Let all world gain life, the blind receive sight
O the ever Serene, Free and Holy Presence
Let your Mercy absolve Earth of its stains
The grieving heart of Mankind is smoldering with agony
Worn out in treasure hunt the discontents are aggrieved
Lands far and wide flaunt their blood-tilak*of filth
Sound your conch of well being and bliss
Touching all with Thy right hand to bless
Play Thy auspicious tune to the rhythm of Grace
O the ever Serene, Free and Holy Presence
Let your Mercy absolve Earth of its stains

³ Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941) was a Bengali poet, writer, playwright, philosopher and painter. In 1913, he was the first non-European to win the Nobel Prize in Literature. Two of his works are the national anthems of Bangladesh ("Amar Sonar Bangla") and India ("Jana Gana Mana") respectively.

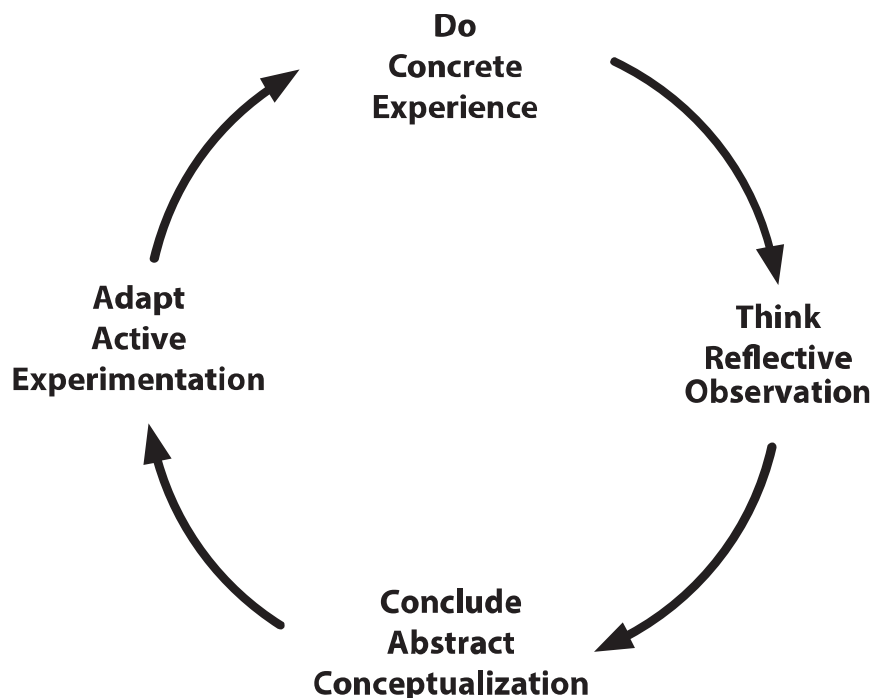
1.2 How Adults Learn

1.2.1 Adult Learning Cycle

The Action Learning Cycle was developed in 1984 by David Kolb, an educational scientist.

Learning is considered a continuous process of learning from one's own experience/action or that of others. The first step in this cycle could be an action (Do), a concrete experience, which then will be reflected upon (Think). This can lead to new insights (Conclude) which then can be translated into gathering more ideas how to act differently (Adapting). Subsequently, a new action might follow which starts the process again.

Graph: Action Learning Cycle



No one stage of the cycle is effective as a learning procedure on its own. The more complete a learner goes through the cycle the more profound is the learning.

It is possible to enter the cycle at any stage and follow through its logical sequence. Certain training methodologies are good for starting the process at different steps of the cycle, e.g. in a roleplay one starts with a new concrete experience (Do) which then will be reflected upon (Think), or in a lecture one would offer rather abstract concepts (Conclude) which then should be tested (Adapt) and enacted (Do).

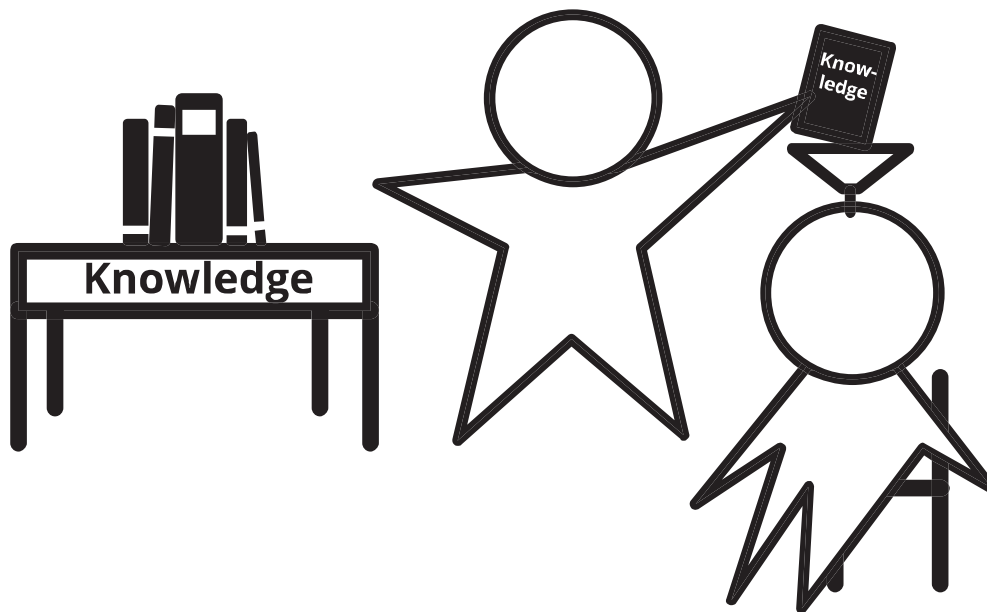
Source:

David A. Kolb: Experiential Learning. Experience as the Source of Learning and Development, New Jersey: Prentice Hall 1984

1.2.2 Problem-Posing Education

In his seminal work “Pedagogy of the Oppressed”, first published in Brazil in 1968, Paulo Freire criticised the so-called “**Banking Method**” in which the teacher acts as if (s)he has all the knowledge and is mandated to deliver it to the student in a one-directional way.

Graph: Banking Method



In contrast, the “**Problem-Posing Method**” suggested by Freire is based on a two-way communication process between teacher and student, essentially turning both into teachers as well as students.

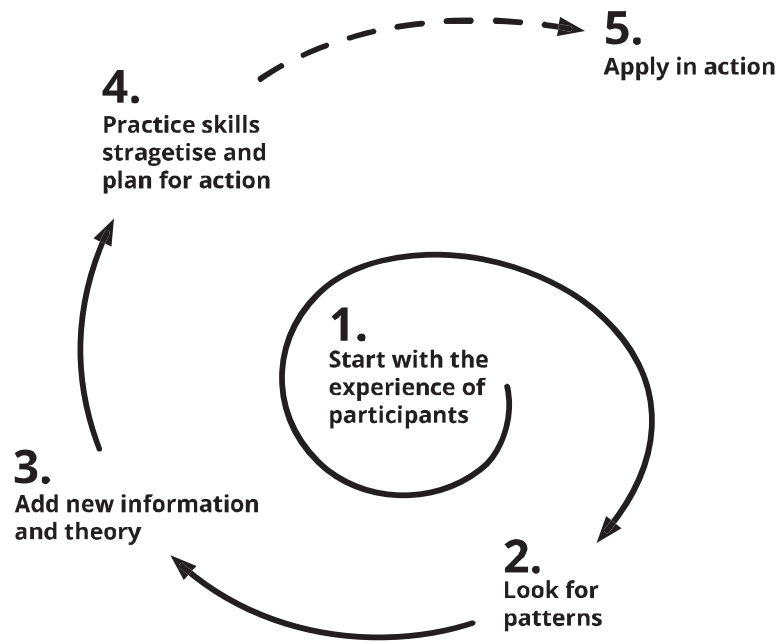
“The students – no longer docile listeners – are now critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher. The teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and re-considers her earlier considerations as the students express their own.” (Freire, p. 81)

“In problem-posing education, people develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation.” (Freire, p. 83)

In Freire’s understanding education can be used to maintain the existing situation, i.e. imposing the views and values of the dominant elites in a society, or it can be designed to liberate people, to raise awareness and empower them to become active members of society who challenge the status quo.

The problem-posing method was captured by many authors in a cyclical model. The spiral model below was developed by some practitioners from Canada in 1991. It stresses that the learning process should start with the vast treasure of experience that adult participants bring to the training. By reflecting about their own experiences they are able to detect patterns. They might develop their own conceptual understanding of these patterns and/or other pieces of theory might be introduced by the trainer. In any case these new insights should be transferred into concrete ideas that are practised, leading to a plan for action. Finally, the plan is to be applied in their own context and by the participants themselves.

Graph: The Spiral Model



Sources:

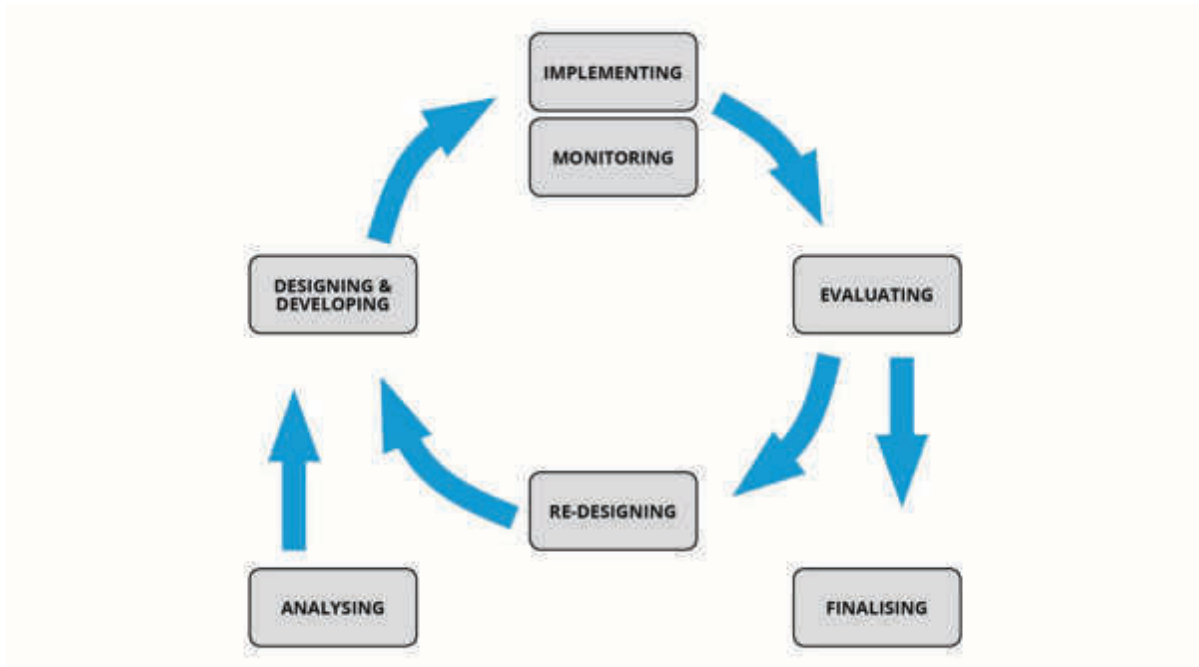
Paolo Freire: Pedagogy of the Oppressed, New York /London: The Continuum International Publishing Group 1970

Anne Hope /Sally Timmel: Training for Transformation. A Handbook for Community Workers, Gweru, Zimbabwe: Mambo Press 1984

1.2.3 The Training Cycle

Training can be considered a specific kind of project. Similar to a project, training is a circular process with similar phase like the project cycle.

Graph: The Training Cycle

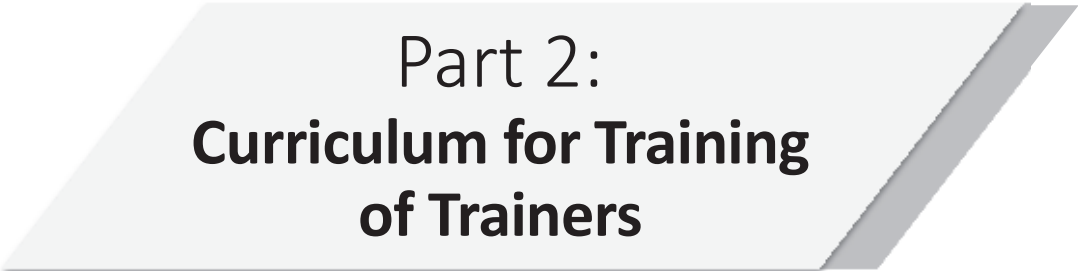


These ideal type phases are described below with the key questions to answer in the respective phase, the key tasks and sample outputs.

Analysing		
What needs to be learned?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Define the problem / training needs • Analyse participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem Statement • Needs Assessment • Learners' Profile
Designing & Developing		
How is it to be learned?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write learning objectives • Select delivery method • Develop contents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SMART objectives • Curriculum • Exercises
What material is needed?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop structure / sequence • Develop learning activities • Develop training material 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training material
Implementing & Monitoring		
How is it implemented?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prepare logistics • Conduct training session(s) • Observe participants • Collect basic data • Collect feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Info sheet • Observation sheets • Participants / Attendance list • Daily / Mid-term feedback
Evaluating		
How did it work out?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine levels of evaluation • Select evaluation methods • Collect more data • Collect more feedback • Assess respective level(s) of evaluation • Develop recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation plan • Final feedback • Questionnaire • Evaluation report • Recommendations
Re-Designing		
How is it to be adapted?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draw conclusions from evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revised objectives • Revised curriculum • Revised exercises • Revised training material
Finalising		
How is it terminated?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conclude training • Collect learnings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final report • Lessons Learned

Source:

Inspired by the ADDIE model in Janis Fisher Chan (2010): Training Fundamentals. Pfeiffer Essential Guides to Training Basics, San Francisco, USA: Pfeiffer



Part 2:
**Curriculum for Training
of Trainers**

PART 2: CURRICULUM FOR TRAINING OF TRAINERS

2.1 Objectives of the Training of Trainers

The overall objectives of this training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation are

- to assist the participants acquiring appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes useful in nonviolent conflict transformation
- to provide the participants opportunities to develop their capacities and own personal styles as trainers in order to enable them to work with different target group and transmit their experience in nonviolent conflict transformation.

2.2 Theory of Change for the Training of Trainers

This training of trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation is based on the following theory of change:

If people who are committed to the constructive transformation of conflicts and who are well-respected in their community/their context of work are trained as trainers in nonviolent conflict transformation, then they are able to design and conduct trainings on that topic with different target groups in an effective way, because they acquire more in-depths knowledge and skills on nonviolent conflict transformation and on adult learning and because they adapt those learnings to their own context and are practising their newly acquired skills in real-life settings as trainers still with the accompaniment of the ToT trainers and the group of ToT participants.

2.3 Participants

The participants of this course are at least 30 years old and possess a minimum working experience of five years. They should be able to demonstrate a certain level of experience as a facilitator/trainer and with civil society activities in social / development work or human rights and peacebuilding. They are able to follow and to participate in a course in English language.

Further, the participants are committed to take part in the whole course. This includes a readiness to involve in personal and participatory learning processes and in conducting training in nonviolent conflict transformation in their own context during the course. They commit themselves to respond positively to training requests and to realise training in nonviolent conflict transformation after completion of the course.

The application procedure comprises:

- a written application including an essay about their own motivation and personal experience with nonviolence,
- a curriculum vitae,
- at least one reference,
- a telephone interview in order to get to know better the person, clarify questions and check their level of proficiency in the English language.

The training participants are selected on this basis by the lead organisation. It consults the training team for this purpose. Ideally, the group will be diverse with regard to their background and balanced in gender. The size of the group should not exceed 12 participants.

2.4 Specific Contents and Respective Learning Objectives

Aims relating to:

Conflict and Conflict Analysis

- to be able to define conflict
- to know about different definitions of conflict
- to understand types, levels and dimensions of conflicts
- to be able to perceive and analyse conflicts in all their phases and levels of escalation
- to be able to analyse conflict settings
- to understand different forms of violence
- to understand the gender dimensions of conflicts

Conflict and Person

- to be able to reflect their own patterns in conflicts
- to be able to reflect own experiences with violence and conflicts
- to be able to reflect own relationship to power
- to be able to reflect own gender role in conflicts
- to be able to reflect own stereotypes and prejudices
- to understand own feelings, interests and needs
- to understand that communication is the major tool in dealing with conflicts
- to be able to communicate own feelings, interests and needs in a nonviolent way
- to be able to give and receive constructive feedback
- to reflect own spiritual and religious background to nonviolence

Conflict and Groups / Society

- to be able to reflect own roles in groups
- to understand group dynamics
- to know about and be able to define roles and functions in group

- to be able to reflect power relations in groups / society
- to be able to reflect gender roles in groups / society
- to be able to reflect the role of culture in conflict
- to develop a critical appreciation of the concept of “culture”
- to be able to critically assess the role of collective identities
- to understand cultural violence, especially racism and other forms of discrimination
- to be able to reflect own involvement and responsibility in racism and other forms of discrimination
- to know about different spiritual and religious backgrounds to nonviolence

Methods of Conflict Transformation

- to be able to develop strategies for dealing constructively with conflicts on the basis of a conflict analysis
- to know about the range of methods of nonviolent conflict transformation
- to know about the effectiveness of methods of nonviolent conflict transformation
- to understand and know how to apply methods of nonviolent intervention in conflicts, including the definition of roles and mandates
- to know and be able to critically assess the role of power in conflict and in conflict transformation
- to know and apply the necessary communication skills for conflict transformation
- to know and be able to apply techniques of group facilitation
- to know and be able to apply the principles and processes of consensus decision making
- to develop own vision for concrete nonviolent engagement

Training – Approaches and Techniques

- to know about the historical, philosophical and other backgrounds of training for nonviolent conflict transformation
- to know concepts of adult education
- to know and be able to use techniques of participatory learning
- to know and be able to use tools and methods to deal with group dynamics
- to know own individual styles (strengths, potentials, limitations) and be able to adapt the contents, methods and instruments of the seminars to individual styles
- to be able to adapt the contents, methods and tools to the participants’ and the wider context
- to be able to reflect contents, methods and tools with regard to the underlying cultural norms and values
- to be able to design a training programme adapted to the needs of a specific group
- to be able to design evaluation and ongoing learning processes for training teams

2.5 Cross-Cutting Topics

The following topics may be dealt with in specific working units. More importantly they provide important points of reference for all content related work as well as for our methodology and for decisions concerning the group process:

Nonviolence

Nonviolence manifests itself through lifestyle and through acting in conflicts. A nonviolent attitude in the transformation of conflicts tries to deescalate personal violence and decrease structural or cultural violence. Nonviolent action stands up for justice and human rights. It empowers those whose voice is not heard to develop power and to express their own concerns. Nonviolence remains however always open for dialogue with the powerful, the perpetrators of violence or injustice.

In this ToT course, nonviolence is not only discussed as a historical experience. We reflect our own involvement in violent relationships and structures. We question our own attitudes and ask ourselves where we can take responsibility for change.

Gender and Power

Socially defined gender roles are an important background to conflict and become themselves arena for conflicts. Working on gender roles forms a central part of our training processes and of all decisions during the training. Power relations have an important impact on the analysis of conflicts and on the decisions concerning constructive roles taken up. The training course tries to develop sensitivity for the consequences of differing situations, to allow for a change of perspective and to discuss new approaches (assertiveness, acting as allies, justice-oriented work).

Inter-Cultural Learning

We understand culture as a dynamic principle shaping life at different levels, from every day life to the symbolic sphere. Different cultural experience may provide us with new perspectives, questions and insights – thus these are enhancing the learning process. Valuing difference and making actively use of it therefore is an important aspect of learning for increasingly pluralist societies.

At the same time we are deeply convinced that conflict and conflict transformation relates to human experiences which transcend space and time and which therefore retain their validity in contexts differing much from one another.

2.6 Methods

To reach the objectives of the course, the learning process includes more than just acquiring theoretical knowledge. Additionally, we provide opportunities for testing and adapting the concepts, tools and methods of nonviolent conflict transformation through practical application. The participants learn about models, techniques and instruments, but at the same time develop the liberty to adapt them and base their action on own insights. Thus, we will support participants to identify and develop their personal and group skills as well as their own context-specific concepts, tools and methods. Additionally, we also address the personal motivation and attitude towards nonviolent conflict transformation. Thus, essential areas of learning will be the reflection of one's own personal styles, attitudes and responses to situations of difficult communication and intense conflict.

Learning about nonviolent conflict transformation has to focus on hearts (attitude), heads (knowledge) and hands (skills).

The learning process will be designed as:

- *elicitive*: drawing from the experience, knowledge and personal resources of participants
- *interactive*: involving the participants actively by thinking, talking / discussing and practising
- *practical*: applying theory to concrete situations, either through case studies, role plays and simulations, or through analysing the processes within the group
- *participatory*: giving participants the opportunity to shape the learning process for themselves and the group as well to share their own experiences and opinions

The training methods include:

- individual reflection
- presentations to share about concepts, tools and experiences
- plenary and small group discussions
- exercises like case studies to demonstrate patterns of human behaviour and reactions
- exercises like role-plays and simulations to practise concepts and tools in order to develop own skills
- exercises to apply concepts and tools to real-life situations
- giving and receiving feedback (by fellow participants, by trainers, video, etc.)
- games, energisers, songs, ice-breakers, etc.

2.7 Structure and Sequencing of Contents

The training course is organised in two parts, each of them consisting of five training days. In the first part key concepts and tools for conflict transformation are introduced and discussed. Towards the end of the first part participants are prepared for practically applying these concepts and tools in their real-life context.

In between the two parts, participants practically apply some of the concepts and tools either on real-life conflict or in real-life trainings which they conduct.

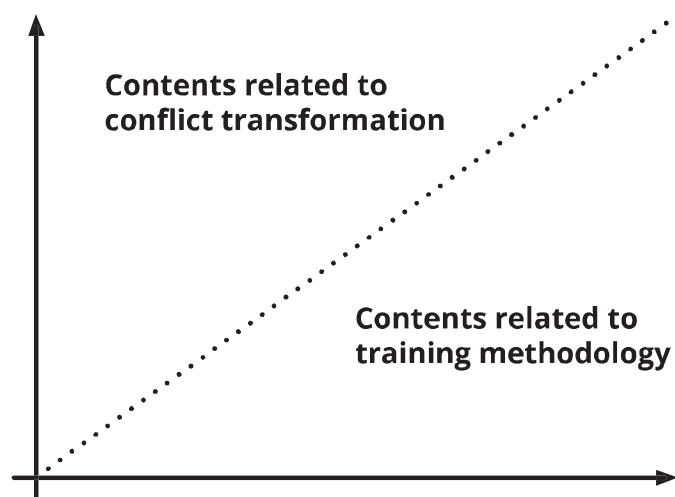
In the second part of the training of trainers the reflections about these practical experiences are the starting point to focus on facilitation and training skills, e.g. more details about adult learning, how to design a training process and developing their own profile as a trainer. Additionally, depending on the needs of the participants and their work contexts, a selection of some specific methods of conflict transformation will be addressed.

Practical experience *as a conflict worker / peacebuilder* is an important pre-condition for informed training work. Therefore the training course participants are encouraged to get involved in practical conflict transformation activities right from the beginning of the training. Their experience in this field will be included into the learning process. Field visits and excursions could be organised to provide opportunities to gain insights into a wider range of practical peacebuilding work.

Practical experience *as a trainer* is considered the most important factor in developing capacities as a trainer in nonviolent conflict transformation. Its reflection forms part of the routine work of a trainers' team. This therefore finds its place in the training course: participants will be requested to prepare and facilitate training units, receive feedback and further develop their own authentic training style. Between the two parts of the training, the participants are encouraged to facilitate training units in their own context themselves, preferably in teams, reflect their experience and bring this learning into the course. The training team will build further learning on this.

For these activities, the participants of the ToT course will be accompanied by the trainers' team. They are available for advice on possibilities for training, feedback on training modules and methods, as well as the discussion of training experiences. The lead organisation will provide opportunities for practical training work to the participants.

Graph: Distribution of Contents



The above diagram shows the distribution of programme content during the ToT course. From the very beginning, programme content relating to the pedagogy of nonviolent conflict transformation and training methodology will be introduced at all times in the course. However, the relative importance will change during the course: During the first part of the course, content relating to conflict transformation will be the main focus. Whereas new learning on conflict transformation will be introduced until the end of the course, during the second part of the training course, pedagogy, methodology and trainer skills will be at the centre of attention.

2.8 Trainers

During the ToT course, the participants are accompanied by a training team that consists of at least two trainers, ideally with a gender balance. The trainers have met before the beginning of the course and undergone a team building process. They accompany the group of participants during the whole course and are responsible for the group process. At least 75 % of the content of the course are introduced by the training team. For other parts resource persons may be invited for specific contents and to represent different (political, theoretical, pedagogical, cultural, field-work related, etc.) approaches.

The criteria for selecting trainers for a ToT course are:

- at least 8 years of professional experience as a trainer in nonviolent conflict transformation
- involvement in own conflict transformation activities as an activist in a nonviolent movement, mediator, negotiator, etc.
- inter-cultural experience and sensitivity
- ability to work in a training team
- flexibility to adapt quickly to changes and challenges with group learning processes
- high level of proficiency (oral and written) of the English language.

2.9 Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation of the course is organised in the following way:

- oral feedback rounds with participants regularly at the end of a training day and in more detail at the end of both parts of the training of trainers with written documentation of key points
- oral reflection rounds of the training team regularly on each training day and in more detail at the end of both parts of the training of trainers with written documentation of key points
- written evaluation by the participants at the end of each part of training of trainers
- written evaluation report by trainers at the end of the training of trainers.

2.10 Concluding the Training

At the end of the training course the participants receive a certificate (“has participated”). For this they will have to have participated in at least 80% of the training sessions and have prepared a written reflection related to the course and addressing personal learning aims defined at the beginning of the course.

Participants may receive a qualified certificate (“has successfully participated”) on the following additional conditions:

- s/he has demonstrated willingness and ability to get involved in concrete conflict transformation work
- s/he has demonstrated her/his capacity to facilitate training sessions during the course
- s/he has worked as part of a trainers’ team in a training on nonviolent conflict transformation for at least two training days.

2.11 Post-Training Support

After the training the learning process will continue for participants. They will gain more experiences in nonviolent conflict transformation and in training on this topic which will lead to an increased understanding of the concepts and tools, and to acquiring more skills and expertise. They will adapt the methods and tools presented in the ToT course to their local context and specific needs of their target groups.

The effectiveness of the ToT course will increase if the lead organisation provides opportunities for participants to gain more practical experiences, and if the lead organisation offers some post-training support to reflect about these practical experiences, including potential challenges and questions that arise.

Such post-training support could be offered in a systematic way for some months after the training course in the following ways:

- Individually by contacting each participant directly by phone, messenger, email, meeting either online or in person
- For the group by inviting the participants to post-training exchanges by meeting either online or in person.

Ideally, the training team will be involved in the post-training support to continue the learning process together.

2.12 Quality Criteria

The following quality criteria apply for this ToT course:

- participants receive sufficient information and relevant advice before they decide to join the course
- transparent criteria for participation
- transparent application procedure
- team building among trainers before facing the group
- regular meetings of training team throughout the course
- the expectations of the participants are taken into account
- regular feedback by participants and training team
- the training is documented, including the evaluation by the participants and training team
- based on evaluation results the course curriculum is revised or further developed
- written material and documentation is provided and access to further information is facilitated for participants
- supervision and back stopping for trainers
- participants receive a certificate at the end of the training

post-training support is offered to participants for several months by lead organisation, ideally involving the trainers.

2.13 Sample Schedule for Training of Trainers

Training Week 1

Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
<p><u>Introduction</u></p> <p>The first day is focussed on building a learning community as well as defining and agreeing on aims for learning in the group. The purpose, theory of change and structure of training course will be shared so that participants will be able to understand and relate themselves to its logic. Looking at own personal experiences with conflict will provide the material for the definition of conflict and the discovery of different conflict handling modes. On the theoretical level, the basic terminology and concepts will be presented and discussed.</p>	<p><u>Conflict Analysis</u></p> <p>On the second day we look at different aspects of a conflict setting, related to the actors involved, the issues that the conflict is about and to the dynamics that evolve in conflict situations. A range of tools will be suggested which help to analyse and visualise conflicts ranging from the interpersonal to the international level. At the end of this day participants will be able to ask useful questions to better understand conflicts that they encounter and/or set out to intervene in. A framework for looking at conflict from a gender-sensitive perspective will be provided.</p>	<p><u>Methods of Conflict Transformation & Nonviolence</u></p> <p>Different methods of conflict transformation ranging from conscientisation over nonviolent direct action towards negotiation, dealing with prejudice and discrimination and working in reconciliation processes will be presented. The role of power relationships in conflicts will be especially looked at.</p> <p>Additionally, the pragmatic and principled approach to nonviolence will be addressed. Historical examples and recent studies about the effectiveness of nonviolent resistance will be presented and discussed.</p>	<p><u>Communication and Facilitation</u></p> <p>Dialogue and constructive communication are at all stages of conflicts major tools for transformation. Key aspects of communication are presented and methods for active listening, respectful assertive speaking, etc. will be practised in order to strengthen facilitation capacities.</p>	<p><u>Adult Education</u></p> <p>Key concepts of adult education and training work will be presented and discussed based on the participants' own experiences as learners.</p> <p>In order to prepare for conducting their own practical training after the first part of the training participants will be guided through the first phases of the training cycle, i.e. analysis, design and development.</p>

Training Week 2

Day 6	Day 7	Day 8	Day 9	Day 10
<p>Reflection</p> <p>On the first training day after the participants themselves had conducted trainings in nonviolent conflict transformation, they will share and reflect about their experiences.</p>	<p>Adult Education</p> <p>Based on the recent experiences made when training on nonviolent conflict transformation more background will be given with regard to adult education and training design. The participants will develop own training programmes for different target groups, learn to choose and develop adequate methodology and present their training design for feedback from training group and training team.</p>	<p>Own Profile as Trainer</p> <p>On the eighth training day participants will experiment with and develop own training styles, learn how to adapt contents, methods and instruments to different social and cultural contexts. They discuss and practice intervision techniques and design ongoing learning processes for training teams.</p>	<p>Specific Roles and Methods of Conflict Transformation</p> <p>Depending on the needs of participants and their contexts some specific roles and methods of nonviolent conflict transformation will be selected for more in-depths learning. Methods like mediation or dealing with the past might be focussed at in this second last training day.</p> <p>Key aspects of these roles and methods will be presented and practised in interactive exercises like role-plays.</p>	<p>Closing</p> <p>On the final training day open questions will be addressed so that participants are well equipped to design and conduct trainings on nonviolent conflict transformation.</p> <p>The training course will be formally concluded with issuing a certificate and a final written evaluation.</p> <p>Additionally, participants are invited to develop a post-training action plan and some systematic post-training support will be agreed upon.</p>

2.14 Adaptations for Different Settings

Depending on the setting, adaptations of the structure and sequencing as well as contents and training modes are feasible.

Timeframe

If more time is available the duration of a training of trainers course should be expanded. It is advisable to use more training days and to divide them into more parts.

With more training days additional contents, particularly more adult education theory and more specific methods of conflict transformation, could be covered as well as more opportunities for practice sessions within the training group could be offered.

With more training parts more reflections could be done in between these parts but also more practical experiences could be gained in their real-life context.

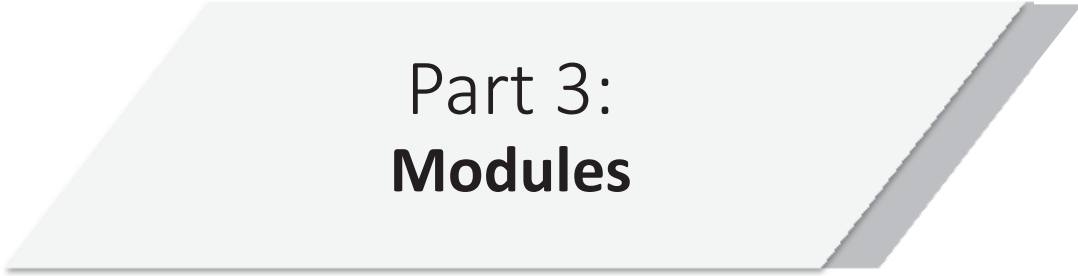
Limits for training in presence

If specific circumstances do not allow all trainers and participants to come together at a training venue in person, some online and hybrid forms are feasible.

If not all trainers can be present at the training venue the one who is not present could be included in a hybrid form. Then the remote trainer can connect with the participants and the fellow trainer(s) in the training venue by using a video conference tool. Technical requirements for this adaption are at least two computers with camera and microphone, a fast and stable internet connection and a video conference tool. Ideally, the sound and video at the training venue can be taped with external devices that cover the whole room so that all participants are heard and seen by the remote trainer. And the sound and video of the remote trainer should be broadcast via a sound system and projector on a large screen so that all participants can hear and see the remote trainer well.

If trainers and participants are not able to meet for all training days in presence some contents could be covered in online form: The trainers will deliver the training by using a video conference tool that every participant is able to use with a device of their own and in their own remote places. Technical requirements for this adaptation are at least a computer or similar device with camera and microphone for each participant, a fast and stable internet connection for all and a video conference tool that is easy to use for all. Ideally, these training units are shorter, with more breaks and still interactive so that not only content is presented but also discussions in small groups (break-out rooms) and practical exercises are included. Thus, the contents and methodology of such online sessions needs to be carefully selected.

However, for a training of trainers course which aims at preparing participants to conduct trainings in presence in future, it is essential that the trainers can model how to conduct trainings in presence. Thus, such a training of trainers course is not feasible in a pure online format.



Part 3:
Modules

PART 3: MODULES

In this third part of the manual we present the various modules that cover the contents related to conflict transformation.

The first two chapters entail the key concepts conflict and violence, followed by a chapter on causes of conflict.

Chapter 3.4 presents the conflict transformation approach in detail referring to principles and a framework of conflict transformation. Additionally the differences between conflict transformation and other approaches are explained.

In the subsequent chapter we focus on conflict analysis which is essential to conduct before intervening in a conflict setting. We present a vast range of tools which cover the elements: dynamics of a conflict, actors as well as issues.

Based on a sound conflict analysis one can design effective interventions for nonviolent conflict transformation. Criteria for good interventions as well as some tools for strategizing are presented in chapter 3.6. This chapter concludes with roleplay scenario that can be used for designing interventions in a fictional context.

The following chapters focus on different methods of conflict transformation, starting with nonviolent action. One chapter is dedicated to the basics of communication, followed by separate chapters for methods like dialogue, negotiation, facilitation and mediation. Dealing with the past and peace education are two more chapters covering more methods of conflict transformation.

In the chapter on “Humanitarian Assistance and Development Work” we deal with conflict sensitive approaches.

This part of the manual concludes with an extensive chapter on “Holistic Security”, ranging from psycho-social security to physical and digital security.

Each of these modules consists of a brief introductory note about its contents, some handouts in which the most important info is summarised as well as exercises and practical tools which are explained in didactical notes.

3.1 What is Conflict?

A shared understanding of what is conflict is important for the subsequent contents of the training. Everybody has experienced many conflicts in their lives. We suggest to build on these experiences. Thus, in the first exercise of this chapter the participants develop their own definition of conflict. Usually, these included the most important aspects of working definition of conflict that can be used throughout the training.

Additionally, you will find some definitions of conflict in this chapter. These can be used as stimulus, if the participants' draft working definition is not yet covering all important aspects. Also, the selected definitions stress specific causes of conflict and could be used to lead over to chapter 3.3 on causes of conflict.

Finally, in this chapter we offer an overview of different conflict handling modes.

What is Conflict?

A conflict is an interaction between two or more parties / people about (perceived) differences related to positions, interests, needs, values, etc.

Conflicts are inevitable and not per se negative, but an opportunity for positive social change.



Own Understanding of Conflict

Objectives

- Develop a shared understanding of what is conflict (working definition)
 - Raise awareness that conflict is not per se negative
-

Description

In this exercise the participants develop their own definition of conflict. As everybody has experienced conflicts in her/his life and used the word conflict a lot, participants are well-equipped to start from scratch. Optionally and additionally, they could be given some different textbook definitions to reflect about. They start with individual reflection, then share in small groups, before agreeing on key aspects of their definition of conflict. The trainer will summarise in the end by using three key questions.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Individually reflect some 5 min about the question:

What is conflict?

Take some notes.

Step 2:

Share in your small group about your thoughts about what is conflict.

Step 3:

Then discuss in your group which aspects are most important in order to define conflict well. List those aspects on a flipchart paper.

Step 4:

Present your key aspects of a definition of conflict in plenary.

Step 5:

When all groups have presented, the trainer can summarise the key points by using the following questions:

- Who is in conflict?
- What is a conflict about?
- How do you evaluate a conflict?

Usually the participants will have given answers to all these questions and the summary could read like this:

A conflict is

- an interaction between two or more people/parties
- about (perceived) differences related to positions, interests, needs, values, etc.
- not per se negative, but an opportunity for positive social change.

(See handout “Key Aspects of a Definition of Conflict”)

Options / Variations	<p>The individual reflection could cover more than one question. The participants could be asked to finish these three sentences:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A conflict is... • When I observe conflict... • When I am involved in a conflict... <p>The last two questions can be used to share about different conflict handling modes like avoidance or compromise (see handout “Conflict Handling Modes”).</p> <p>The discussion about what is conflict could be supported by some impulse cards with different textbook definitions of conflict (see handout “Different Definitions of Conflict”).</p>
Time needed	50 min
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Key Aspects of a Definition of Conflict
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful to develop a common understanding of what is conflict and to avoid confusion later in the process / training + Relies heavily and usually very successfully on the experiences and knowledge of the participants – Needs more time than a simple lecture on a definition of conflict
More Info	<p>For more definitions of conflict and other terms:</p> <p>Berghof Foundation (2019): Berghof Glossary on Conflict Transformation. 20 notions for theory and practice, Berlin, Germany: Berghof Foundation https://berghof-foundation.org/library/berghof-glossary</p> <p>Berghof Foundation (2004): Glossary, In: Austin, Alex / Fischer, Martina / Ropers, Norbert (eds.): Transforming Ethnopolitical Conflict. The Berghof Handbook, Wiesbaden, Germany: VS Verlag, 464-466 https://berghof-foundation.org/library/berghof-handbook-glossary</p>



Different Definitions of Conflict

“Conflicts are a phenomenon associated with an inevitable corollary of co-existence in all societies, and to some extent are an inevitable and indeed a necessary corollary of social change.

They are an expression of tensions and incompatibilities between different, mutually independent parties with regard to their respective needs, interests and values.

These conflicts are liable to lead to crises and destructive escalations affecting whole societies primarily during phases of profound socioeconomic change and political transition. In other words, such negative developments become likely in situations where life opportunities and opportunities for participation are being redistributed amongst various groups.

The problem is not the conflicts per se, but the way in which they are managed and resolved.”

Norbert Ropers (2002): Peace-Building, Crisis Prevention and Conflict Management. Technical Cooperation in the Context of Crises, Conflicts and Disasters. Eschborn, Germany: GTZ, p. 11.

“Struggles between opposing forces take many forms. Conflict has been used to include struggles that are over resources, ideas, values, wishes and deep-seated needs.”

John Burton (1996): Conflict Resolution. Its Language and Processes. Lanham: Scarecrow Press, 21

“In many instances, the origins of conflicts are in the nonfulfillment or blockage of fundamental human needs.

Conflict may then be defined empirically as escalated natural competition of two or more parties who believe they have incompatible goals, and whose aim is to neutralise, injure, gain advantage over the other party or parties.

Struggles over identity, values, power, and scarce resources are at the heart of all social conflicts.”

James H. Laue (1991): Contributions to the Emerging Field of Conflict Resolution. In: Thompson, W. Scott / Smith, Richard N. / Schraub, Kimber M. (eds.): Conflict Transformation. London, United Kingdom: MacMillan, p. 201-2.

“Conflict is a process during which two or more parties come into opposition over differences or perceived differences regarding positions, interests, values or needs.”

Translated from: Friedrich Glasl (1980): Konfliktmanagement: Diagnose und Behandlung von Konflikten in Organisationen. Bern, Switzerland: Haupt, p. 23-30.



Key Aspects of a Definition of Conflict

A conflict is...

✓ **between two or more parties/people**

Who is in conflict?

✓ **about (perceived) differences related to positions, interests, needs, values, etc.**

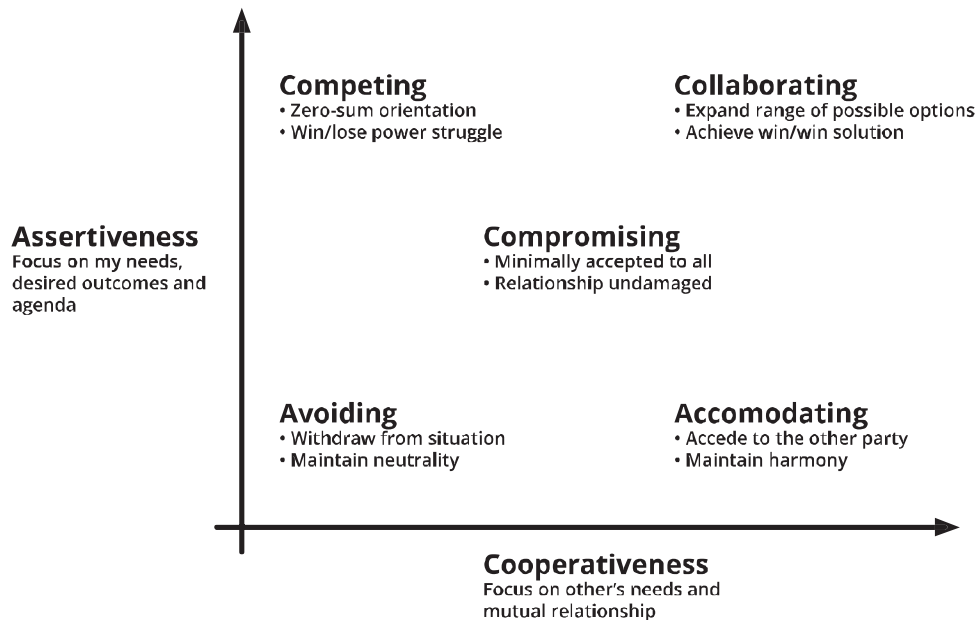
What conflict is about?

✓ **Inevitable and not per se negative, but an opportunity for positive social change**

How conflict is evaluated?



Conflict Handling Modes



According to the US-American psychologists Thomas and Kilmann, our behaviour in conflict situations is influenced by two concerns: How can we get what we want (assertiveness)? And how can we help others to get what they want (cooperativeness)? Depending on the balance between these two concerns, we respond to a conflict in five different modes.

Everybody is able to use all five conflict handling modes. Nobody is using only one mode to handle conflicts. But in certain situations you might tend to use a certain mode. If you find, it might not be the most appropriate mode for this kind of situation, try a different mode instead.

3.2 What is Violence?

Conflicts are not the same as violence. A conflict might be dealt with in a violent or nonviolent way. Thus, violence is one form how conflict is expressed or carried out.

In this chapter we will introduce the understanding of violence coined by the Norwegian conflict researcher Johan Galtung who differentiated between three types of violence: direct, structural and cultural violence.

What is Violence?

Violence consists of actions, words, attitudes, norms, structures or systems that cause physical, psychological, social or environmental damage and / or prevent people from reaching their full human potential.



Different Types of Violence

Objectives

- Identify different types of violence
 - Distinguish between direct, structural and cultural violence
-

Description

In this exercise participants will share their perspective on different forms of violence. By looking at various pictures of real-life situations they are invited to pick a situation in which they see violence.

From participants' sharing which kind of violence they see in the picture, the trainer will be equipped with many examples and keywords that can be used to present the three types of violence that Johan Galtung distinguished: direct, structural and cultural violence.

Course of Action

Step 1:

The trainer distributes – on a big table, on the floor or on pinboards – a wide range of pictures of real-life situations in which different types of violence are captured. Make sure to have several more pictures than participants.

Participants are then instructed:

“Choose a picture in which you see violence.”

Participants get some five minutes to have a closer look and pick one picture.




Step 2:

Each participant shows the selected picture to everybody while sharing what kind of violence (s)he sees in the picture. The trainer notes down keywords from the presentation on a big flipchart that shows a triangle – keywords are placed according to the three types of violence in the different corners of the violence triangle: E.g. if a participant describes a scene of direct violence the keywords (like shooting, weapons, beating) are written near the top corner of the triangle.

Other participants are allowed to comment and share their own perception. The trainer then adds those keywords. There is no need to come to a common understanding as the pictures are free for interpretation. The trainer should only make sure that the pictures cover all three types of violence and participants will share some keywords for all three corners/types of violence in their presentations.

Step 3:

After this round of sharing the trainer will be able to introduce the different types of violence: direct, structural and cultural violence. (S)he can refer to the keywords used and the pictures to illustrate the

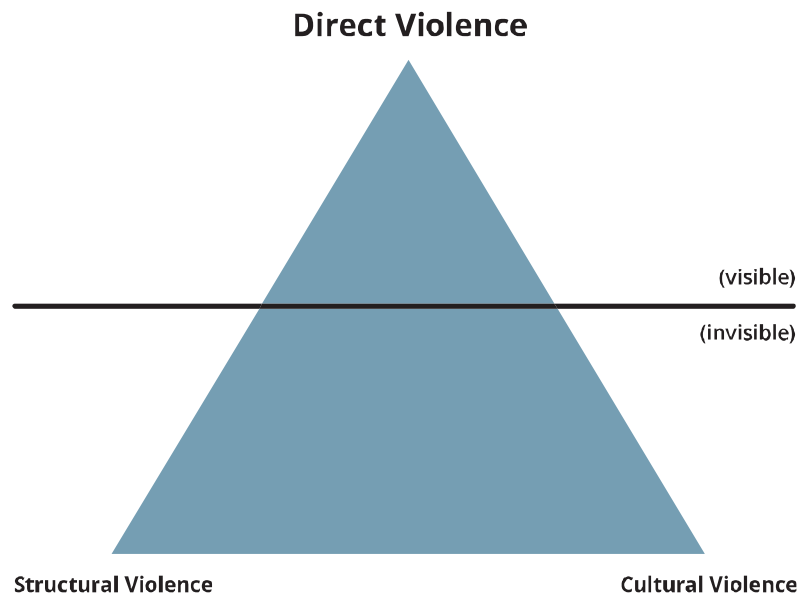
	differences between the different types of violence, and the interconnectedness of the three types.
Options / Variations	After introducing the different types of violence, the trainer could ask the participants in plenary, buzz groups or small groups to share about their own experiences of violence: Do or did you suffer from all three types of violence?
Time needed	45 min (depending on the number of participants)
Material needed	Flipchart with a triangle drawn on it, possibly meta cards with three types of violence written on it, markers, pins or tape ESSENTIAL: Printed pictures of situations of violence
	<u>Examples:</u>
	  
	<p>Armed police observing a demonstration</p> <p>Memorial of fight for independence</p> <p>Border control</p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>(Photos: Jochen Neumann)</i></p>
Handouts	Violence Triangle
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Builds on participants perceptions of violence + Helpful for relating different types of violence to real-life examples – Careful selection of pictures required to not re-traumatise participants
More Info	<p>Galtung, Johan (1969): „Violence, Peace and Peace Research“, In: Journal of Peace Research, Vol. 6, No. 3, 167-191</p> <p>Galtung, Johan (1990): „Cultural Violence“, In: Journal of Peace Research, Vol. 27, No. 3, 291-305</p>



Violence Triangle

“I understand violence as the avoidable impairment of fundamental human needs or, to put it in more general terms, the impairment of human life, which lowers the actual degree to which someone is able to meet their needs below that which would otherwise be possible”

Johan Galtung: (1993): Kulturelle Gewalt; in: Der Bürger im Staat 43, 2/1993; p.106



Direct Violence

Direct violence refers to both physical and psychological violence. Direct violence is visible. It is possible to identify a perpetrator who used violence with the intention to cause harm, and also the people affected by the violence are identifiable.

Example: A father is hitting his child with a stick.

Structural Violence

Structural violence results from social structures which lead to unequal power and unequal life chances. It can be intended or unintended.

Example: There is no wheelchair access to a seminar room on the first floor.

Cultural Violence

Cultural violence refers to cultural practices and belief systems that legitimise direct and structural violence.

Example: Children need to be educated by their parents, if needs be with force.

3.3 Causes of Conflicts

When defining what is conflict, usually different causes of conflict are listed (see exercise “Own Understanding of Conflict” and the handout “Key Aspects of a Definition of Conflict”). Different approaches of conflict transformation often come with different assumptions about the causes of conflict.

In this chapter we will present the famous Orange Example that illustrates well the differences between positions, interests and needs. We will use this distinction also to explain that for example conflict resolution approaches refer to different interests as the main cause of conflicts while conflict transformation approaches consider needs as main causes of conflict.

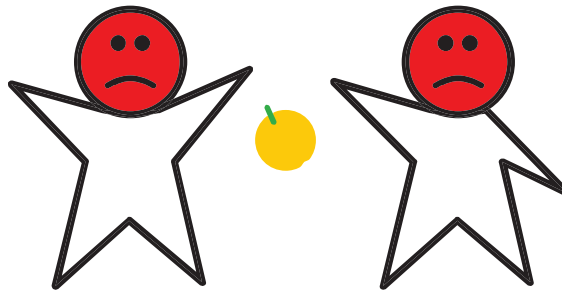
We present the Fundamental Human Needs approach in more detail, including a self-reflection exercise how these different kinds of needs are satisfied on typical day of our lives.



Positions, Interests and Needs

A simple example of conflict can help us understand better the causes of conflict, and how we can analyse these causes in order to find common ground between the conflict parties, and eventually how the parties can come to an agreement that is mutually accepted.

Graph: Conflict over an Orange



In this setting two sisters have a conflict over an orange. They talk to each other, stressing their own **position** and in this case both say: “**I want the orange.**”

It is quite likely that they will come to the following conclusion: They cut the orange in half and each one gets half an orange.

This is a typical **compromise**. It is a so-called **Win-Win-Solution**. Both win something, but actually 50% only for each of them.

In their conversation, they might move beyond the position: “I want the orange.” Then, one sister might ask why the other sister wants the orange and vice versa. When answering this question one sister might say:

“I strive for the flesh of the orange to make juice.”

And the other might say:

“I strive for the skin of the orange to bake a cake.”

Now, the **interest** that lies behind their position has been uncovered. In this case the interests are not exclusive – obviously that is not always the case when there is a conflict. But in this example, from understanding the interests behind a conflict, the sister could come to a different conclusion: One sister gets all the flesh for juice and the other gets all the skin for baking a cake.

This is again a **Win-Win-Solution**, but each one gets 100% of what they were interested in. They managed enter into a **collaboration**, and not just compromise.

Harvard Negotiation Project (Conflict Resolution School)

According to the Harvard Negotiation Project, the distinction between positions and interests is essential for the success of a negotiation process. In this way a conflict can be resolved.

If we take this example one step further, the conversation of the two sisters might continue even by analysing the deeper needs behind those different interests. One sister might explain:

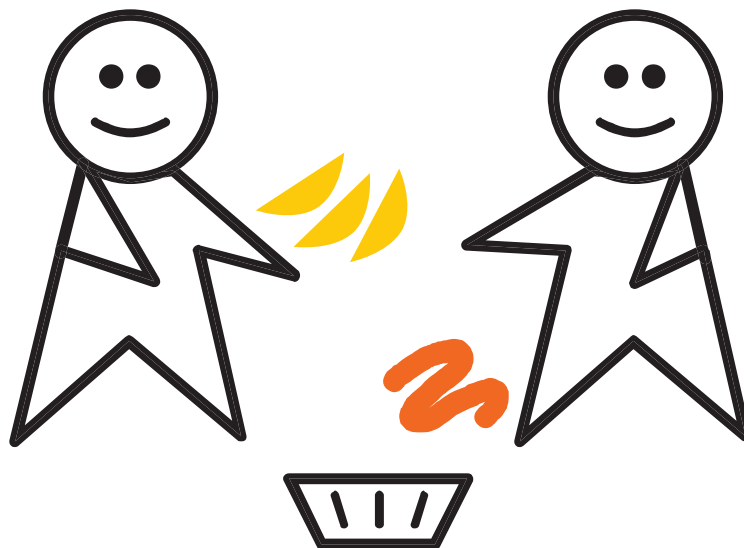
“I have the need to drink to sustain myself.”s

And the other one might say:

“I have the need to care for others to enjoy affection.”

By understanding the underlying **needs**, the sisters first of all might realise that the other sister is trying to fulfil a need that she shares. And secondly, the other sister could realise that they could not enjoy such a need for affection together. So they might come to the conclusion: Both sisters prepare juice and cake together, then share and enjoy these together.

Graph: Potential Solution to Conflict



In this Win-Win-Solution, they not only get 100% of what they were interested in, they manage to fulfil their own needs and additionally improve their relationship.

Fundamental Human Needs Theory (Conflict Transformation School)

According to the Fundamental Human Needs Theory, the distinction between positions, interests and needs is essential for a conflict to be transformed in a sustainable way.



Fundamental Human Needs

The Chilean economist Manfred Max-Neef postulates:

“First: Fundamental human needs are finite, few and classifiable.

Second: Fundamental human needs ... are the same in all cultures and in all historical periods. What changes, both over time and through cultures, is the way or the mean by which the needs are satisfied.”

“(...) it follows that, food and shelter, for example, must not be seen as needs but as satisfiers of the fundamental need for Subsistence.”

“A satisfier may contribute simultaneously to the satisfaction of different needs or, conversely, a need may require various satisfiers in order to be met. (...) For example, a mother breastfeeding her baby is simultaneously satisfying the infant's needs for Subsistence, Protection, Affection and Identity.”

List of Fundamental Human Needs according to Max-Neef:

Subsistence	Maintaining oneself as a healthy human being
Protection	Safety and security for oneself and trust in ones own future
Affection	Love, friendship and caring for and from others
Understanding	Being aware about oneself and the world around
Creation	Producing something yourself
Identity	Know who you are and where you belong
Freedom	Decide something yourself
Participation	Be or feel being part of decision-making processes
Leisure	Doing nothing; Not doing anything with a purpose

Some Types of Satisfiers according to Max-Neef:

Singular Satisfiers satisfy one particular need. In regard to the satisfaction of other needs, they are neutral.

Example:

Medicine for Subsistence

Synergic Satisfiers satisfy a given need, simultaneously stimulating and contributing to the fulfillment of other needs.

Example:

Breast-feeding for Subsistence, Affection, Protection and Identity

Pseudo-Satisfiers generate a false sense of satisfaction of a given need. They may on occasion annul, in the not too long term, that the satisfaction of the need they were originally aimed at fulfilling.

Example:

Prostitution for Affection

Violators/destroyers while intended to satisfy a given need, they not only annihilate the possibility of its satisfaction over time, but they also impair the adequate satisfaction of other needs.

Example:

Censorship as pretext for Protection, but negating Understanding, Participation, Creation, identity and Freedom

Inhibiting Satisfiers generally oversatisfy a given need, therefore seriously curtailing the possibility of satisfying other needs.

Example:

Commercial television for Leisure, but inhibiting Understanding, Creation and Identity

Source:

Max-Neef, Manfred (1991): Human Scale Development. Conception, Application and Further Reflection, New York, USA / London, UK: Apex Press, 13-54



Needs and Satisfier Journal

Objectives

- Identity one's own needs in any given day
 - Identify the satisfiers used for satisfying those needs
 - Reflect about pseudo-satisfiers, violators or inhibiting satisfiers one might have used
-

Description

In this tool the participants reflect about the different needs that are distinguished by the Fundamental Human Needs approach as well as the different types of satisfiers. These personal reflections will neither be shared in plenary nor in small group work, but remain confidential.

Course of Action**Step 1:**

Reflect individually on the following questions:

- Which needs did you satisfy yesterday?
- How did you satisfy these needs?
- How positive was the satisfaction? Did you use any negative satisfiers?

Step 2:

Note down your answers on a piece of paper or in your note pad.

Step 3:

Write down any question concerning needs and satisfiers as well as their relevance for conflict transformation for future reference during the training.

Options / Variations

-

Time needed

30 min

Material needed

Pen and paper

Handouts

Fundamental Human Needs

Strengths & Limitations

- + Helpful to check if the list of needs is relevant and matching with one's own experiences
 - + Helpful to understand the difference between needs and satisfiers (and the universal character of needs while the satisfiers may differ from culture to culture and also change over time)
 - + Helpful to identify potentially negative satisfiers one uses
 - If selected day is a typical training day the variety of needs might not have been served or experienced
-

More Info

Manfred Max-Neef (1991): Human Scale Development. Conception, Application and Further Reflection, New York, USA / London, UK: Apex Press, 13-54

3.4 What is Conflict Transformation?

A transformational approach to conflicts begins with the central goal to build constructive change out of the energy created by conflict. Conflict is considered as a natural part of human relations. Rather than viewing conflict as a threat, the transformative view sees conflict as a valuable opportunity to grow and increases our understanding of ourselves and others. Conflict can be understood as a motor of change that keeps relationships and social structures dynamically responsive to human needs.

The core question for conflict transformation is: How can conflict be addressed in ways that reduce violence and increase justice in human relationships? To reduce violence we must address both the obvious issues and content of the conflict and also the underlying patterns and causes. To increase justice we must ensure that people have access to political course of actions and voice in the decisions making processes.

“Conflict transformation recognises that contemporary conflicts require more than the reframing of positions and the identification of win-win outcomes. The very structure of parties and relationships may be embedded in a pattern of conflictual relationships that extend beyond the particular site of conflict. Conflict transformation is therefore a process of engaging with and transforming the relationships, interests, discourses and, if necessary, the very constitution of society that supports the continuation of violent conflict.”⁴

Hugh Miall, conflict researcher

Conflict transformation views peace as centred and rooted in the quality of relationships. This includes both power-balanced interactions and the ways in which we structure our social, political, economic, and cultural relationships. In essence, rather than seeing peace as a static “end-state” conflict transformation views peace as a continuously evolving and developing quality of relationship.

Relationships are at the heart of conflict transformation. Rather than concentrating exclusively on the content and substance of the dispute, the transformational approach suggests that the key to understanding conflict and developing creative change processes lies in seeing the less visible aspects of relationship. While the issues over which people fight are important and require creative response, relationships represent a web of connections that form the broader context of the conflict. It is out of this relationship context that particular issues arise and either become volatile or get quickly resolved.

⁴ Hugh Miall (2015) in: Oliver Ramsbotham, Tom Woodhouse / Hugh Miall: Contemporary Conflict Resolution. (Third revised edition), Cambridge: United Kingdom: Polity Press.



Difference between Conflict Transformation and other Approaches

Writers in the field of conflict studies often use key terms in loose and contradictory ways, reflecting the reality that concepts have not been clearly defined. To encourage coherent usage of these terms the following definitions have been adopted for the purposes of the Berghof Handbook for Conflict Transformation.

Conflict Management

Activities undertaken to limit, mitigate and contain open conflict. In particular it refers to actions that aim to control and handle a conflict in order to limit its negative effects and bring it to an end and to prevent the vertical (i.e. intensification of violence) or horizontal (territorial spread) escalation of existing violent conflict.

Conflict Resolution

Activities undertaken over the short term and medium term dealing with, and aiming at overcoming, the deep-rooted causes of conflict, including the structural, behavioural, or attitudinal aspects of the conflict. The process focuses more on the relationships between the parties than the content of a specific outcome.

Conflict Settlement

The achievement of an agreement between the conflict parties on a political level which enables them to end an armed conflict but which does not necessarily fundamentally alter the underlying causes of the conflict. It is usually content orientated and restricted to the Track 1 level.

Conflict Transformation

A generic, comprehensive term referring to actions and processes which seek to alter the various characteristics and manifestations of conflict by addressing the root causes of a particular conflict over the long term. It aims to transform negative destructive conflict into positive constructive conflict and deals with structural, behavioural and attitudinal aspects of conflict. The term refers to both the process and the completion of the process. As such it incorporates the activities of processes such as Conflict Prevention and Conflict Resolution and goes farther than conflict settlement or conflict management.

Source:

Alex Austin / Martina Fischer / Norbert Ropers (eds.) (2004): Transforming Ethnopolitical Conflict. The Berghof Handbook. Wiesbaden, Germany: VS Verlag, pp. 464-465.



Principles of Conflict Transformation⁵

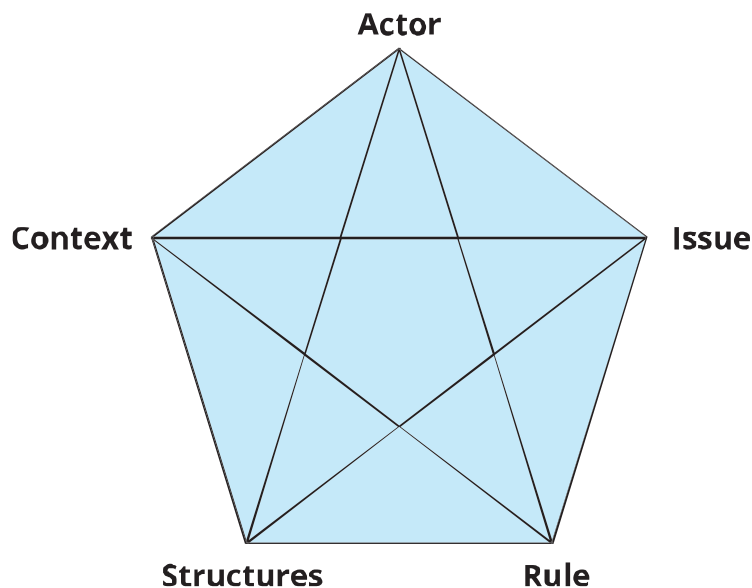
1. Conflict should not be regarded as an isolated event that can be resolved or managed, but as an integral part of society's on-going evolution and development;
2. Conflict should not be understood solely as an inherently negative and destructive occurrence, but rather as a potentially positive and productive force for change if harnessed constructively;
3. Conflict transformation goes beyond merely seeking to contain and manage conflict, instead seeking to transform the root causes themselves - or the perceptions of the root causes - of a particular conflict;
4. Conflict transformation is a long-term, gradual and complex process, requiring sustained engagement and interaction;
5. Conflict transformation is not just an approach and set of techniques, but a way of thinking about and understanding conflict itself;
6. Conflict transformation is particularly suited for intractable conflicts, where deep-rooted issues fuel protracted violence;
7. Conflict transformation adjusts to the ever changing nature of a conflict, particularly during pre- and post-violence phases and at any stage of the escalation cycle;
8. Conflict transformation is always a non-violent process, which is fundamentally opposed to violent expressions of conflict;
9. Conflict transformation addresses a range of dimensions - the micro-, meso- and macro-levels; local and global;
10. Conflict transformation is concerned with five specific types of transformation, focusing upon the structural, behavioural and attitudinal aspects of conflict:

⁵ The Global Coalition for Conflict Transformation (GCCT) has developed a set of principles to contribute to the conceptual understanding of what conflict transformation is. These principles are open for discussion. If you use the comment function on their website you can propose amendments or additions.

<http://www.transconflict.com/gcct/principles-of-conflict-transformation/>

- a. **Actors** – modifying actors’ goals and their approach to pursuing these goals, including by strengthening understanding as to the causes and consequences of their respective actions;
- b. **Contexts** – challenging the meaning and perceptions of conflict itself, particularly the respective attitudes and understandings of specific actors towards one another;
- c. **Issues** – redefining the issues that are central to the prevailing conflict, and reformulating the position of key actors on those very issues;
- d. **Rules** – changing the norms and rules governing decision-making at all levels in order to ensure that conflicts are dealt with constructively through institutional channels;
- e. **Structures** – adjusting the prevailing structure of relationships, power distributions and socio-economic conditions that are embedded in and inform the conflict, thereby affecting the very fabric of interaction between previously incompatible actors, issues and goals.

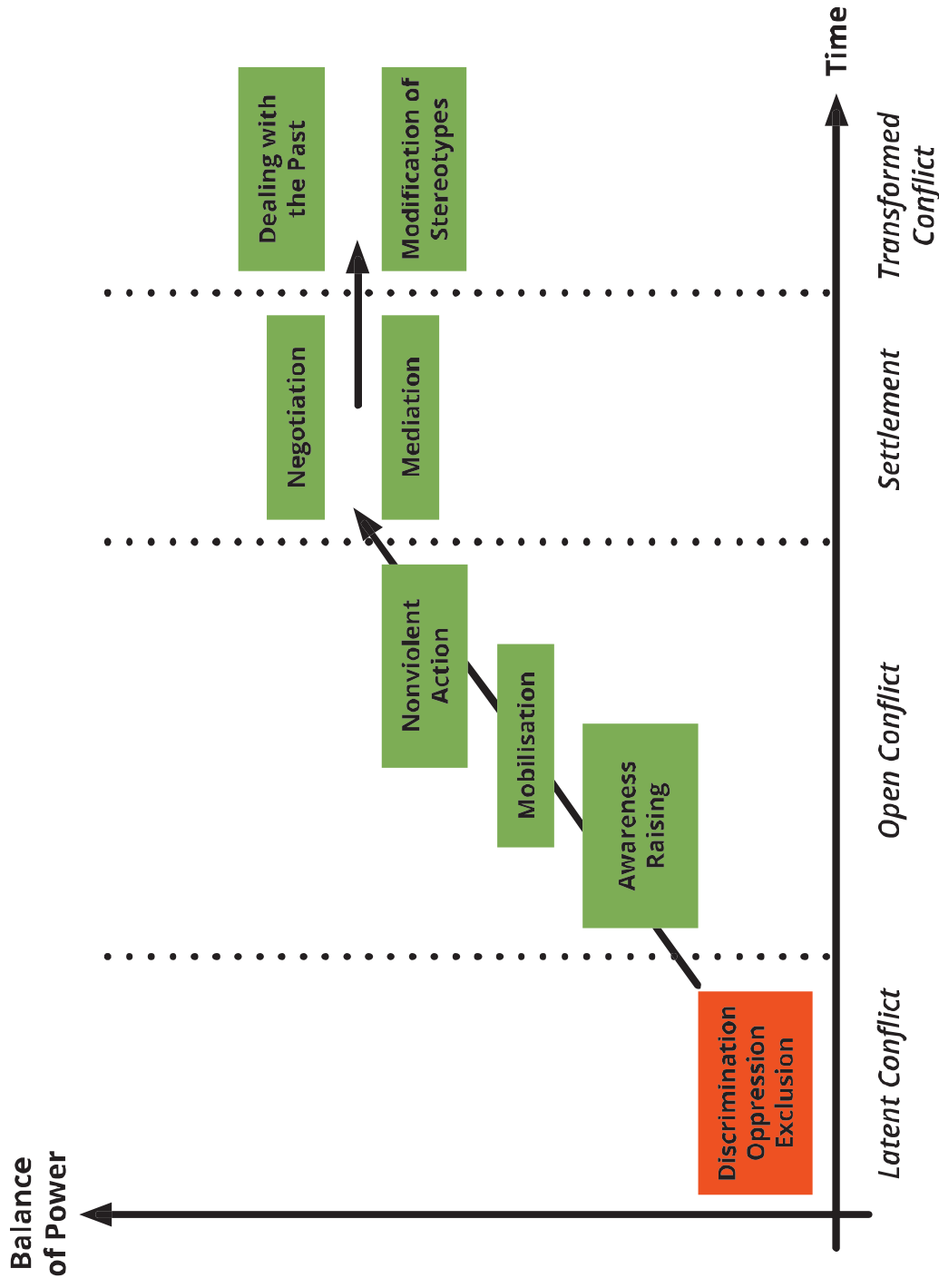
Graph: Types of Transformation



11. For conflict transformation to occur, tensions between parties to the conflict must be overcome – first, by ensuring all actors recognize that their respective interests are not served by resorting to violence; and second, by seeking consensus on what should be transformed and how;
12. Conflict transformation stresses the human dimension by reminding parties of the compatible nature of their needs, instead of emphasizing their opposing interests, and by rejecting unilateral decisions and action, particularly those representing a victory for one of the parties to the conflict;
13. Conflict transformation does not resort to a predetermined set of approaches and actions, but respects and adapts to the particularities of a given setting;
14. Conflict transformation looks beyond visible issues and is characterized by creative problem-solving, incorporating the perspectives a broad array of actors, including those typically marginalized from such considerations;
15. Conflict transformation invariably involves a third, impartial party, in order to help actors alter their cognitive and emotional views on the ‘Other’, thereby helping to break down divisions between ‘Us’ and ‘Them’;
16. Conflict transformation represents an ambitious and demanding task, which is better equipped to contend with the asymmetric, complex and protracted nature of contemporary conflicts than prevailing techniques and approaches.



Framework of Conflict Transformation



The conflict transformation process is usually quite complex. A framework that captures the different phase of a conflict and the respective methods used to move the conflict further in its nonviolent transformation can be of great help.

Diana Francis developed such a diagram of stages and processes of conflict transformation. We adapted by placing it on a timeline. Though the framework suggests a chronological order of the events, it has to be acknowledged that conflict transformation processes do not follow in clear and orderly sequence. There will be setbacks and new approaches will have to be tried. In real life, stages and processes are not clear cut and separated. Different actors will employ different processes parallel – probably at the same time - to each other, perhaps beginning to work at different segments of the conflict. In some cases it has proved to be extremely important to begin with “dealing with the past” already long before negotiations became possible. This provided experience, connections and knowledge that were useful when the history went on.

In the first stage of this idealtype framework the conflict still is latent. There is a situation of oppression, with extreme imbalance of power, which is supposed to be transformed into one of genuine peace. The oppressed group still remains passive in the face of extreme injustice or structural violence. They may do so because of tradition or lack of awareness, or power balance is such that they have no chance of being taken seriously in any demands or requests they may make.

In order for this to change some individual or group will need to begin to reflect upon, understand and articulate what is happening and encourages others to do the same. The process as such was coined as “awareness raising”. This process will, if it generates sufficient determination, lead to the formation of groups committed to change. As their power and visibility increases, these groups will be seen as a threat by those in power and a stage of open confrontation becomes inevitable. A stage which may well involve repressive measures on the part of the power holders, even if the oppressed have opted to act nonviolently.

During the stage of open conflict, the relationship in power between the opposing parties will change as a result of the ongoing confrontation and other developments inside the parties or in the wider environment. The formerly oppressed may manage to level the playing field with creative nonviolent action and campaigns. The privileged and formerly more powerful group may only now acknowledge that there is a conflict and talking to the other side is necessary. Once the oppressed groups have increased their relative power or leverage sufficiently, they can expect to be taken seriously as partners in dialog. At this stage it is possible to begin the processes like dialogue, negotiation, facilitation or mediation (see chapters 3.10 to 3.13). This will not be a smooth process. Talks may break down, agreements may be broken, and the conflict may flare up again.

Non-partisan intervention by a third party can help both in preparing the parties for negotiation and in negotiating or mediating themselves. And through the work of preparing

the ground, through face-to-face dialogue, some of the heat may be taken out of the situation, some more hope and trust generated, some of the prejudice dissipated, which in turn will facilitate the reaching of and adherence to agreements.

Once an agreement was reached, it may be possible to begin to deal with some of the remaining psychological damage which the conflict and its causes have occasioned and to develop more positive relationships between the previously conflicting groups. These more positive relationships will be consolidated through a long-term process of conflict transformation, and will find expression in social, political and economic institutions. But societies never remain static and a final phase of peace will not be. A process of maintaining awareness, of education, management of differences and adjustment and engagement on all levels could follow.

Extreme imbalances of power are not the only starting point for the route to open conflict. The stages and processes leading to it may begin elsewhere. But questions of power and justice need to be taken into account in any consideration of conflict and how to engage or respond to it.

3.5 Conflict Analysis

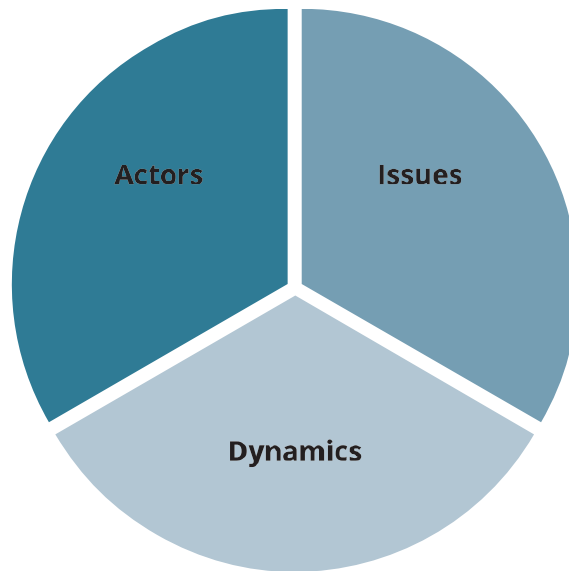
Before we intervene in a conflict setting we should analyse the conflict in detail. Conflict analysis is essential for well-designed and effective conflict transformation efforts.

In this chapter we introduce a number of tools for conflict analysis. In general, these conflict analysis tools serve the following purposes:

- To understand the context of conflict in which you live or want to work
- To identify entry points and develop new interventions for nonviolent conflict transformation
- To adapt existing interventions to make them more conflict-sensitive
- To better understand and monitor the interaction between the context, the conflict dynamics and the intervention.

A sound conflict analysis covers the dynamics of a conflict, the actors as well as the issues at stake in this conflict. No single tool generates all the answers. But a selection of tools should be used which complement each other and cover all three elements.

Graph: Elements of Conflict Analysis



In this chapter we present the following tools:

<u>Dynamics</u>	<u>Actors</u>	<u>Issues</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Timeline ✓ Camel's Back / Phases of Conflict ✓ Conflict Scenarios 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actor Mapping ✓ The Pyramid 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Problem / Conflict Tree ✓ The Onion ✓ ABC Triangle ✓ Dividers and Connectors ✓ Systems Map



Timeline

Objectives

- Identify key events in the history of a conflict (from the different perspectives of the main parties)
- Raise awareness for the history of the other parties

Description

In a Timeline one analyses the key events in the history of the conflict. The dates of the events are listed in chronological order and in scale on an arrow that indicates the timeline.

Experience shows that conflict parties have their own perspective on the history of a conflict. They consider different events as most important and as turning points in the course of the conflict. Also, the same date or event might be viewed very differently, i.e. a battle might be seen as a victory or a defeat. By developing a timeline for each of the main parties of the conflict one can better understand their different perspectives.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Decide which time span you want to analyse, how far back in time you want to go in listing key events. Draw a time axis on large sheet of paper.

Decide which main actors you select in order to capture their different perspectives. It is recommended to start with only the two main parties.

Step 2:

List the relevant dates from the perspective of the main actors.

To remain flexible it is recommended to use meta cards for important dates and not draw immediately on the flipchart paper.

Step 3:

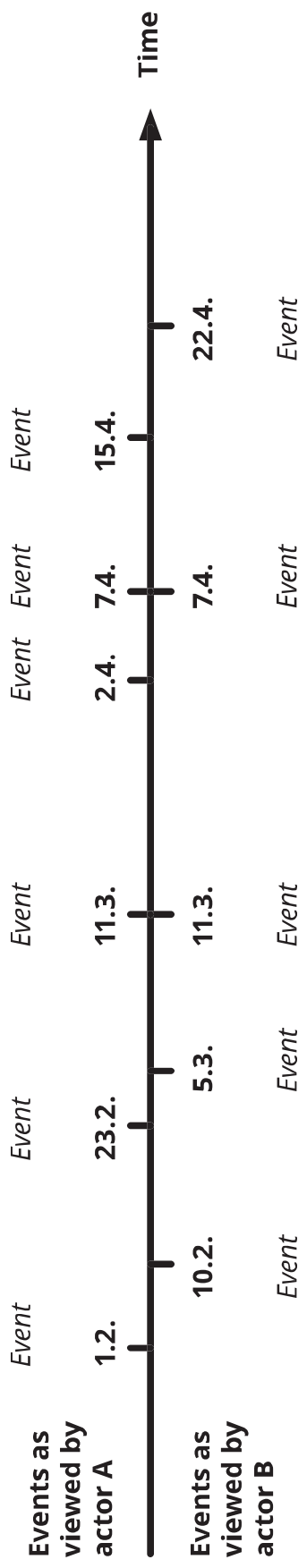
Discuss how the same date might be viewed by the other side. Describe and note down the meaning of each event for each of the main parties. You can write the different dates and viewpoints above and below the time axis.

Options / Variations

If the main parties are participating in the analysis be prepared for them challenging the description of an event given by the other side. The aim should be that the different perspectives are noted and accepted. There is no need to come to an agreement; viewpoints do not have to change and will remain different.

Time needed	60 min (for two main parties)
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Sample: Timeline
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful to understand the history of a conflict + Helpful to realise that one's own perspective is only part of the "truth" and subjective – Difficult to facilitate discussion about different perspectives (if analysis is done with the main parties) – One can get lost in details and time if the time span covered is too long
More Info	<p>Timeline as a tool for conflict analysis:</p> <p>Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.</p>

Sample: Timeline





Camel's Back / Phases of Conflict

Objectives

- Identify important phases in the history of the conflict, especially the phases of escalation and de-escalation
- Stimulate discussions about different perceptions about historical events and phases
- Identify current phase of the conflict and possible future developments
- Draw conclusions how future developments could be influenced and what kind of activities are needed

Description

In a Camel's Back the increasing and decreasing intensity of violence is captured as a curve. Certain events may trigger an escalation of the conflict, others may eventually lead to de-escalation.

In an ideal-type course of a conflict the following five phase are observed:

Pre-Conflict:

In this phase people might not be aware of the conflict. It can remain latent, still hidden. One or more parties might be aware or becomes more aware of a conflict. Relationships between parties are tense or contact may be avoided with each other altogether.

Confrontation:

At this stage the conflict becomes more open and visible. The party who is sensing some kind of injustice will air its concerns more and more public. Clashes with the other side occur and could occasionally turn into open violence. Each side is trying to find allies and to close ranks. Relationships between the conflicting parties are strained and polarised.

Crisis:

In this phase tension reaches its peak and turns into open violence. In a large scale conflict it can lead to open warfare with people being killed, usually on all sides. The communication between the conflicting parties is reduced or has even ceased. Perceptions of the other party are dominated by enemy images and public statements are rather accusatory than reconciling.

Outcome:

The course of the conflict will eventually lead to an outcome. Possibly, one side wins over the other or a mutually hurting stalemate is reached so that a ceasefire is agreed. If negotiations start, possibly with the support of a mediator, the weaker party might give in to the demands

of the other party. In any case, in this phase the tension decreases, communication lines are re-established and ideally at least some kind of settlement is reached.

Post-Conflict:

In this phase the tension further decreases, relationships between the conflicting parties are improving. Ideally, the conflict is transformed in a way that root causes of the conflict are addressed so that more social justice is achieved for all parties. If the parties succeed future violent outbreaks of conflicts can be prevented. If not, this phase might turn into another pre-conflict situation.

The Camel's Back is one tool to analyse the dynamics of a conflict and is widely used in conflict transformation (it is also called "Stages of Conflict").

Course of Action

Step 1:

Decide for which period of time and from what perspective you want to analyse the conflict.

It can be very eye-opening to draw more than one map, namely from different perspectives.

Step 2:

List some relevant events in which tensions were increasing. Pay special attention to nonviolent protests as well as outbreaks of violence in which property was destroyed or people were hurt or even killed. Likewise collect events in which tensions were decreasing. Specific focus should be placed on direct communication between the conflicting parties and the results of it.

Step 3:

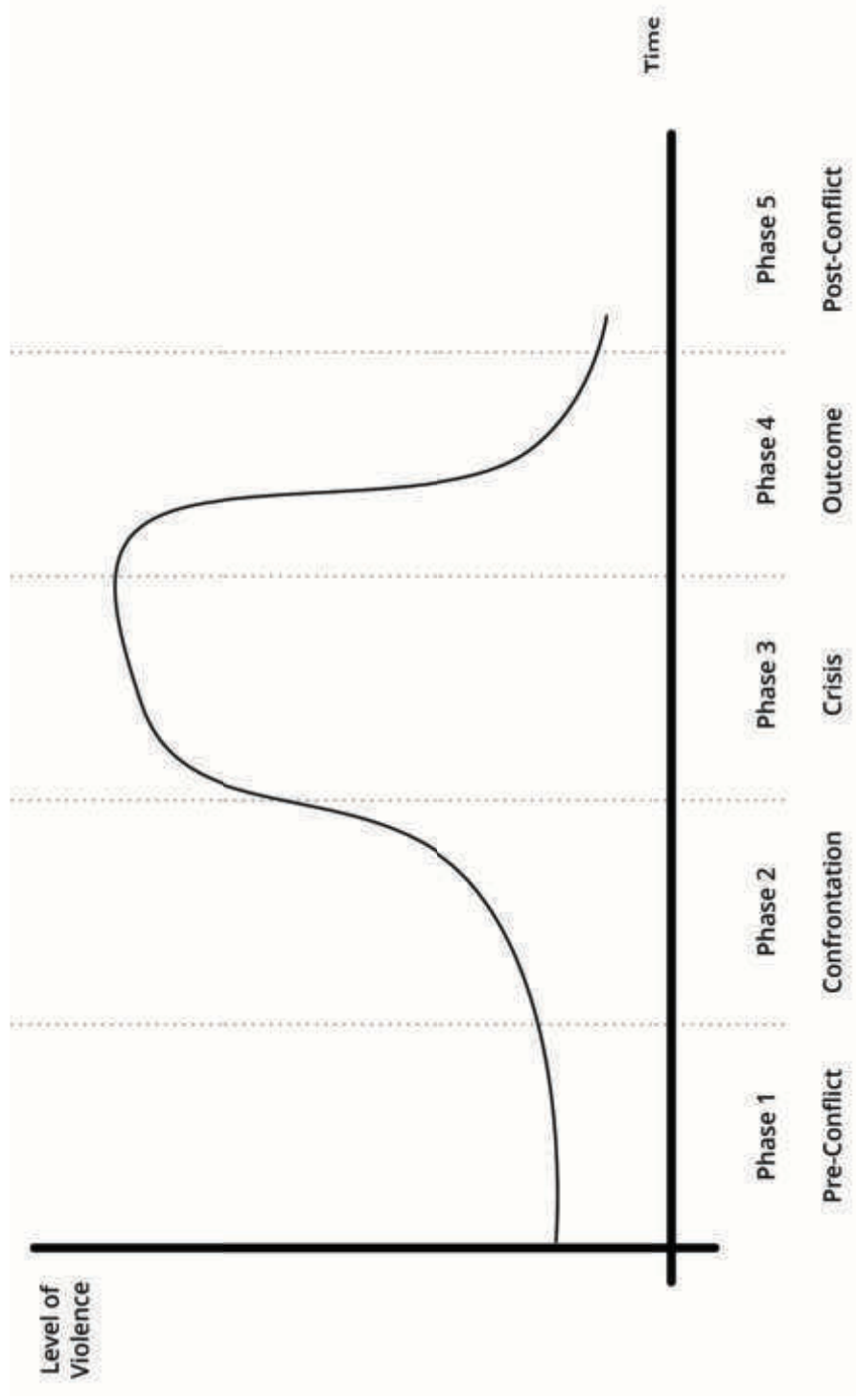
Place these events on the timeline and discuss with which of the five phases these match. Try to figure out the sequence of phases. Keep in mind that the ideal-type course of a conflict seldomly shows in real life. It is much more likely that violence decreases at times, but continues to the extent of confrontations, then flaring up again after some time, instead of leading to a peaceful settlement right away.

Step 4:

Discuss how you assess the oscillating curve of the conflict. Try to figure out at what phase the conflict is currently in. And, discuss, which future course the conflict might take.

Options / Variations	As with many tools, it can be used by analysing the conflict from different perspectives, e.g. the different parties to the conflict.
Time needed	60 min (for at least one perspective)
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful for a group / team to understand the dynamics of a conflict + Helpful to understand the different perceptions of relevant actors of important events in the course of a conflict + Helpful to identify potential scenarios how the conflict may evolve in the future – Listing many violent events and long periods of large scale violence can be disempowering – Difficult to find patterns leading to escalation and de-escalation of conflict
More Info	<p>Camel's Back (also called: Stages of Conflict) as a tool for conflict analysis:</p> <p>Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.</p>

Sample: Camel's Back (Ideal-type Model)





Conflict Scenarios

Objectives

- Identify the potential future course of the conflict
 - Generate indicators for monitoring which scenario is evolving
 - Prepare a basic contingency plan for the different conflict scenarios
-

Description

In Conflict Scenarios one analyses how the conflict could develop in the future. Usually the main features of the best case, normal case and worst case scenarios are described. Additionally some key indicators are listed which would be observable if one of the scenarios is becoming reality. Furthermore, it is recommendable to note down some strategies how one could react if the scenario unfolds. Thus, the tool will equip you not only with some early warning indicators but also with a basic contingency plan to avoid some negative consequences of the worst case scenario.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Discuss about the best and worst case scenario that you can imagine in the given context. Referring back to the history of conflict (see the tools “Timeline” or “Camel’s Back / Phases of Conflict”) can give you an idea what could happen if the conflict erupts into more violence or if violence decreases and the conflict is handled constructively.

Step 2:

List the main features of the best, normal and worst case scenarios as well as indicators for each of these scenarios in a table on a big flipchart or on paper (see “Worksheet: Conflict Scenarios”).

Step 3:

Discuss how you could react to the different scenarios in order to contribute positively to nonviolent conflict transformation or at least not fuel the conflict with your intervention and protect yourself.

Step 4:

List the most effective strategies in the table for each of the scenarios.

Options / Variations

-

Time needed

60 min

Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Worksheet: Conflict Scenarios
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful for monitoring future developments and for reacting to different scenarios, especially if the worst case is unfolding + Basis for a monitoring system that needs to be developed later in the implementation phases of the intervention – Difficult to foresee the future developments – Danger to imagine worst case with intense level of violence which might be highly unlikely in the given context
More Info	-

Worksheet: Conflict Scenarios

Scenarios	Features	Indicators	Strategies to react
Best Case			
Normal Case			
Worst Case			



Actor Mapping

Objectives

- Identify relevant actors in the current conflict setting
- Identify the relationships between actors, e.g. who is in conflict with whom
- Stimulate discussions about different perceptions about the role of relevant actors and their relationships with each other
- Identify potential allies and/or spoilers and thus entry points and foci of future activities

Description

In an Actor Mapping the most relevant actors and their different relationships are captured by a symbolic code. Each relevant actor is drawn as a circle. The size of the circle reflects the power of the respective actor with regard to the issue of the conflict. The most relevant kinds of relationships between the various actors range from alliances to conflict.

To systematically map the different relationships between actors a symbolic code should be agreed upon (see Sample Actor Mapping and suggested Legend below).

The Actor Mapping is one form of stakeholder analysis and is widely used in conflict transformation (it is also called “Conflict Mapping”).

Course of Action

Step 1:

Decide what you want to map, at what time and from what point of view.

It is recommended to choose a particular moment in the course of a conflict as the relationships between actors might change drastically after a specific event.

Likewise it is recommended to identify from which perspective the analysis is conducted, and often it is fair to start with your own / group’s / organisation’s viewpoint.

It can be very eye-opening to draw more than one map – either from different perspectives or at different points in time, or both.

Step 2:

List the relevant actors, including yourself, your group or organisation.

Step 3:

Discuss how much power these actors have with regard to the conflict, and draw the size of their circle accordingly.

To remain flexible it is recommended to use meta cards and not draw

immediately on a flipchart paper.

Step 4:

Discuss how you assess the relationships between the actors, and indicate these by using a symbolic code (see Legend below).

To increase the clarity of the map you might have to shuffle the meta cards.

Step 5:

Discuss how you / your group or organisation is linked to the actors in conflict, possibly only indirectly through other actors. Try to identify potential allies and/or spoilers.

Options / Variations

If people want to include issues that are key for some specific relationships it is optional to add a square or rectangle which mentions the issue (see suggested Legend below).

Time needed

60 min (for at least one perspective)

Material needed

Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts

Strengths & Limitations

- + Helpful for a group / team to come to a common understanding who the most relevant actors are
- + Helpful to understand the relationship between the most relevant actors
- + Helpful to identify entry points and one's own access to key actors that need to be addressed

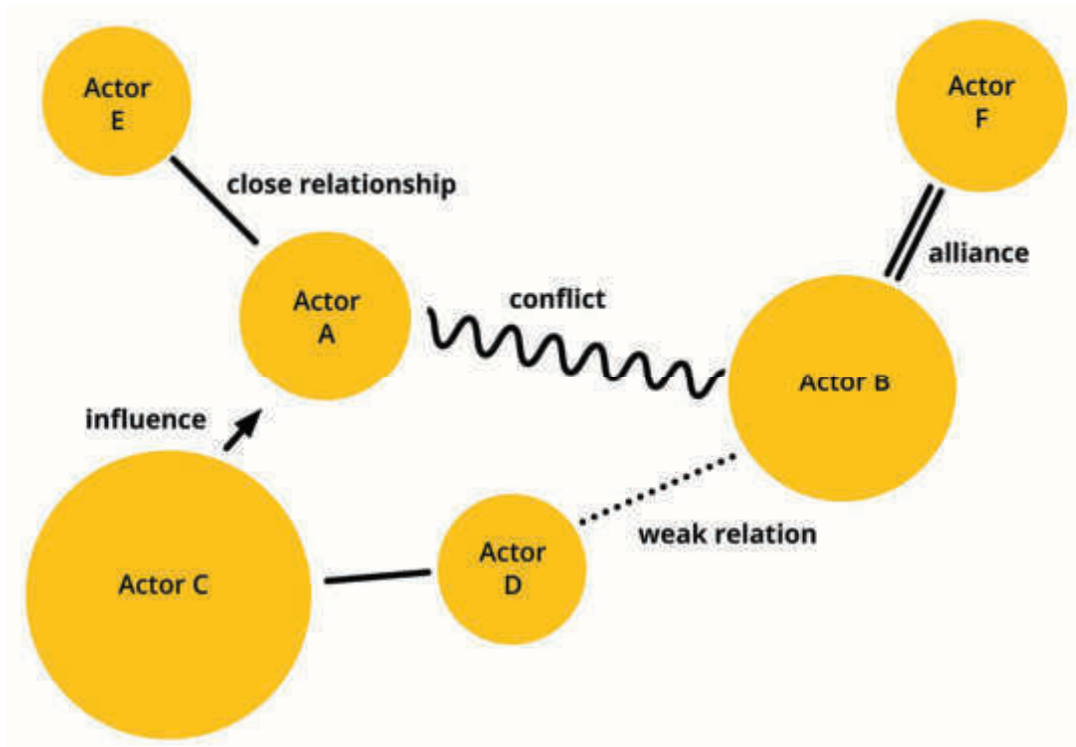
- Number of relevant actors difficult to limit
- High number of actors leads to lack of clarity of the map

More Info

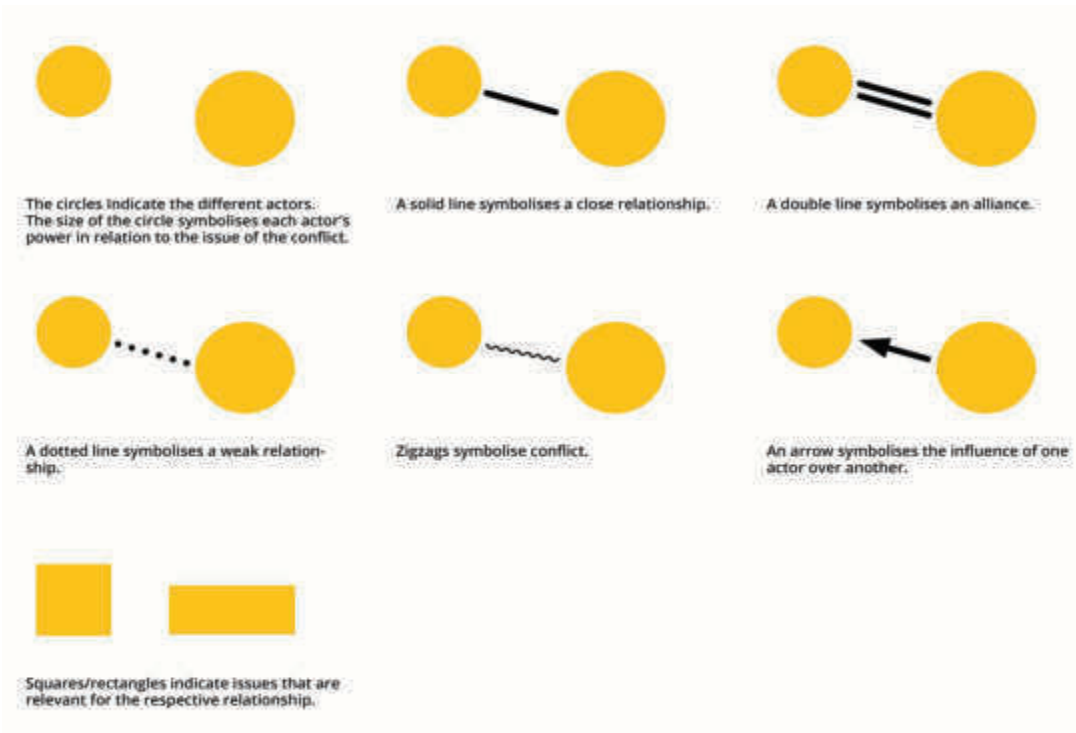
Actor Mapping (also called: Conflict Mapping) as a tool for conflict analysis:

Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.

Sample: Actor Mapping



Legend: Actor Mapping





The Pyramid

Objectives

- Identify key actors on different levels of society
 - Identify potential allies and/or spoilers and thus entry points and foci of future activities
-

Description

In the Pyramid tool one analyses the actors on three different levels of society.

The Pyramid is based on the model developed by the US-american peace researcher and practitioner John Paul Lederach. According to Lederach experience has shown that conflict transformation is more effective if peace interventions are undertaken on all levels of society. He distinguishes between three different levels of leadership in a society:

Top Level:

On the top level of society are the national leaders of government, military as well as opposition movements and religious leaders. These are few, but highly visible and powerful actors. Their public exposure can become a disadvantage as they have less flexibility and have to fear a loss of face when they deviate from their publicly stated positions.

Middle Level:

Leaders on this level are from specific sectors like academia, professional bodies as well as non-governmental organisations. They have the comparative advantage that they tend to have some links with the top level as well as the grassroots level. Their power base is much weaker than of those on the top level, it is rather based on good relations.

Grassroots Level:

Actors on the grassroots level include local elders and other leaders and activists from community-based organisations, initiatives and movements. These are close to the realities of the citizens. They are well aware of the interests and needs of people on the ground but lack the power and voice to be heard by the top level.

Lederach coined a new approach called “middle-out approach”. In a **top-down approach** the leaders on top try to exert their power to change a law or make a peace agreement, hoping for the effect to trickle down to the other levels of society. In a **bottom-up approach** the people on the grassroots level rise up and demand changes in society.

However, Lederach adds the **middle-out approach** to these two strategies that the leaders on the middle level can use their comparative advantages to convey a message from the people on the grassroots level to the top leaders and vice versa. In this way, leaders on the middle level can bridge divides in a society. Lederach considers leaders on the middle level key to effective conflict transformation processes.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Draw a large pyramid with three levels with the grassroots level at the bottom.

Step 2:

Enter the relevant actors, including yourself, on the respective level of society.

Step 3:

Discuss how the actors are linked with each other, especially linkages across the different levels are important to note.

Step 4:

Discuss how you / your group or organisation is linked to the actors in conflict, especially across the different levels of society. Try to identify potential allies and/or spoilers.

Options / Variations

The analysis could be extended by noting the different activities and approaches the actors on the different levels use so far for dealing with the conflict.

Time needed

60 min

Material needed

Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts

Sample: The Pyramid

Strengths & Limitations

- + Helpful for a group / team to come to a common understanding who the most relevant actors are and on which societal level oneself is situated
 - + Helpful to understand the linkages between actors, especially those across different levels of society
-

-
- + Helpful to identify entry points and one's own linkages with key actors that need to be addressed
 - High number of actors leads to lack of clarity of the pyramid

More Info

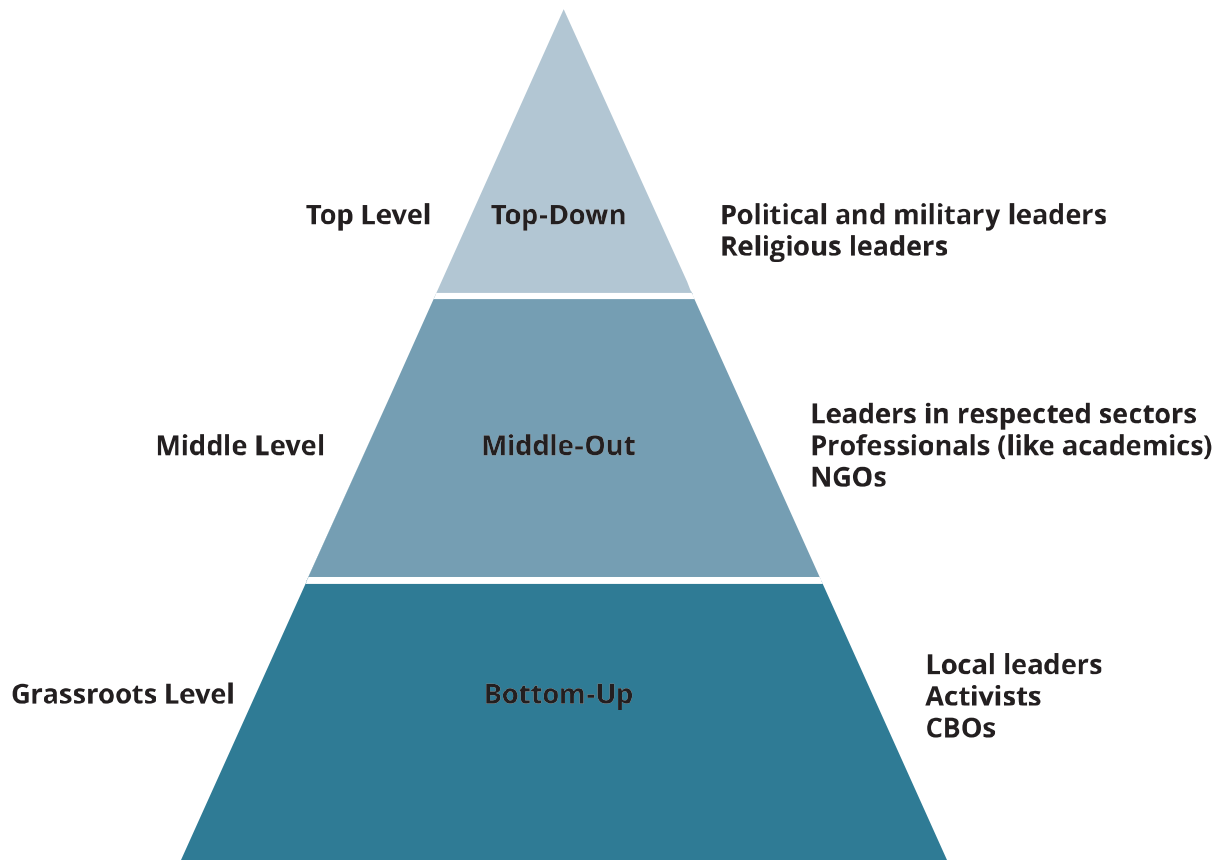
The Pyramid as a tool for conflict analysis:

Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.

The Pyramid model of society and levels of leadership:

John Paul Lederach (1997): Building Peace. Sustainable Reconciliation in Divided Societies. Washington D.C., USA: United States Institute of Peace Press, pp 37-55

Sample: Pyramid





Problem / Conflict Tree

Objectives

- Identify the core problem in a conflict setting as well as causes and effects
- Stimulate discussions about causes and effects
- Draw conclusions on which issue (core problem) future activities should be focused (see Objective Tree in the chapter “Designing Interventions”)

Description

In a Problem / Conflict Tree one analyses a context by prioritising a core problem (the trunk), by uncovering its underlying causes (the roots), and by depicting the subsequent effects of the problem (the branches).

The Problem Tree is a key element of the Logical Framework Approach that is widely used in development work. As a Conflict Tree it can be used for conflict analysis.

The following questions are to be discussed:

- What is the main problem in the given context? Why is change needed?
- What are the root causes of this problem? Why does it exist?
- What are the effects that result from this problem? Why is it important to solve the problem?

The Problem / Conflict Tree can be used in combination with the Objective Tree in order to translate the problem analysis into formulating the objectives of a project intervention.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Draw the shape of a big tree with a trunk, roots and branches on a flipchart paper. Indicate with meta cards that the branches resemble the effects, the trunk the core problem and the roots the causes.

Step 2:

Write (or draw) any relevant aspect of the given context on a meta card.

Step 3:

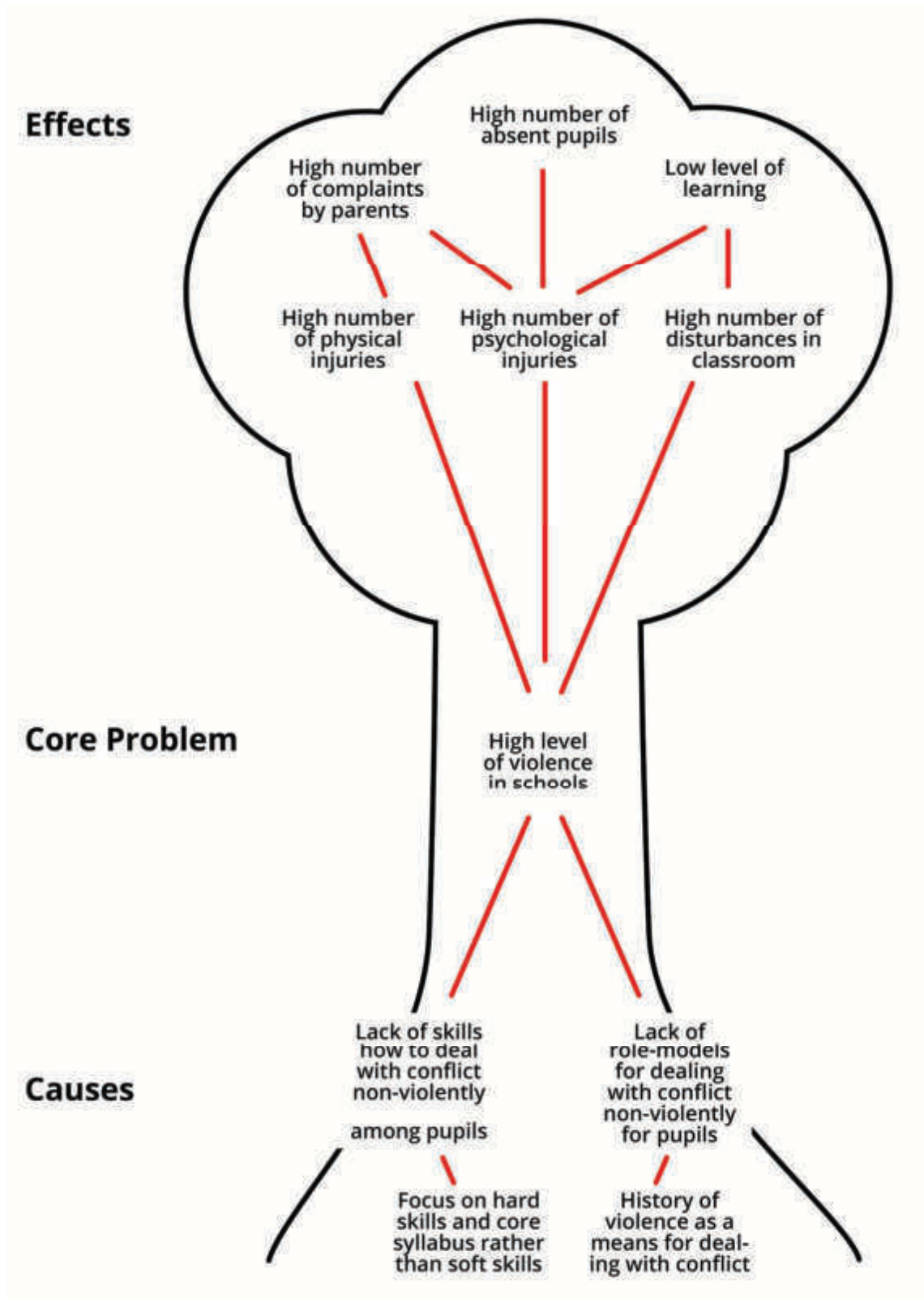
Place cards on the flipchart according to your understanding either on the trunk as the core problem, on the roots as a cause, or on the branches as an effect.

Step 4:

Discuss how people might have placed the same or similar aspects in different places. The point is to distinguish between causes and effects and come to an agreement within the group. Single out the core problem that the group wants to address.

Options / Variations	If people discover effects that seem to turn into causes as well, we speak of systemic or circular relationships between a cause and an effect. In this case, it is okay to draw lines between these issues.
Time needed	90 min. (as a minimum, even more if group agreement is difficult to reach)
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Example: Problem / Conflict Tree
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful for a group / team to come to a common understanding and to set priorities which problem is key and needs to be addressed + In combination with Objective Tree (see chapter “Designing Interventions”) helpful to translate core problem into project purpose/outcome, causes into outputs and effects into overall objective / impact + Image of a tree is well-received and -understood in many cultural contexts – Linear logic of cause & effect does not capture systemic understanding of conflict / reality, e.g. circular or reinforcing relationship of issues not covered
More Info	<p>Problem Tree as part of a Logical Framework Analysis: SIDA (2003): The Logical Framework Approach. A summary of the theory behind the LFA method.</p> <p>Conflict Tree as a tool for conflict analysis: Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.</p>

Example: Problem / Conflict Tree





The Onion

Objectives

- Identify the interests and needs behind publicly stated positions
 - Discover common ground at the level of interests and / or needs between different actors
-

Description

In the Onion tool one analyses the positions, interests and needs of a party to the conflict (see chapter “Causes of Conflicts”). The outer skin of the onion resembles the public position what we say we want. More in-depth analysis will reveal the next layer of the onion which are the interests, what we really want. And underneath there is another layer which resembles the needs, what we must have.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Draw a separate onion with three layers for each of the main parties in the conflict setting.

Step 2:

Start by writing down the publicly stated positions of the party on the issues at stake.

Step 3:

Then list the interests that are behind this position. Compared to what the actor says in public, what does the actor really want in the given situation.

Step 4:

Continue with analysing what are the needs related to the interests of the actor. You can refer back to the list of fundamental human needs (see chapter “Causes of Conflicts”).

Step 5:

Compare the onions, noting similarities and differences between the interests and needs of the parties.

Options / Variations

-

Time needed

60 min (for two main parties)

Material needed

Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts Sample: The Onion

Strengths & Limitations

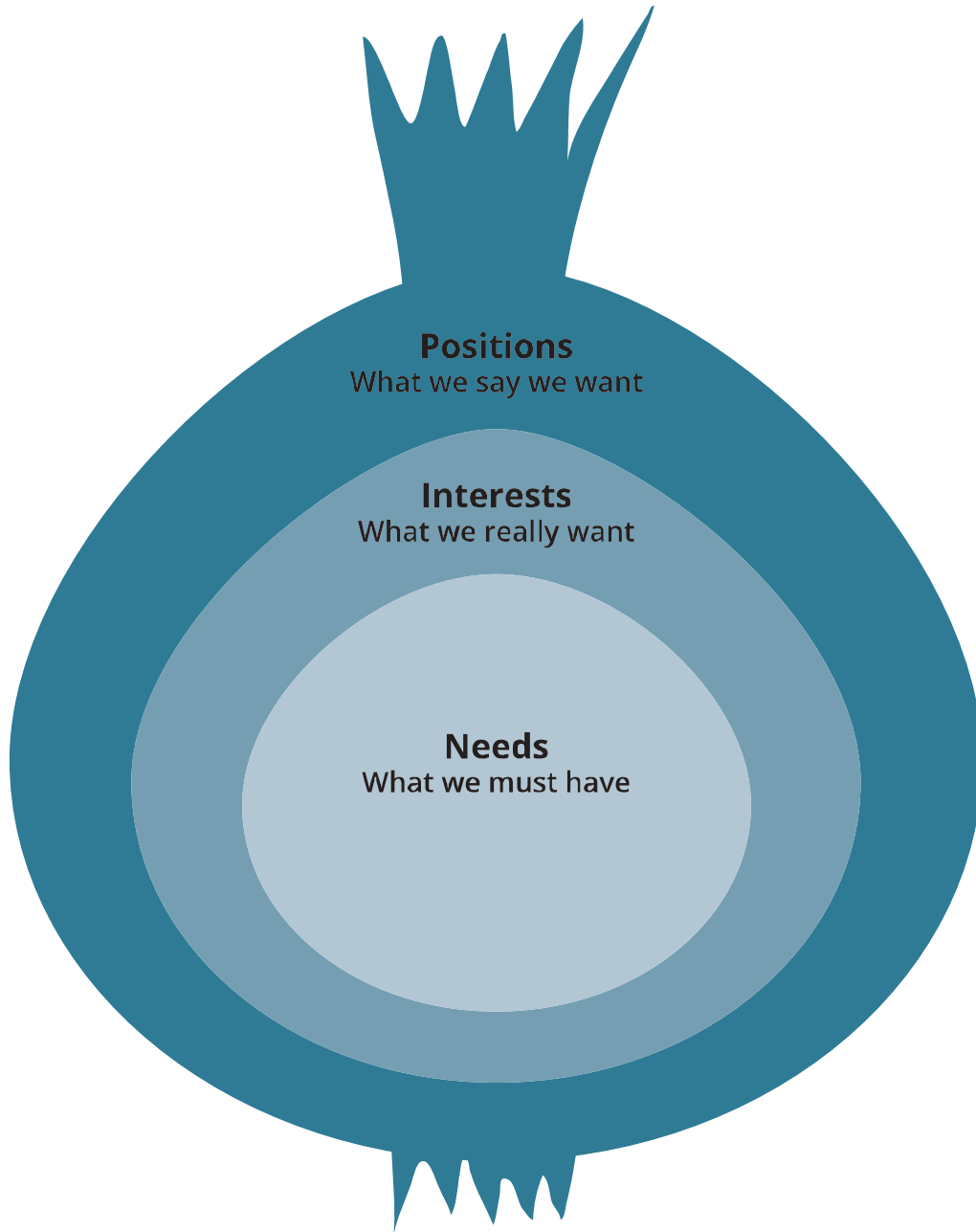
- + Stresses and visualises the need for more in-depth analysis beyond publicly stated positions (including in interviews and discussions with actors)
- + Helpful for a facilitator / negotiator / mediator to uncover the underlying interests and needs and to find common ground
- + Image of an onion and its different layers is well-received and – understood in many cultural contexts

- Interests and needs behind public positions are often not spoken about and thus hard to uncover without being able to ask the actor directly
- Changes in positions, interests and needs over time are not captured

More Info

The Onion as a tool for conflict analysis:
Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.

Sample: The Onion





ABC Triangle

Objectives

- Identify the underlying attitudes and contextual factors of the behaviour of selected conflict parties
- Analyse how the context, attitudes and behaviour of an actor influence each other
- Identify the key need of the selected conflict parties
- Compare the key need of the conflict parties
- Identify entry points and foci of future activities

Description

In an ABC Triangle one analyses the observable behaviour as well as the attitudes and context leading to these actions. Each set of information is listed in one of the corners of a triangle. Additionally, one can single out the key need and / or fear of each party.

The ABC Triangle is based on the three different types of violence that have been distinguished by Johan Galtung (see chapter “What is Violence?”). The behaviour refers to direct violence, the attitudes refer to cultural violence, and the context to structural violence.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Draw a separate triangle for each of the main parties in the conflict setting.

Step 2:

On each triangle, list the key issues related to attitude, behaviour and context from the viewpoint of that party. Starting with the behaviour of an actor is the easiest as it is observable. Then the attitudes behind these actions and the contextual factors that influences the behaviour and attitudes are added.

Step 3:

Add for each party what you think are their most important needs and / or fears in the middle of the triangle. This relates to your own perspective.

Step 4:

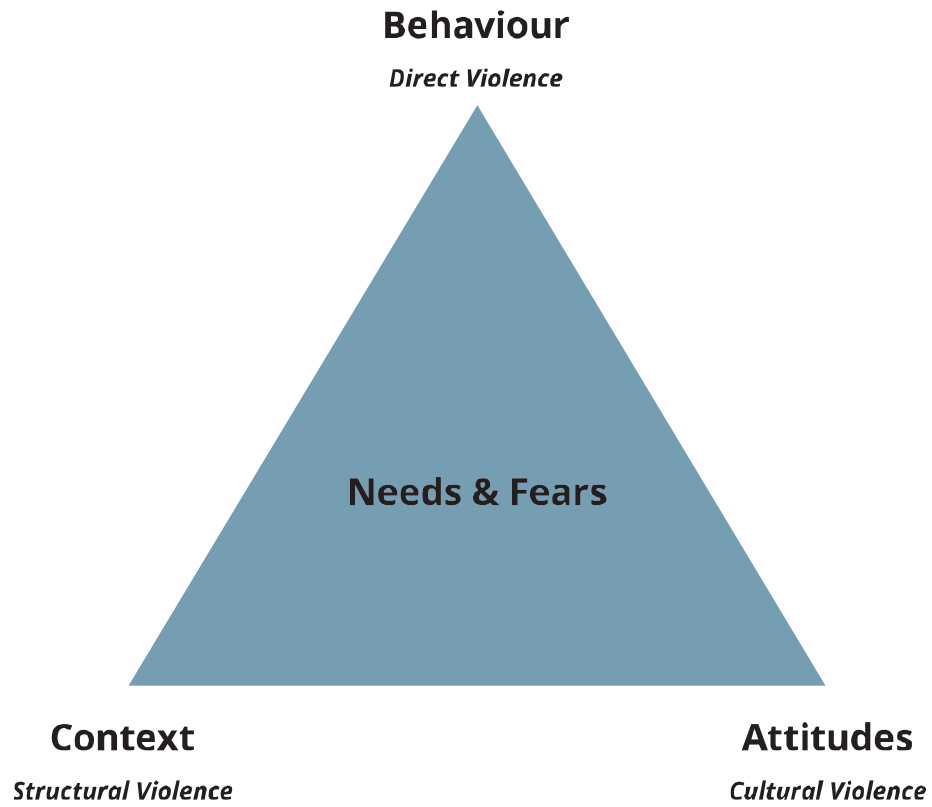
Compare the triangles, noting similarities and differences between the perceptions of the parties.

Options / Variations

If the analysis is done together with the main parties to the conflict, they can note down the triangle from their own perspective.

Time needed	60 min (for two main parties)
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Sample: ABC Triangle
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none">+ Helpful to understand the attitudes and context behind the behaviour of key actors+ Helpful to identify the key need of the main parties to the conflict+ Helpful to identify entry points to influence the behaviour of the main actors – Usually only few key actors are analysed– Changes in attitude, behaviour and context over time are not captured
More Info	ABC Triangle as a tool for conflict analysis: Responding to Conflict (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action.

Sample: ABC Triangle





Dividers and Connectors

Objectives

- Being aware of and knowing the “two realities” that constitute the situation of conflict: the reality of sources of tension / dividers and the reality of local capacities for peace connectors
- Having a documentation of the analysis that informs monitoring and is updated frequently as the situation evolves

Description

The analysis of dividers and connectors are essentially steps 2 and 3 of the Do No Harm-Approach (see Chapter 3.15). The approach was developed in a collaborative learning process in the course of the Local Capacities for Peace project. One major finding was that situations of conflict are always characterised by two realities: factors that divide people from each other and those that connect them with each other – also in the midst of war. Steps 2+3 of the Do No Harm focus on the dividers and connectors analysis to complement the information gathered by other tools for conflict analysis (used in Step 1).

Course of Action

- Understanding dividers, sources of tension (DNH Step 2)
- Understanding connectors/local capacities for peace (DNH Step 3)

Do No Harm provides a specific set of categories to systematically analyse and “unpack” the context of conflict. These are

Systems and Institutions
Attitudes and Action
(different or shared) **Values and Interests**
(different or common) **Experiences**
Symbols and Occasions

systematically collect information using the 5 categories of DNH dividers and connectors analysis

- list information about things that divide people in one column or on one sheet
- list information about things people share /have in common in a second column or on another sheet
- if things appear to be both dividing and connecting go deeper: “unpack” by asking: Who is divided by what aspect from whom?
- formulate as much detail about each thing you have found as necessary for others to be able to read and follow your analysis
- visualise your analysis

Options / Variations	You can also separate the two steps by first gathering information about dividers and sources of tensions including rigorous “unpacking” of complex things such as language, religion, land etc. before doing the next step by gathering information about what connects people or what people share in spite of the tension and divisions. In the same way many pieces of information gathered will need “unpacking”.
Time needed	60 to 90 minutes 30 minutes introducing DNH Steps 2 and 3 in detail 40 minutes group work on a case study 20 minutes de-briefing
Material needed	Pin board or flipchart stand, flipchart paper, meta cards (different colours), markers (different colours), pins Alternative: white-boards and non-permanent markers (different colours)
Handouts	-
Strengths / Limitations	+ creates sensitivity about the reality of “connectors” + creates awareness that analysis has to be sufficiently detailed - “unpacking” of factors initially may pose a challenge



Systems Map

Objectives

- Identify links and feedback loops between key driving factors
- Uncover mental models that feed the conflict
- Identify entry points and foci of future activities

Description

In a Systems Map one analyses the key driving factors that influence the dynamics of a conflict. The systemic thinking guides the analysis of the interconnectedness between actors, issues and the dynamics.

A Systems Map is complex and builds on the results of other conflict analysis tools like the Actor Mapping. Some other tools are more simplistic in the sense that they are based on a linear model and intervening factors are hardly considered. However, a Systems Map is covering many factors and points towards their interconnectedness in the sense that these factors might re-inforce each other. Such a feedback loop is a chain of causal links between some factors which might be reinforcing or balancing each other (see sample feedback loops).

A feedback loop might be fed by a mental model – a mindset or way of thinking which determines how and what we perceive in other people's behaviour.

By uncovering these feedback loops and mental models, new insights are gained how the negative dynamics of a conflict could be stopped.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Looking at the results of your conflict analysis so far, list the most important key driving factors of the conflict. Test the importance of a factor by imagining what would happen if this factor would be eliminated or changed in meaningful way.

Step 2:

Discuss about the interconnectedness of these factors and draw arrows between those that influence each other.

If one factor influence another factor one points the arrow in the respective direction. If the factors mutually influence each other the arrows are drawn in both directions.

The effect of the influence is indicated by a + or -. For example, if actor A is acquiring more weapons for self-defense (+), then actor B feels more mistrust, fear and threatened by actor A (+).

Step 3:

Check if you have discovered some feedback loops. Choose one feedback loop that affects the dynamics of the conflict in a negative way.

Step 4:

Discuss how this feedback loop, including the underlying mental model, could be influenced in a way that the conflict is transformed towards a more positive and constructive path.

Step 5:

Draw the feedback loop with the respective intervention and different mental model. For example, if actor B enters into a dialogue with actor A instead of reacting by acquiring more weapons for self-defense (see “Sample: Feedback Loop – Balancing”).

**Options /
Variations**

-

Time needed

60 min (for uncovering a few feedback loops and mental models)

**Material
needed**

Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts

Sample: Feedback Loop – Reinforcing
Sample Feedback Loop – Balancing

**Strengths &
Limitations**

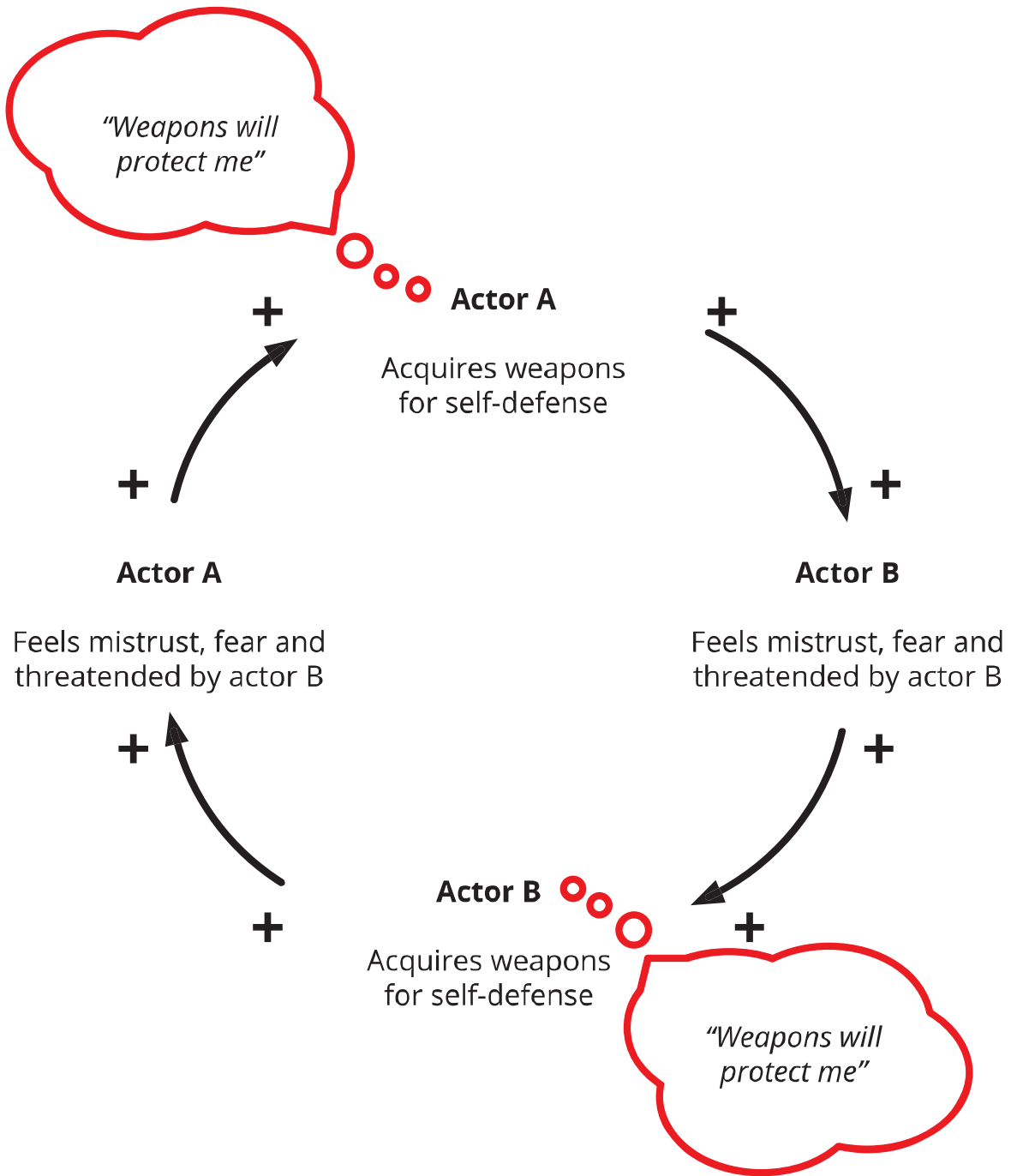
- + Builds on other conflict analysis tools and supports the identification of key driving factors
- + Helpful to identify negative feedback loops and mental models
- + Helpful to identify entry points and foci of future activities that change the mental models and the negative course of feedback loops

- Complexity of links between key driving factors could be overwhelming
- High number of factors leads to lack of clarity of the map

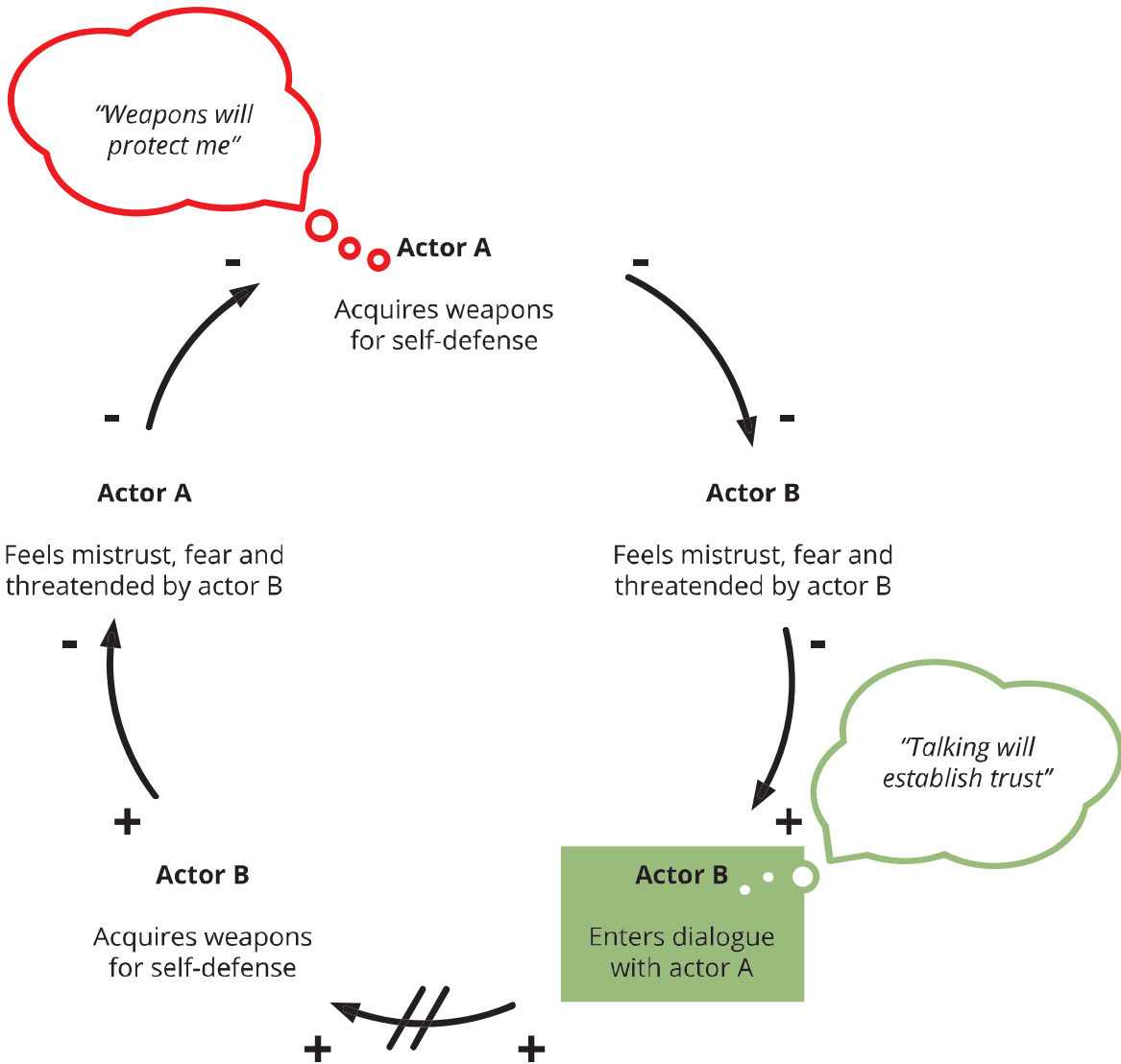
More Info

Robert Ricigliano / Diana Chigas (2011): Systems Thinking in Conflict Assessment. Concepts and Applications. Washington D.C., USA: US Agency for International Development

Sample: Feedback Loop - Reinforcing



Sample: Feedback Loop - Balancing



3.6 Designing Interventions

The step from analysis to strategizing and designing interventions is a major challenge. There are no magic tools or machines that tell you what to do if you put in enough information from your analysis.

However, in this chapter we will offer some tools that will support you in this process. Some tools are building on a specific conflict analysis tool, e.g. the Problem / Conflict Tree can be converted quite easily into an Objective Tree. Other tools can help you to find entry points and develop a strategy for your intervention in a conflict setting.

But before we look at these tools, we want to clarify that there is a spectrum of options ranging from withdrawing to intervening directly as a third party in the conflict. There is also a range of roles and methods how third parties can support nonviolent conflict transformation. Furthermore we look at some research findings how well designed peace interventions are and which criteria should be applied for good intervention design.



Spectrum of Strategic Options

Organisations working in a conflict setting are often faced by very dynamic and rapid changes in the context. This poses the challenge that organisations have to adapt their activities. Often decisions have to be taken quickly and decisions are not based on a deep analysis or an understanding of their wider implications or what opportunities are available. Often, where organisations do have a conflict analysis and understanding of the situation this is rarely articulated and formulated in a way that would make the analysis available quickly for review and discussion of options. Many opportunities for learning are lost this way.

Often, decision makers assume that there are only two options if faced with an escalation of violent conflict: either stay – or leave. However, experience has shown that there is a range of strategic options organisations have in such situations. Being aware of this range of strategic options helps to avoid the trap of either-or. Knowing there is a range of strategic options also helps to deal with another challenge: Are we not doing any harm if we leave, pull out and not do something?

Spectrum of Strategic Options in Situations of Confrontation and Escalating Violence⁶

Withdraw	React	Adapt	Support	Intervene
The organisation decides to withdraw all or parts of its operation. It is aware that either staying in or leaving makes a statement and has consequences	The organisation decides to continue its activities with the same objectives. But it introduces changes to its programme for it to continue, e.g. arranging for the security of staff and safety of beneficiaries and resources.	The organisation decides to consciously reassess its programme and activities by systematically analysing intended and unintended effects to ensure that harmful effects are avoided and existing local capacities for peace are strengthened.	The organisation decides to search for local initiatives and supports them to actively address issues that drive conflict. This aims at preventing further escalation, improving communication between stakeholders and rebuilding relationships.	The organisation decides to actively intervene in the conflict by offering “third party” services, e.g. link to other organisations that can support for mediation, conflict transformation, access to safe space for negotiations etc.

⁶ Based on: Simon Fisher / Dekha Ibrahim Abdi et al. (2000): Working with Conflict. Skills & Strategies for Action. Responding to Conflict. Zed Books, 4th imprint 2007, p 82.



Criteria for Good Intervention Design

Research about peace interventions shows that there is too often a lack of planning and coordination:

- Interventions “are not planned from an overall matrix by multiple actors, but usually by a single actor through intuition and rule of thumb”.
- “Actors seldom even ask what are the right strategies or instruments; rather, they have developed their own ready-made intervention design.”
- “It is more accurate to talk about a market situation, with the intervening actor on the supply side, and each offering their own particular ‘product’.”
- “Every intervening actor wants coordination but nobody wants to be coordinated!”

Thania Paffenholz, who conducted the research, came up with the following

Criteria for Good Intervention Design

1. Visions, goals and commitment
2. Analysing conflict and actors
3. Strategies and roles
4. Finding the right partners and entry points
5. Timing: the need for long-term engagement and windows of opportunity
6. Thinking in processes and building structures
7. Getting the right people: qualification vs. commitment
8. Cooperation and coordination: identifying strategic alliances for peacebuilding
9. Making the process sustainable
10. Building in learning mechanisms

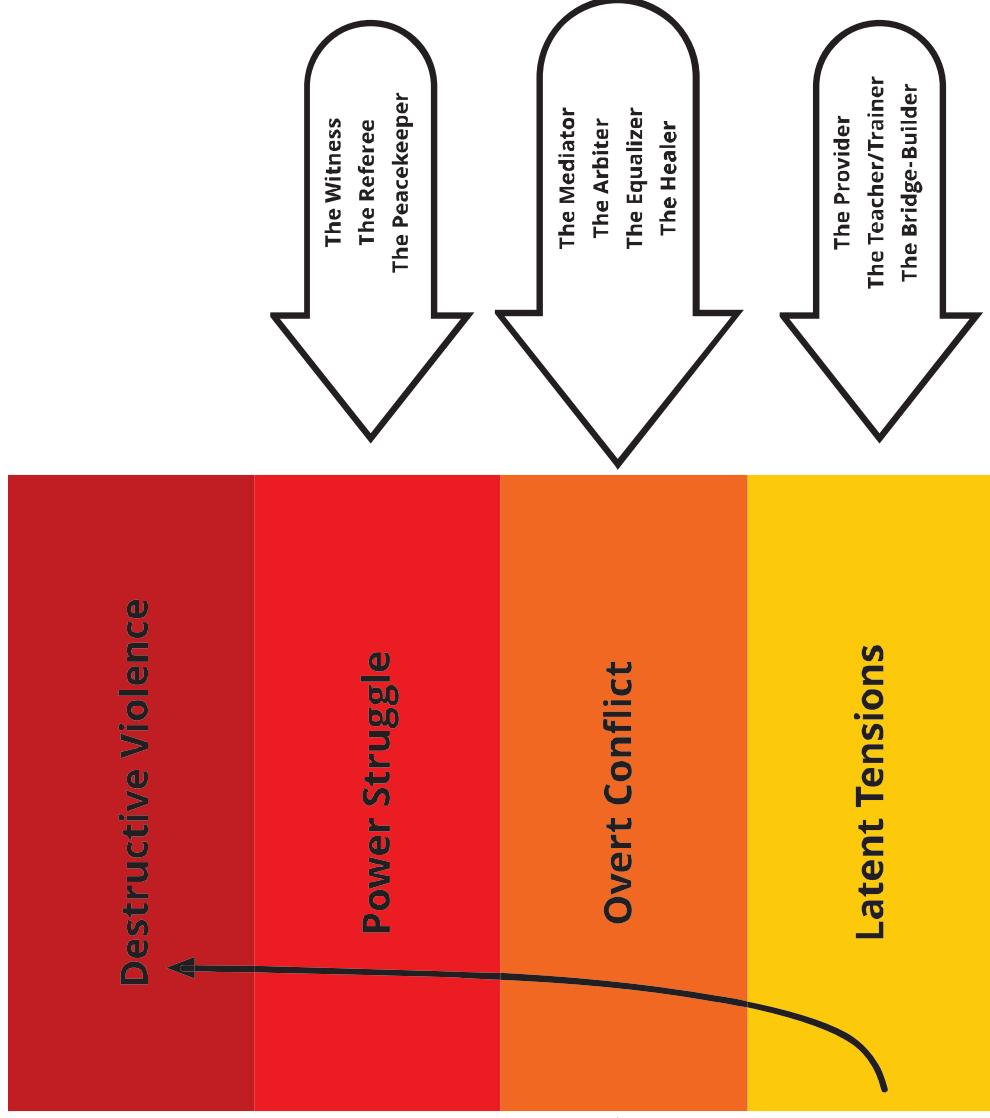
Source:

Thania Paffenholz (2004): “Designing Transformation and Intervention Processes”, In: *Berghof Handbook for Conflict Transformation, Berlin, Germany: Berghof Research Center for Constructive Conflict Management, 151-169;*

http://berghof-handbook.net/documents/publications/paffenholz_handbook.pdf



Roles of Third Parties





Own Role in Conflict Transformation

Objectives

- Assess one's own strengths and weaknesses with regard to knowledge, skill and attitude needed for different roles in conflict transformation

Description

In this pair work participants will have a safe space to reflect about their own level of knowledge, skills and attitude. Referring to the 10 different roles of third parties in conflict transformation, each participant can assess if they are ready to take up the respective roles – and what would be their preferred role.

Course of Action

Step 1:

In the plenary, the trainer refers to the vast range of methods of nonviolent conflict transformation and presents the 10 different roles which one can take as a third party in a conflict.

Step 2:

Pairs are formed and the following questions are given for the pair work:

- 1) What knowledge, skills and attitude do I have as a person?
- 2) How do these match with the different roles of third parties?
- 3) Do you see yourself taking up the respective role(s) that match(es) with your knowledge, skills and attitudes?
- 4) How would you like to improve in order to fulfil the respective role(s)?
- 5) Would you love to take a role that does not yet match with your level of knowledge, skills and attitude?

The conversation of the pair may include challenging the assessment and choice that the partner has made.

Step 3:

In plenary, the trainer will ask participants to share their choices. In order to visualise it the trainer could have each role written on a big piece of paper and spread these out in the room. Participants could then physically place themselves in the room.

The trainer might reflect with the group if more focus and time in the remaining training could be given to the most frequently chosen roles.

Options / Variations

-

Time needed

45 min

Material needed	Big paper (for visualising all roles)
Handouts	Roles of Third Parties
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful for self-reflection and exchange in a safe setting + Helpful to identify roles one's participants would chose and possibly adapting training accordingly – Participants might be too critical of their own strengths and weaknesses.
More Info	<p>Study on skills and knowledge needed for working in the field of conflict transformation:</p> <p>Craig Zelizer/Linda Johnston (2005): Skills, Networks & Knowledge: Developing a Career in International Peace and Conflict Resolution. Alexandria, USA: Alliance for Conflict Transformation, pp. 27-33;</p> <p>www.conflictransformation.org/wp-content/uploads/careers_report.pdf</p>



Methods of Conflict Transformation

Sequence	Latent to pol. Crisis	Escalating into violence	Violence, war	De-escalation, end of war	Post war, reconstruction	
Top- Leadership Level	“good offices”, diplomatic facilitation, dialogue, negotiation	interventions,	Mediation; power mediation, political, economic, military sanctions; “peace enforcement”	Peacekeeping	Building of political and admin. Structure	
	Incentive for constructive behaviour; Peacekeeping	Reform of Security Sector, Justice.		Support for power-sharing arrangements and their monitoring		
	Strengthening institutions: Dialogue for a on national level, non-military inter-state structures for security issues; Regimes	Documentation of war crimes and Human Rights violations		Activities to start participatory political processes (Elections, referendum)		
Middle- Range Leadership	Peace education, Human Rights education, training	Identify and support (trade) associations, (lawyers, entrepreneurs etc.)	Violence, war crimes and Human Rights violations	Economic reconstruction, incentives for economic activities	Building of political and admin. Structure	
	Qualify and train staff in media and administration	Incentives for issue related co-operation, Round Tables, Dialogue for a		Rehabilitation of social and physical infrastructure		Qualify staff
	Reform security sector and justice	Education in Human Rights and democratic culture, Training in conflict management for executive		Building and support of societal structure (associations, trade unions)		Demobilizing, integration of ex-soldiers
	Codes of Conduct, Civil-military-relations	“Exposure” programs; exchange				
“Grass roots” Level	Peace education, HR education, Education towards a culture of democracy	Humanitarian Aid	Violence, war crimes and Human Rights violations	Hum. Aid in transition to development support	Building of political and admin. Structure	
	Support of local decision making bodies and dialogue fora with pluralistic composition	Documentation of war crimes and HR violations		Start of return programs		Building and support of self-government
	Work against discrimination, especially with those who discriminate	Support of local peace processes, retreat from engagement in war		HR-monitoring and building of local MR-org.		Building of social and economic infrastructure
	Protection of threatened individuals and groups.	Strengthening of traditional means of conflict settlement		Building and support of self-government		Incentives for co-operation across lines of conflict
		Support local peace constituencies		Trauma work, Care for war victims		
All levels		Sanctions to change the conflict behaviour (“smart sanctions”)	Violence, war crimes and Human Rights violations	Social integration of child-soldiers and ex-combatants	Building of political and admin. Structure	
	Work for HR-, minorities and against discrimination. Monitoring of elections.					
	Support of “good governance” (participative and inclusive ways of decision making). Rule of Law. Public control of government and authorities	Protection of environment and resources. “Human Security” (UNDP)		Education towards a culture and awareness of democracy.		

Source: Adapted from Wolfgang Heinrich (2003)



SWOT Analysis

Objectives

SWOT Analysis – the assessment of **Strengths**, **Weaknesses**, **Opportunities** and **Threats** - is a very common tool used for strategic planning. It is used to assess factors internal to the organisation (Strengths and Weaknesses) as well as external factors (Opportunities and Threats) relevant for achieving a project's or an activity's objectives.

Description

A SWOT Analysis begins with a specific description of the objective of the intended project. In view of this objective the favourable internal (Strengths) and external (Opportunities) factors are identified that support achieving the intended objective. In a similar way limiting or unfavourable internal (Weaknesses) and external (Threats) factors are identified. This method for assessing the context that influences the achievement of a project's objective is credited to Albert Humphrey, Stanford University⁷.

A SWOT – analysis provides a good idea where the organisation stands in regard to a specific objective to be achieved.

Strengths are things that the organisation does particularly well, or in a way that distinguishes it from other organisations. What are the advantages of your organisation as compared to other organisations? These might be the motivation of staff, access to certain resources, a strong relationship to relevant actors, etc.

Any aspect of the organisation is only a strength if it brings a clear advantage as compared to other organisations. For example, if all organisations in your area of work have well trained, professional and highly motivated staff, then that is not a strength, it is a necessity.

Weaknesses are also inherent features of the organisation. People, resources, systems, and procedures are strengths – but can also be limitations or weaknesses in relation to a specific objective. What must be improved or adjusted in order to achieve the objective? What practices should be avoided in the specific context?

Opportunities are chances provided by the context that can be something positive to achieve one's objective. But it requires intent and action to make use of them. Opportunities arise from situations outside the organisation. Being able to spot and exploit opportunities can make a difference to the organisation's ability to achieve the objective.

Spotting opportunities – like threats – requires to watch out for changes

⁷ Humphrey, Albert (December 2005). "SWOT Analysis for Management Consulting". SRI Alumni Newsletter. SRI International <http://www.sri.com/sites/default/files/brochures/dec-05.pdf> (PDF)

in the wider context, e.g. changes of government policy, changes in social patterns, population profiles, and lifestyles, changes in the environment can all provide useful opportunities.

Threats include anything that can negatively affect your activities from the outside, such as supply problems, shifts in funding or implementation requirements, a shortage of skilled personnel etc.

**Course of
Action**

Step 1

Mapping Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

- 1.1 Describe as specific as possible the objective of the intended project or activity
- 1.2 List the attributes of the organisation that are helpful for achieving the stated objective(s)
- 1.3 List the factors external to the organisation that are or may be useful for achieving the stated objective(s)
- 1.4 List the organisation's attributes that pose limitations or obstacles for achieving the project's objective(s)
- 1.5 List the factors external to the organisations that may pose risks for achieving the objective(s) or may reduce or even prevent achievement.

Step 2

Visualise the information gathered in Step 1

The most commonly used visualisation of the mapping exercise is a simple matrix.

Step 3

Generating strategies

Once the supportive and limiting internal and external factors have been listed it is necessary to develop strategic options how to use the strengths and opportunities effectively and how to overcome weaknesses and mitigate threats.

You begin the reflection about strategies by asking:

- How can we make effective use of each strength our organisation has that can contribute to achieving the objective?
 - How can we reduce each weakness we have identified that is relevant for achieving the objective and its effects on achieving the objective?
 - How can we make use of and benefit from each opportunity we found that promotes the achievement of our objective?
 - How can we mitigate each threat, limitation or risk that may pose an obstacle for achieving the objective?
-

Options / Variations	<p>Matching and Converting are other ways of utilizing SWOT-analysis.</p> <p>“Matching” is the process by which “competitive advantages” are identified and systematically used by matching the strengths to opportunities.</p> <p>“Converting” aims at generating strategies to turn threats or weaknesses into strengths or opportunities. In the business world finding and opening new markets would be an example of a conversion strategy. In this case overcoming a weak presence in an existing market into a strength by developing a new market – e.g. with a specific product or service.</p> <p>Differentiated SWOT</p> <p>Another way of using SWOT Analysis is by focussing on specific aspects of the project, for example studying the organisation’s relationship with beneficiaries and/or other relevant stakeholders or analysing the organisation’s SWOT in relation to the issue that is to be addressed etc.</p> <p>SWOT is often used in combination with PESTEL, another tool to map and unpack the context in which a project will be implemented.</p>
Time needed	45 minutes in a workshop setting doing all three steps. People should be very familiar with the organisation’s structures, resources and procedure as well as with the context, in which the project will be implemented.
Material needed	Pinboards, meta cards of different colours (4), markers, pins, tape Alternatively flip charts
Handouts	matrix for visualisation instruction for steps
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + provides for a systematic reflection about the organisation’s strengths and limitations for achieving a specific objective; + encourages to generate strategies to make best use of strengths and opportunities while also addressing how to reduce limitations and mitigating threats; + provides for critical self-assessment of existing (organisational) capacities and limitations as related to the objectives set; – requires the willingness and ability to self-critically assess one’s organisation – requires good knowledge of the organisation and the given context; – - may tend to focus on certain aspects of the context and miss out others

Sample: SWOT Analysis

	Helpful	Limited / Harmful
Internal to the organisation	Strength What attributes of the organisation are useful for achieving the objective?	Weaknesses / Limitations What attributes of the organisation may limit or pose obstacles achieving the objective?
	Objective of the Activity / Project	
External to the organisation	Opportunities What factors external to the organisation are or may be useful for achieving the objective?	Threats / Risks What factors external to the organisation may pose risks for achieving the objective(s) or may reduce or even prevent achievement?



Objective Tree

- Objectives**
- Identify the purpose (outcome) of a project as well as the overall objective (impact) and outputs
 - Link the problem analysis (see Problem / Conflict Tree in the chapter on “Conflict Analysis”) with the development of objectives
-

Description In an Objective Tree one re-formulates the core problem into the purpose of an intervention (the trunk), the underlying causes into the outputs of an intervention (the roots), and the effects of the problem into the overall objectives of the intervention (the branches).

The Objective Tree is a key element of the Logical Framework Approach that is widely used in development work. Based on a Problem / Conflict Tree that was done for conflict analysis it can be used for designing an intervention for nonviolent conflict transformation.

Course of Action

Step 1:
Refer to the Problem / Conflict Tree and re-formulate the problem statement into the project purpose or outcome you want to achieve with your intervention.

Step 2:
Re-formulate the causes of the Problem / Conflict Tree into the outputs of your intervention.

Step 3:
Re-formulate the effects into the overall objectives (impact) of your intervention.

Options / Variations -

Time needed 45 min

Material needed Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts Example: Problem / Conflict Tree

Strengths & + Helpful for planning an intervention in combination with the Problem / Conflict Tree (see chapter “Conflict Analysis”)

Limitations

- + Image of a tree is well-received and -understood in many cultural contexts
- Linear logic of cause & effect does not capture systemic understanding of conflict / reality, e.g. circular or reinforcing relationship of issues not covered
- If a simple re-formulation does not work one might have to re-consider the results of the conflict analysis

More Info

Objective Tree in combination with Problem Tree as part of a Logical Framework Analysis:

SIDA (2003): The Logical Framework Approach. A summary of the theory behind the LFA method.



RPP-Matrix

Objectives

- Identify key strategies / activities of a project
- Stimulate discussions about assumptions how significant change will happen
- Draw conclusions which strategies / activities are carried out by the project and with which other projects linkages should be established

Description

The RPP Matrix is one of the tools developed through the Reflecting on Peace Practice (RPP) project of the Collaborative for Development Action (CDA) and was first published in 2003⁸. The RPP Matrix permits the analysis of strategies by specifically asking:

- Who needs to be engaged or mobilised for change?
- What change are we trying to achieve?

Who needs to be engaged?

Comparing the many different theories of change, RPP found that there are essentially two answers to this question. Some organisations argue that change happens if many people become engaged. Others argue that for change to happen key people need to be engaged.

Many (more) people

Practitioners who focus on engaging with or mobilising many people believe that change happens if “the people” are broadly involved. If many people change their perceptions, attitudes and behaviour significant change will come about in society. This may involve mobilisation of larger constituencies or expanding the numbers of people committed to change. Social movements are impressive examples of this approach. Education projects, social activism or activities that aim at mobilising people to form associations or unions also focus on engaging large numbers of people.

Key people

This approach focuses on involving particular people, or groups of people, who are perceived to be critical to the initiation or continuation of change

⁸ The Collaborative for Development Action (CDA) has designed the Reflecting on Peace Practice (RPP) Project as participatory learning process – similar to the Local Capacities for Peace Project through which the Do No Harm-Approach was developed. Between 1999 and 2003 the RPP-process included 26 case studies from peace projects and consultations with more than 1000 practitioners from international peace and conflict transformation NGOs as well as local organisations and groups working for peace in their countries. The findings were published in 2003 in “Confronting War: Critical Lessons for Peace Practitioners”.

due to their influence and power. “Key people” strategies assume that, without the involvement of these individuals or groups, progress cannot be made. Key people are not necessarily the most visible or obvious actors but rather those who are perceived as having decisive influence on developments and dynamics. They may be people with broad constituencies or they may be key because they have particular interests and influence on the dynamics of conflict due to personal qualities and role in the conflict.

What Change?

RPP found that all approaches essentially aim at two basic kinds of change: the individual / personal change and/or socio-political change.

Individual / personal change

Projects that work at the individual/ personal level seek to change the attitudes, values, skills, perceptions and behaviour of individuals. These projects are based on the underlying assumption that change is possible if the hearts, minds and behaviour of individuals are changed. Educational activities follow this approach by working with groups of individuals to affect their skills, attitudes, perceptions, ideas and relationships with other individuals.

Socio-political change

Projects that concentrate at the socio-political level are based on the assumption that change requires addressing the political, economic, and social structures, systems, institutions and processes that affect relationships within and between societies. Often such projects support the creation or reform of institutions that address grievances which could fuel tensions and divisions or that promote non-violent modes for dealing with conflict. Change at this level includes alterations in government policies, legislation, policies, economic structures, ceasefire agreements, constitutions, etc. But it also incorporates changes in social norms, group behaviour, and inter-group relationships.

The collaborative RPP learning process showed that activities engaging “more people” or “key people” are important contributions to building peace. But by themselves they are not sufficient to bring about progress towards building sustainable peace. Similarly, changing people’s perceptions, values, attitudes, and behaviour are important as well as changing social, economic, political structures are important and necessary contributions. By itself, however, this does not lead to sustainable peace.

In order for peace work to “add up” to sustainable peace, changes have

to occur in all sections of the matrix. These changes must be inter-linked and complementary.

Many practitioners doing development work found this tool useful to reflect about, visualise and develop strategies to bring about change.

The matrix can be used to “map” our activities in a particular section (e.g. we put an educational project in the many people/individual-personal change section of the matrix) and then use the matrix to reflect how changes that we intend to achieve in this section may lead to or trigger changes in other sections.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Describe the current situation that you intend to change. Use the information gathered during the initiation phase (conflict analysis, dividers/connectors analysis, needs assessment, etc.)

Step 2:

Envision the future, describe how the situation will be at a certain point in time.

Step 3:

Map your entry point by asking:

- Who [More people or key people] do I want to engage / mobilise for change?
- What change [individual /personal or socio-structural] do I want to achieve?

Fill in your answers into the respective sections of the matrix.

Step 4:

Using the matrix, reflect what changes in the other sections of the matrix need to happen in order to reach the situation you envisioned in step 1.

Options / Variations

The RPP Matrix can be combined with Theories of Change by formulating the assumptions underlying the strategy of your project that you entered into the RPP matrix in Step 3.

Also, there are several versions of the RPP Matrix which provide space for mapping more detail of activities and effects. Organisations familiar with systemic analysis may prefer to use these versions.

Time needed

45 min (minimum in a workshop with the project team that is familiar with the project context, more if in a participatory workshop with community members)

Material needed

Pinboards or flipchart stands, meta cards, markers, pins or tape

Handouts

Strengths & Limitations

- + Simple and clear questions guiding the analysis
- + Simple and clear visualisation in a matrix
- + Helpful for developing the strategies of project (in the planning phase as well as in the evaluation phase)
- + Helpful for assessing gaps in one's strategy or missing links to other organisations / projects focussing on other sections than oneself

- Tendency to integrate strategies for all four sections of the matrix into your own project

More Info

Anderson, Mary B. / Olson, Lara (2003): *Confronting War: Critical Lessons for Peace Practitioners*

CDA (2016): *Reflecting on Peace Practice (RPP) Basics. A Resource Manual*, Cambridge, pp 33-47

Worksheet: RPP-Matrix

	More People	Key People
Individual / Personal Change		
Social-Political Change		



Developing Options for Intervention in a Conflict

Objectives

- Apply concepts related to roles of third parties and range of methods as well as criteria for good intervention design
 - Practice developing options for intervention in a given context
 - Practice communication skills when brainstorming and assessing options in a team
-

Description

In this roleplay, a scenario will be provided which entails some local key actors who will be interviewed by teams of consultants. These teams then have to develop options for intervening in the context of conflict to promote nonviolent conflict transformation.

Course of Action

Step 1:

The trainer explains the objectives of this roleplay and invites creativity. Then key aspects of the conflict scenario are given as background and all participants receive the handout with the scenario.

Step 2:

The following roles are distributed:

- Mr Vice President John Chrebra (government)
- Chairperson Mr. Hessa Nistrow (opposition)
- “General” Longago (paramilitary)
- Ms Helana Gilani (media)
- Consultancy teams
- Observers

Step 3:

The chosen local characters prepare themselves individually to play their roles. The consultancy teams will work in pairs – ideally four pairs are selected. They will have to suggest interventions later on.

The observers are going to report after the actual role play what they have observed.

Step 4:

After preparation time, the trainer places the local actors in different rooms (or in corners of a large room) so that they do not listen to each other. The observers are seated close to the actors, but at a little distance in order not to distract the interaction.

The role play starts with the consultants beginning their visits to the actors. In turns, lasting some 15 minutes, each consultant team meets each actor independently. The consultants should explain their role and background. When eliciting all the information needed from the local actors they should listen well and take notes.

Step 5:

Now the consultants get some extra time to evaluate the information and to make suggestions for interventions. The local actors have a break while the observers could continue to observe the discussion process in the consultancy teams.

Step 6:

The consultancy teams go back to the local actors each and suggest the options which they find appropriate in this case. They should give reasons and ask for a brief feedback.

Step 7:

After finishing these rounds with all local actors, the consultancy teams finalise their proposed options to support constructive nonviolent conflict transformation and visualise these on a flipchart paper. Additionally they reflect what went well and what was difficult in the process.

Simultaneously, the observers and actors meet together, discuss their experience with the consultants and summarise their observations for reporting back in the plenary.

Step 8:

In plenary these reports are presented. The trainer summarises the learning concerning the interviewing experience, level of analysis and relevance and creativity of the options that were suggested. The trainer tries to link these experiences with the concepts and tools offered in this chapter.

**Options /
Variations**

If time allows, in plenary all the participants could jointly revise the different options proposed for intervention and develop a strategy for nonviolent transformation in the given scenario.

Alternatively, the trainer can provide a case from an actual newspaper. The participants are then asked to act out some of the real characters.

Or the trainer may develop – or elicit from the group – similar case studies to be used in the role play. If the group works on a specific case, this role play may help to prepare action.

If a case study (from the annex) was used for conflict analysis before, it is recommended to continue with the same study. Have all the results from applying the conflict analysis tools at hand. The trainer will have to select some key actors from the respective case study who should be interviewed.

Time needed	180 min
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	Roleplay Scenario “Conflicts in ATONIA”
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + The roleplay setting will allow for experiencing the real challenges of gathering info from local actors, respectively of being interviewed by consultants. + The intensive communication process will allow for deep learning about one’s own communication and analytical skills. – Participants, especially those who play the local actors, might argue that the conflict scenario provides too little info. Trainers should invite them to fill the story with life. But the story should remain consistent. – The conflict scenario could send the implicit message that government and opposition parties are the most important actors. The trainers should stress that it is a fictional case study and only few actors are selected, in a real context civil society actors are part of the picture.
More Info	Adapted from KURVE Wustrow (2007): Nonviolent Conflict Transformation. Training Manual for a Training of Trainers Course, Wustrow, Germany: KURVE Wustrow, pp 76-77



Roleplay Scenario: “Conflicts in ATONIA”

General Info

The country of ATONIA looks back on 10 years of civil war. ATONIA is a land-locked country of 45 million people. Its main economic activities consisted of agriculture and mining. Its principal exports included copper and wool. For the past decade three different groups fought over the control of government and natural resources. Finally an „All Inclusive Peace Agreement” was signed by the wartime-government and all rebel groups. The main provision was an armistice, the retreat of the groups into specified regions and the preparation of general elections supervised by the international community. All parties as well as representatives from the unarmed opposition and civil society- at least rhetorically- underlined their commitment to peace and cooperation in a transitional government. The agreement was welcomed by diplomats and international observers. More critical observers spoke instead of a fragile “warlord-peace” with a high risk of re-escalation due to not yet reconciled interests and ambition of the signatories.

Two weeks ago riots broke out in the capital of ATONIA. It was triggered by some police men who did not get any salary since several weeks. Stores and shops were looted; some buildings and cars around the main square are still burning. The number of wounded or even killed people is not yet clear. Finally the military intervened to stop the riots.

Actor 1: Government

ATONIA has a transitional and weak government of the country with little support outside of the capital. This is due to history. The government is legitimised by elections, but those were experienced with a high abstention rate. The government is recognized internationally. Frequent scandals and criminal issues in which government officials are accused of corruption by the international press are taken by some as evidence that ATONIA still has a long way to go before achieving stability. Others take them to mean that accountability starts to work. No one, they say, can abuse government power without fear of punishment and public disapproval. The government maintains army of about 11,000 soldiers in active service.

The international community proclaims its support for a sustainable peace on the basis of a democratic government but lacks the coherence and the political will to impose the necessary radical changes in the social, political and economic structure.

Role 1:

Government Representative: Mr Vice President John Chrebra

Age 67, married, 4 children, 6 grandchildren. He trained as a lawyer in, but never really practised. He spent his lifetime being involved with politics. According to the ATONIA statutes, he holds almost the most powerful position in the country. But reality keeps his influence down. His power is driven by

experience and most of all his widespread network of friends and proteges that he uses to utmost effect. Although his manner is habitually calm and friendly, he is capable of acting ruthlessly against rivals and enemies. He would like to see himself in an even more powerful position. Of course, he denies this.

Actor 2: Opposition Party

Traditionally the opposition controls half of the country's territory. The influence of this group is born from the second largest ethnic group in ATONIA. The opposition is internationally criticised for illegal business with natural resources and some human rights violations against civil society. Its program advocates political and economic changes, its behaviour is authoritarian.

Role 2:

SEBA Representative: Chairperson Mr. Nistrow

Age 50, newly married to his second wife, 2 children. Owner of one of the largest firms in ATONIA. He comes from a family that was always involved in money and politics. His father was also very famous in ATONIA. He inherited the position of the chairperson of the opposition party SEBA from his father's reputation. He is proud of his close connection to the police force. He is considered a hardliner within his party. His aim is to get as much influence as possible even if he has publicly said he hoped for a fair and thorough future.

Actor 3: Paramilitary Group

The paramilitary group, called the NEVAS, have some definite support of the government and the military. They control 1/3 of the country including natural resources. They are involved in illegal activities, combats and child soldier issues. Some of the leading members of the NEVAS are also members of the parliament, more or less known and publicly recognised. Lately, the NEVAS have a growing autonomy and are responsible for most of the human right violations that are spread all over the country.

Role 3:

NEVAS Representative: "General" Longago

Age 37, Widower. He used to be teacher at a secondary school when the internal war started and has seen all the hopes dissolve when his wife was murdered at the beginning of the war. He spent many years without expectations for the better and finally joined the NEVAS when his brother disappeared. It is believed that he owes this appointment to personal ties with the minister.

Actor 4: Media

Role 4:

Media Representative: Ms Helana Gilani

48, divorced, four children. She studied physics and worked as a university lecturer in ATONIA before joining ATONIA TV, when the war broke out. She now works as the lead commentator of the station ATONIA TV. Gilani was internationally believed as reliable in the past when she documented aspects of the internal war.

Source:

Adapted from KURVE Wustrow (2007): Nonviolent Conflict Transformation. Training Manual for a Training of Trainers Course, Wustrow, Germany: KURVE Wustrow, pp 78-79

3.7 Nonviolent Action

In this chapter we will first explain what nonviolence is and which different approaches to nonviolence can be distinguished. Then we will give an overview of the vast range of methods of nonviolence action. Here we will refer to a list of methods that was developed almost fifty years ago. We encourage trainers and participants to share about their own experiences of taking part in nonviolent actions, and add more methods to the list.

Additionally, in the annex we recommend several websites that collect examples of nonviolent actions which can serve as an inspiration for a nonviolent campaign to use creative methods.

Finally in this chapter, we will share some findings from a ground-breaking study on the surprising effectiveness of nonviolent campaigns compared to violent ones.

What is Nonviolence?

“Nonviolence means avoiding not only external physical violence but also internal violence of spirit. You not only refuse to shoot a man, but you refuse to hate him.”

Martin Luther King, Jr.

There is a distinction between “Nonviolence” and “non-violence”. The former is often also called **principled nonviolence**, and the second refers to the absence of violence or **strategic nonviolence**.

Principled Nonviolence

A prominent advocate for principled nonviolence was Mohandas K. Gandhi whose concept entails the two principles “Ahimsa” and “Satyagraha” (see chapter 1.1.1). Ahimsa means the complete renunciation of violence in thought and action. Satyagraha means truth and firmness and is often translated as “truth-force”. It is about not inflicting harm to anyone.

In short, principled nonviolence:

- applies to one’s whole life
- is based on conviction (religious, moral, philosophical)
- is about resisting injustice
- wants a unity of ends and means
- refuses to see the other as enemy
- it is not passive or avoiding conflict
- is a conscious decision to not use violence (even if one has the possibility) and to face the consequences of one’s nonviolent actions.

Here, violence is renounced because it:

- causes unnecessary suffering
- dehumanises
- brutalizes.

Strategic Non-Violence

Here, non-violence is not based on conviction, but used as a strategy. It might be chosen

- for practical strategic considerations
- because it gives more legitimacy to a struggle
- because it helps to win support
- to raise the political costs for the other side.



Methods of Nonviolent Action

There is vast range of methods of nonviolent action and there are several ways to categorise them. In 1973 Gene Sharp differentiated three categories of nonviolent actions:

1) Nonviolent Protest and Persuasion

which includes symbolic and actions intended to voice peaceful opposition to a policy or a law, or to persuade others (among the opponent or the grievance group) to particular view or action.

2) Noncooperation

which includes denial actions which deliberately aim to restrict, discontinue, withhold or defy certain existing relationships.

3) Nonviolent Intervention

which involves direct physical obstructions to change a given situation, either negatively (by disrupting normal or established social relations) or positively (through creative actions forging new autonomous relations).

Based on historical examples Sharp further distinguished within these categories 198 different methods of nonviolent action:

Methods of Nonviolent Protest and Persuasion

Formal Statements

1. Public speeches
2. Letters of opposition or support
3. Declarations by organizations and institutions
4. Signed public statements
5. Declarations of indictment and intention
6. Group or mass petitions

Communications with a Wider Audience

7. Slogans, caricatures, and symbols
8. Banners, posters, and displayed communications
9. Leaflets, pamphlets, and books
10. Newspapers and journals
11. Records, radio, and television
12. Skywriting and earthwriting

Group Representations

13. Deputations
14. Mock awards
15. Group lobbying
16. Picketing
17. Mock elections

Symbolic Public Acts

18. Displays of flags and symbolic colours
19. Wearing of symbols
20. Prayer and worship
21. Delivering symbolic objects
22. Protest disrobings
23. Destruction of own property
24. Symbolic lights
25. Displays of portraits
26. Paint as protest
27. New signs and names
28. Symbolic sounds
29. Symbolic reclamations
30. Rude gestures

Pressures on Individuals

31. "Haunting" officials
32. Taunting officials
33. Fraternalisation
34. Vigils

Drama and Music

35. Humorous skits and pranks
36. Performances of plays and music
37. Singing

Processions

38. Marches
39. Parades
40. Religious processions
41. Pilgrimages
42. Motorcades

Honouring the Dead

43. Political mourning
44. Mock funerals
45. Demonstrative funerals
46. Homage at burial places

Public Assemblies

47. Assemblies of protest or support
48. Protest meetings
49. Camouflaged meetings of protest
50. Teach-ins

Withdrawal and Renunciation

51. Walk-outs
52. Silence
53. Renouncing honours
54. Turning one's back

Methods of Noncooperation

Social Noncooperation:

Ostracism of Persons

55. Social boycott
56. Selective social boycott
57. Lysistratic nonaction
58. Excommunication
59. Interdict

Noncooperation with Social Events, Customs, and Institutions

60. Suspension of social and sports activities
61. Boycott of social affairs
62. Student strike
63. Social disobedience
64. Withdrawal from social institutions

Withdrawal from the Social System

65. Stay-at-home
66. Total personal noncooperation
67. "Flight" of workers
68. Sanctuary
69. Collective disappearance
70. Protest emigration (hijrat)

Economic Noncooperation:

Actions by Consumers

71. Consumers' boycott
72. Nonconsumption of boycotted goods
73. Policy of austerity
74. Rent withholding
75. Refusal to rent
76. National consumers' boycott
77. International consumers' boycott

Action by Workers and Producers

78. Workmen's boycott
79. Producers' boycott

Action by Middlemen

80. Suppliers' and handlers' boycott

Action by Owners and Management

81. Traders' boycott
82. Refusal to let or sell property
83. Lockout
84. Refusal of industrial assistance
85. Merchants' "general strike"

Action by Holders of Financial Resources

86. Withdrawal of bank deposits
87. Refusal to pay fees, dues, and assessments
88. Refusal to pay debts or interest
89. Severance of funds and credit
90. Revenue refusal
91. Refusal of a government's money

Action by Governments

92. Domestic embargo
93. Blacklisting of traders
94. International sellers' embargo
95. International buyers' embargo
96. International trade embargo

Symbolic Strikes

97. Protest strike
98. Quickie walkout (lightning strike)

Agricultural Strikes

99. Peasant strike
100. Farm Workers' strike

Strikes by Special Groups

101. Refusal of impressed labour
102. Prisoners' strike
103. Craft strike
104. Professional strike

Ordinary Industrial Strikes

105. Establishment strike
106. Industry strike
107. Sympathetic strike

Restricted Strikes

108. Detailed Strike
109. Bumper strike
110. Slowdown strike
111. Working-to-rule strike
112. Reporting "sick" (sick-in)
113. Strike by resignation
114. Limited strike
115. Selective strike

Multi-Industry Strikes

116. Generalised strike
117. General strike

Combination of Strikes and Economic Closures

118. Hartal
119. Economic shutdown

Political Noncooperation:

Rejection of Authority

120. Withholding or withdrawal of allegiance
121. Refusal of public support
122. Literature and speeches advocating resistance

Citizens' Noncooperation with Government

123. Boycott of legislative bodies
124. Boycott of elections
125. Boycott of government employment and positions
126. Boycott of government depts., agencies, and other bodies
127. Withdrawal from government educational institutions
128. Boycott of government-supported organizations
129. Refusal of assistance to enforcement agents
130. Removal of own signs and placemarks
131. Refusal to accept appointed officials
132. Refusal to dissolve existing institutions

Citizens' Alternatives to Obedience

133. Reluctant and slow compliance
134. Nonobedience in absence of direct supervision
135. Popular nonobedience
136. Disguised disobedience
137. Refusal of an assemblage or meeting to disperse
138. Sit-down
139. Noncooperation with conscription and deportation
140. Hiding, escape, and false identities
141. Civil disobedience of "illegitimate" laws

Action by Government Personnel

142. Selective refusal of assistance by government aides
143. Blocking of lines of command and information
144. Stalling and obstruction
145. General administrative noncooperation
146. Judicial noncooperation
147. Deliberate inefficiency and selective noncooperation by enforcement agents
148. Mutiny

Domestic Governmental Action

149. Quasi-legal evasions and delays
150. Noncooperation by constituent governmental units

International Governmental Action

- 151. Changes in diplomatic and other representations
- 152. Delay and cancellation of diplomatic events
- 153. Withholding of diplomatic recognition
- 154. Severance of diplomatic relations
- 155. Withdrawal from international organizations
- 156. Refusal of membership in international bodies
- 157. Expulsion from international organizations

Methods of Nonviolent Intervention

Psychological Intervention

- 158. Self-exposure to the elements
- 159. The fast
 - a) Fast of moral pressure
 - b) b) Hunger strike
 - c) Satyagrahic fast
- 160. Reverse trial
- 161. Nonviolent harassment

Physical Intervention

- 162. Sit-in
- 163. Stand-in
- 164. Ride-in
- 165. Wade-in
- 166. Mill-in
- 167. Pray-in
- 168. Nonviolent raids
- 169. Nonviolent air raids
- 170. Nonviolent invasion
- 171. Nonviolent interjection
- 172. Nonviolent obstruction
- 173. Nonviolent occupation

Graph: Success Rate by Decade (1940-2006)

Social Intervention

- 174. Establishing new social patterns
- 175. Overloading of facilities
- 176. Stall-in
- 177. Speak-in
- 178. Guerrilla theater
- 179. Alternative social institutions
- 180. Alternative communication system

Economic Intervention

- 181. Reverse Strike
- 182. Stay-in Strike
- 183. Nonviolent land seizure
- 184. Defiance of Blockades
- 185. Politically Motivated Counterfeiting
- 186. Preclusive Purchasing
- 187. Seizure of assets
- 188. Dumping
- 189. Selective patronage
- 190. Alternative markets
- 191. Alternative transportation systems
- 192. Alternative economic institutions

Political Intervention

- 193. Overloading of administrative systems
- 194. Disclosing identities of secret agents
- 195. Seeking imprisonment
- 196. Civil disobedience of “neutral” laws
- 197. Work-on without collaboration
- Dual sovereignty and parallel government

Effectiveness of Nonviolent Action

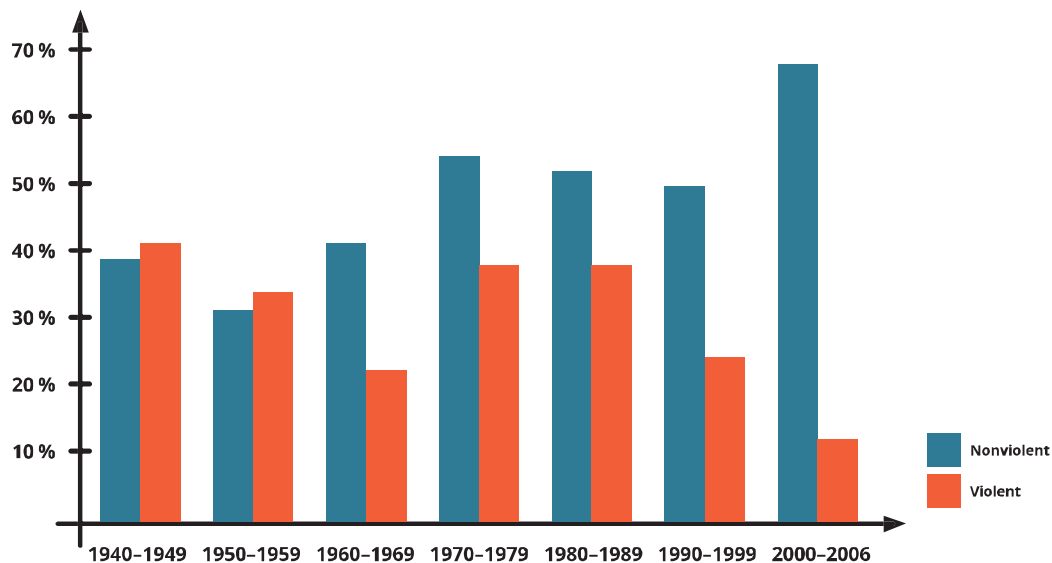
If you (or your country) are attacked it seems to be a legitimate and effective reaction to use violence to defend yourself. Way too many military operations are justified as the only option, and afterwards often glorified as successful. But a ground-breaking study by Erica Chenoweth and Maria J. Stephan, two US-American researchers, is unprecedented in its scope and historical breadth. It sheds new light on the understanding of civil resistance, political change, and the surprising effectiveness of nonviolent action.

Empirical data from 323 cases of nonviolent and violent uprisings between 1900 and 2006, shows that

- 26% of violent uprisings were successful,
- 53% of nonviolent uprisings were successful,
- repressive regimes were 12 time more likely to grant concessions to nonviolent than to violent movements,
- in cases of regime crackdown, nonviolent movements were six times more likely to achieve success than violent movements.

The authors of the study also come to the conclusion that nonviolent campaigns became more and more effective in the last decades.

Graph: Success Rate by Decade (1940-2006)



The study also examines why nonviolent uprisings are more successful. The key factor for success is participation. The superior mobilisation capacity of nonviolent campaigns advantages them relative to violent campaigns. According to Chenoweth and Stephan the participation in nonviolent campaigns is higher because there are lower physical, informal and moral barriers to join a nonviolent campaign.

Based on the empirical data, some key factors for the success of a nonviolent campaign were derived.

A nonviolent campaign is more likely to be successful, if...

- ✓ ... a variety of creative and imaginative methods of nonviolent action (beyond mass protest) are used.
- ✓ ... a large and diverse range of participants can be sustained over time.
- ✓ ... organisational discipline remains strong even in the face of repression so that the campaign does not fall apart or resorts to violence.
- ✓ ... loyalty shifts among key supporters of the regime (such as business, media and most important security forces such as police and military) can be created.

When organising a nonviolent campaign these factors should be kept in mind in order to increase the likelihood of success.

Sources:

Chenoweth, Erica / Maria J. Stephan (2011): Why Civil Resistance Works: The Strategic Logic of Nonviolent Conflict, New York, USA: Colombia University Press

Chenoweth, Erica / Maria J. Stephan (2008): Why Civil Resistance Works: The Strategic Logic of Nonviolent Conflict, in: International Security, Vol. 33, No. 1 (Summer 2008), pp. 7–44

<https://www.belfercenter.org/publication/why-civil-resistance-works-strategic-logic-nonviolent-conflict>

3.8 Communication

In this chapter a basic concept of interpersonal communication is presented and practiced: the anatomy of a message. In addition, some key communication tools are offered for improving ones listening skills. These basic communications tools will be needed for some of the most prominent methods of conflict transformation like negotiation and mediation.

What is Communication?

Communication is the transfer – sending and receiving – of messages.



Why Communication Matters?

Communication skills are key to nonviolent conflict transformation.

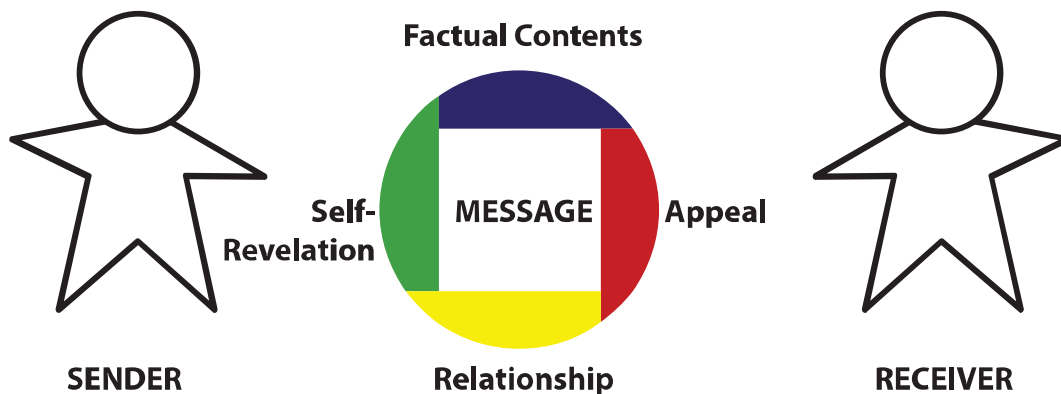
Because in a conflict situation...

- there is usually very little or poor communication between the conflict parties
- while good communication is key to understanding the other side and finding common ground



The Anatomy of a Message

According to communication theory, every message consists of four elements or sides. Whenever we communicate we do not only convey a message of objective factual information. Other messages are entailed as well.



If we apply the Anatomy of a Message we will be able to discover the following four sides of a message:

Factual Contents = objective, matter of fact information

Every message contains some form of information, a portrayal of facts from the point of view of the sender.

Self-Revelation = info about motives, values, emotions of sender

It is possible to infer from a message how the sender views himself/herself and how he/she would like to be viewed by others. It is also possible to infer characteristics from a message of which the sender himself/herself is not even aware. Self-revelation therefore encompasses intentional self-portrayal as well as unintentional self-disclosure.

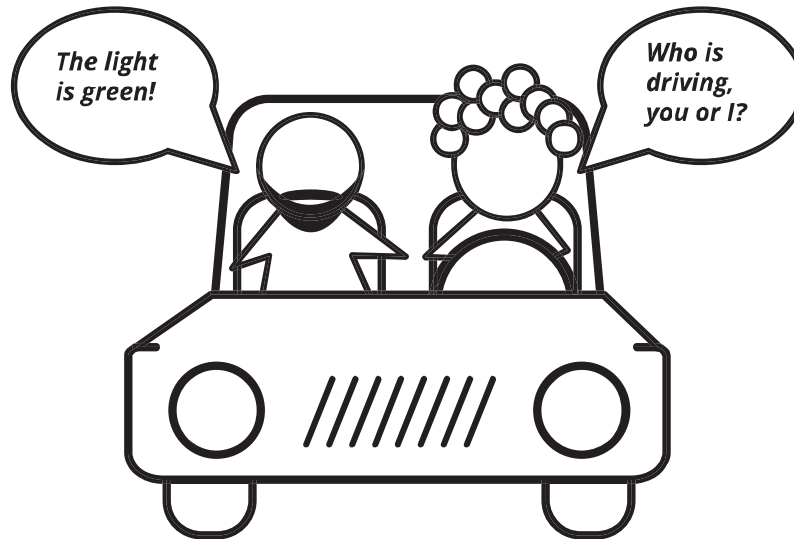
Relationship = info on relationship between sender and receiver

A message also reveals the sender's and receiver's sentiments for each other. A message therefore contains information on the relationship between sender and receiver. This side of a message is often manifested in the tone of voice, gestures, and other non-verbal signals, as well as in the way the message is worded.

Appeal = info on effect the sender is seeking

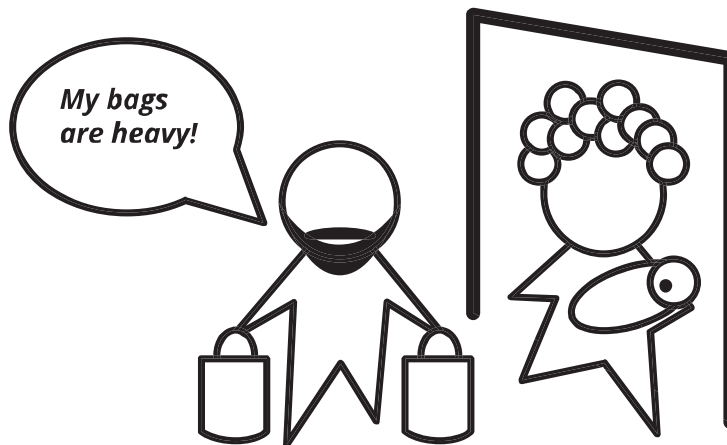
A message is not usually "just sent" by the sender for no special reason. Every message is almost always connected with the attempt to influence the other person. The sender does not only want his/her message to be understood; he/she also wants to achieve a specific effect.

Example: “The light is green!”



- Factual Contents: "The light is green."
- Self-revelation: "I am in a hurry."
- Relationship: "You need my help."
- Appeal: "Step on the gas!"

Example: “My bags are heavy!”



Sources:

Based on Friedemann Schulz von Thun (2008): “The Square of Communication” In: Friedemann Schulz von Thun: Six Tools for Clear Communication. The Hamburg Approach in English Language, Hamburg, Germany: Institut für Kommunikation, 9-18.



Detecting the Four Sides of a Message

Objectives

- Identify the four sides of a message in day-to-day conversations
- Practicing active listening with a focus on the four sides of a message

Description

The Anatomy of a Message distinguishes between four sides of a message that are covered in any communication between a sender and receiver. The four sides are:

- Factual Contents
- Self-Revelation
- Relationship
- Appeal

In this exercise participants will be asked to detect these four sides of a message by listening carefully in a conversation. An observer will give additional feedback if these four sides have been properly identified.

Course of Action

Step 1:

The Participants are divided into groups of fours. Two of these conduct the exercise while the other two observe.

The active pair of discussion partners agrees on a topic for a casual conversation, for example: family or village affairs, office matters, etc.

Step 2:

Partner A (sender) begins to tell a story related to the subject, partner B (receiver) reacts by giving comments:

- on the factual level (3 min)
- on the self-revelation level (3 min)
- on the relationship level (3 min)
- on appeals (3 min)

Step 3:

After the end of the conversation, the observers give their feedback to the active players focusing on how well the players have observed the rules, difficulties on the part of the receiver and hints on how to improve.

Step 4:

The participants swap their roles. The observers now carry out the exercise while the former players observe.

Step 5:	Participants share their experience in the plenary, commenting on <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Which reactions were easy to play (came naturally), which were more difficult → How reacting on a specific level influenced the topic and the atmosphere of the conversation
Options / Variations	The trainers could give more direction in finding topics for the conversation, e.g. issues at work that are problematic. However, then this exercise might stir some emotions that make it more difficult to follow the instructions.
Time needed	40 min in small groups 20 min for sharing in plenary
Material needed	-
Handouts	Anatomy of a Message
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Helpful for realizing that the four sides of a message exist in any kind of communication + Helpful to discover the change of direction a conversation can take if we listen and give feedback on a specific side of a message – Instructions to focus on four sides of a message, and in particular one side at a time, might appear to very technical / artificial communication. Trainers should stress that we do hear these different messages naturally and do react to these in real-life conversations.
More Info	Anatomy of a Message with more examples: Friedemann Schulz von Thun (2008): “The Square of Communication” In: Friedemann Schulz von Thun: Six Tools for Clear Communication. The Hamburg Approach in English Language, Hamburg, Germany: Institut für Kommunikation, 9-18.



Active Listening

As an active listener you are listening well and attentive to the sender in order to understand what he or she is saying.

As the listener, you should then be able to repeat back in your own words and summarise what the sender has said to her or his satisfaction.

This does not mean you agree with the person, but rather understand what she or he is saying.

As an active listener you can use the following communication tools:

Paraphrasing

To paraphrase is to repeat back in your own words what you understand someone else to be saying. The focus of the paraphrase remains on the speaker and not on you, the listener.

A paraphrase should be shorter than the speaker's own statement.

It mirrors the meaning of the speaker's words, but does not merely parrot or repeat the exact words of the speaker.

A paraphrase does not judge or evaluate; it only describes empathetically.

How to?

- ✓ In your own words, say what you think the speaker said.
- ✓ To strengthen the trust in your objectivity, occasionally start your paraphrase like this:
"Let me see if I understood you..."
"It sounds like you are saying..."
- ✓ When you have completed the paraphrase, check the speaker's reaction and if she or he feels understood.

Mirroring

To mirror is a very formal version of paraphrasing in which the facilitator repeats the speaker's words verbatim. This lets the speaker hear exactly what she or he has just said.

Some people experience paraphrasing as some kind of criticism. Mirroring is perceived by those people as more neutral.

In general, the more a facilitator feels the need to establish neutrality, the more frequently she or he should mirror rather than paraphrase.

How to?

- ✓ Repeat what the speaker has said in verbatim – in the speaker's own words.
- ✓ Only change the pronoun when the speaker said "I". Then use "you" instead.
- ✓ Remain warm and accepting in your tone of voice – regardless of what the speaker's voice sounds like.

Summarising

A summary is similar to a paraphrase, but it condenses the content of several comments that may have been made over the course of many minutes.

Facilitators can use it to review all the key points that have been made by one party about their views, thus communicating the sense that they understand the entire situation being presented by that person.

Facilitators can also summarise comments of all speakers every few minutes as a way of keeping the discussion focused.

How to?

- ✓ First, name the topic or restate the question that led to the discussion.
- ✓ Second, indicate the number of key themes you heard.
- ✓ Third, name the first theme, and mention one or two key points related to that theme. Repeat it for each theme.
- ✓ Fourth, pose a question to bridge to the next topic.

Reframing

When reframing you are trying to change the way a thought is presented so that it maintains its fundamental meaning but is more likely to support understanding and conflict transformation efforts.

The task is to restate what each party has said in a way that causes less resistance or hostility. In other words, the facilitator redefines the way they think about the dispute, in the hopes of enabling cooperation between opposing sides.

The ultimate goal of reframing is to create a common definition of the problem acceptable to both parties.

How to?

- ✓ Watch out for negative or even accusatory language in the speaker's statement.
- ✓ Rephrase the statement with less controversial terms without changing the meaning.
- ✓ Emphasise the positive aspects and common goals – literally turn the problem that the speaker sees in the other person into a joint challenge that can be mastered together.

Source:

Based on Sam Kaner (2014): Facilitator's Guide to Participatory Decision-Making. (Third edition) San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass



Communication Skills

Objectives

- Practicing active listening with a focus on communication tools like paraphrasing, mirroring, summarizing and reframing
-

Description

In this exercise participants will be asked to practice active listening skills and the communication tools presented before. In the role of a facilitator, each participant gets the opportunity to apply these in a discussion about a controversial topic between two parties.

Course of Action

Step 1:

The participants are divided into groups of four. Two of these will have a discussion which is facilitated by the third one while the other one will observe.

The group should select a controversial issue. The discussants then start to exchange opinions while the facilitator tries to use the different communication tools presented (see also the respective handout) to support their discussion:

- paraphrasing
- mirroring
- summarising
- reframing

Step 2:

After some 10 min the trainers give a sign that the observer should give feedback now, mainly to the facilitator and how he/she managed to use the tools.

Step 3:

After another 10 min the feedback part should end and another round of discussion is started for which the participants change roles.

Step 4:

In plenary, the trainers should debrief the exercise. Each group can share their experiences and which difficulties they might have had when applying the communication tools.

Options / Variations

The trainers could give more direction in finding topics for the conversation and it could be the same topic for all groups.

If not all participants can practice the role of a facilitator due to time constraints, the summary of the trainers at the end should focus more

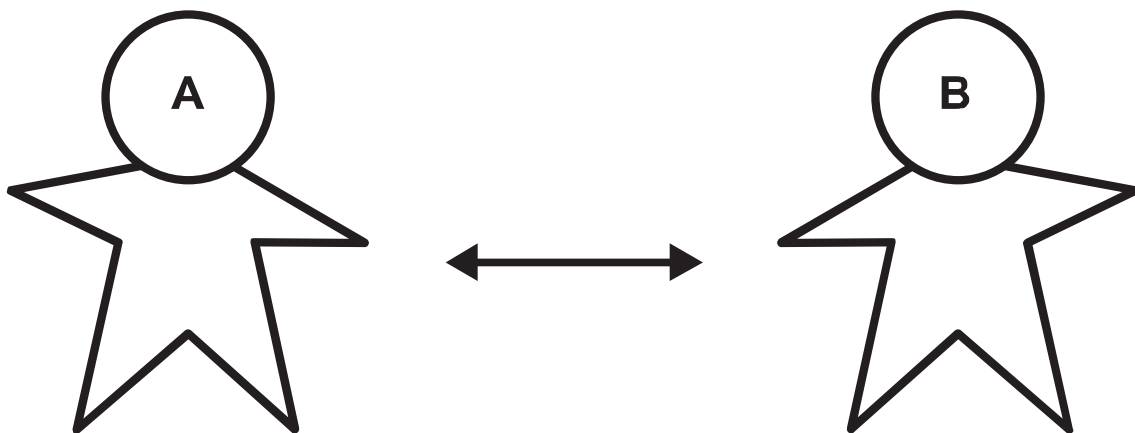
	on learnings that can be concluded for everybody.
Time needed	80 min in small groups 20 min for debriefing in plenary
Material needed	-
Handouts	Active Listening: Paraphrasing, Mirroring, Summarising, Reframing
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + The roleplay setting will allow for experiencing the real challenges of facilitating a discussion + The feedback in the small group setting will allow for deep sharing about the performances as facilitators. – The conflict issue might be too emotional for some participants, be it the facilitators or the discussants.
More Info	<p>These and more communication tools for active listening:</p> <p>Sam Kaner (2014): Facilitator’s Guide to Participatory Decision-Making. (Third edition) San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass, pp 41-63</p>

3.9 Dialogue

In this chapter we will give a definition of dialogue, one of the most basic methods of conflict transformation which can be employed by basically everybody in day-to-day conflict situations. However, we will explain that there is difference between a genuine dialogue and a debate which is rather combative and in which ones wants to win over the other.

What is Dialogue?

Dialogue is a face-to-face interaction between people with different backgrounds, convictions and opinions, in which they respect each other as human beings and are prepared to listen to – and learn from – each other deeply enough to inspire a change of attitudes. It is focused more on the relationship than a specific issue or conflict.



Difference between Debate and Dialogue

Dialogue differs a lot from other kinds of communication. The difference between dialogue and other constructive methods of conflict transformation like negotiation and mediation are explored in the following chapters.

The difference between a typical debate and a genuine dialogue is captured in the following table⁹:

Debate	Dialogue
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assuming that there is a right answer and you have it • Combative: parties attempt to prove the other side wrong • About winning • Listening to flaws and making counterarguments • Defending assumptions a truth • Critiquing the other side’s position • Defending one’s own views against those of others • Searching for flaws and weaknesses in the other positions • Seeking a conclusion or vote that ratifies your position 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assuming that many people have pieces of the answer and that together they can craft a solution • Collaborative: parties work together towards common understanding • About exploring common ground • Listening to understand, find meaning and agreement • Revealing assumptions for re-evaluation • Re-examining all positions • Admitting that others’ thinking can improve on one’s own • Searching for strengths and value in others’ positions • Discovering new options, not seeking closure

⁹ Based on Luc Reyhler (2001): Dialogue and Listening. In: Luc Reyhler / Thania Paffenholz (eds.): Peacebuilding. A Field Guide. London: United Kingdom: Lynne Rienner Publishers, p. 453.

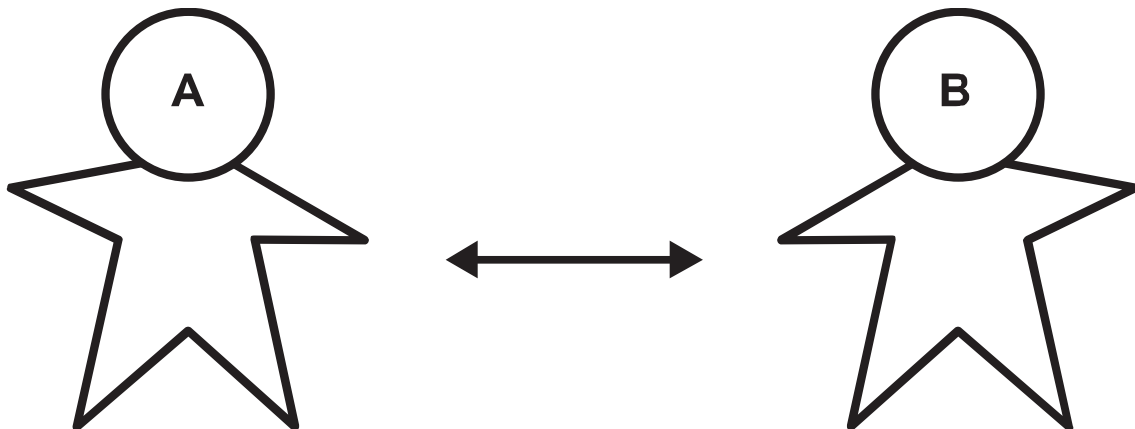
3.10 Negotiation

In this chapter we will provide a definition of negotiation and then introduce the most prominent approach called Principled Negotiation. This approach was developed by Fisher and Ury at the Harvard Law School. Still today, it informs negotiations taking place in the international or business arena. One of the key principles of this approach is to differentiate between positions and interests.

To prepare for this method of conflict transformation we suggest an exercise in which participants can work in pairs in a confidential setting and on their own conflict cases.

What is Negotiation?

Negotiation is back-and-forth communication designed to reach an agreement in a situation where parties on different sides of the situation in question have a number of interests in common and others that are conflicting.



Principled Negotiation – the Harvard Approach

The Harvard Negotiation Project of the Harvard Law School examined the question how the outcome of a negotiation can be more satisfying to both or all parties. In their seminal book “Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement without Giving In” Roger Fisher and William Ury¹⁰ argued if negotiations are based on “positional bargaining” it is quite likely that only a win-lose outcome will follow. While their approach of principled negotiation aims at and can lead to win-win outcomes. It is based on these four principles:

Separate the people from the problem: The relationship (the “people”) is separate from any substantive conflict (the “problem”) you have. By disentangling the relationship from the problem, you reduce the possibility of miscommunication and emotions negatively affecting the negotiation. You want to establish good working relationships in negotiation. Deal with relationship issues, if they exist, separately from substantive issues.

Focus on interests not positions: Interests are the underlying desires, concerns, wants, values, or fears. Interests motivate people, but often individuals will state a position. Many countries have a position that “we will not negotiate with terrorists.” This is a position, but the underlying interests probably relate to concerns and fears about personal security. In conflict, individuals and groups often state only one position, and it will be difficult to negotiate compromises on positions. Behind positions are multiple interests, and focusing on interests allows negotiators more room to generate acceptable solutions.

Invent options for mutual gain: This requires creativity and the commitment to brainstorm options that will be acceptable to both parties. In brainstorming, negotiators need to separate the stage of evaluating options from the stage of generating options. Both parties need to broaden the number of possible options and not search for just one option. Both parties also need to think about options that will satisfy the interests of the other side.

Insist on using objective or mutually acceptable criteria: Often it is possible to identify several relevant standards or criteria by which parties can evaluate the fairness or acceptability of a negotiated agreement. Negotiators can brainstorm criteria or standards in the same way as they brainstorm options.

Fisher and Ury also invented the concept of the **BATNA**. This is a term that refers to the **Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement**. An alternative is different from an option – it refers to a possible course of action if you do not reach a negotiated agreement. The BATNA functions as a bottom line and helps you determine whether or not negotiation is your best option. In order to make a BATNA useful, negotiators need to carefully analyse the costs and benefits of the BATNA, and to evaluate costs and benefits of the negotiated agreement against those of the BATNA. If individuals or groups think they can accomplish their bottom

¹⁰ Roger Fisher / William Ury (1991): Getting to Yes. Negotiating an Agreement without giving in. (Second Edition) New York, USA: Penguin Books

line using other methods (like a strike, violence, legal options) they will resort to those methods and not use a cooperative model of negotiation.

The approach of principled negotiation has some limitation. First, this is a culturally specific concept of negotiation. Second, this approach does not deal with power issues or power imbalance (see Framework of Conflict Transformation in chapter 3.4).



Negotiating a Conflict

Objectives

- Practice basic negotiation skills
-

Description

In this exercise participants prepare for a negotiation process with the support of a partner in pair work. With some guiding questions they reflect on their own interests, beyond their position, as well as their fears. Additionally they are asked to change perspective and reflect about the other side. In this way they also apply some principles of the Harvard approach.

Course of Action

Participants are divided into pairs.

Step 1:

One partner is instructed to:

Think of a situation that you would like to change through negotiation. With your partner, prepare for such a negotiation:

- What are your interests and fears?
- What could be the interests and fears of the other party?
- What do you want from the situation?
- What is the best way to get it?

Check with your partner:

- What would be the ideal / most realistic solution?

Step 2:

After some 15 min partners are asked to swap so that the other person reflects on a situation with the support of the other partner following the above instructions.

Step 3:

In plenary trainers should debrief this exercise with the following questions:

- Do you feel better prepared for a negotiation now?
 - What was the value of such preparation?
 - What skills do you need to improve on?
-

Options / Variations

Trainers could decide to have participants focus not only on interests but on needs (see Fundamental Human Needs in chapter 3.3).

Instead or in addition to preparing for a negotiation the pairs could

roleplay each situation. It is advisable to match each pair with another pair who can serve as observers of the roleplay and give feedback afterwards.

The situations that have been selected in this exercise could be used for the roleplay on “Mediating a Conflict” in chapter 3.12.

Time needed 30 minutes for pair work
15 minutes for debriefing in plenary

Material needed -

Handouts -

Strengths & Limitations

- + The safe setting with only one partner allows for deep sharing and selecting a rather emotional conflict situation.
- The partner might have to push a lot for the other person to change perspective and to think of the interests and fears of their conflict party.

More Info On the Principled Negotiation and the distinction between positions and interests:

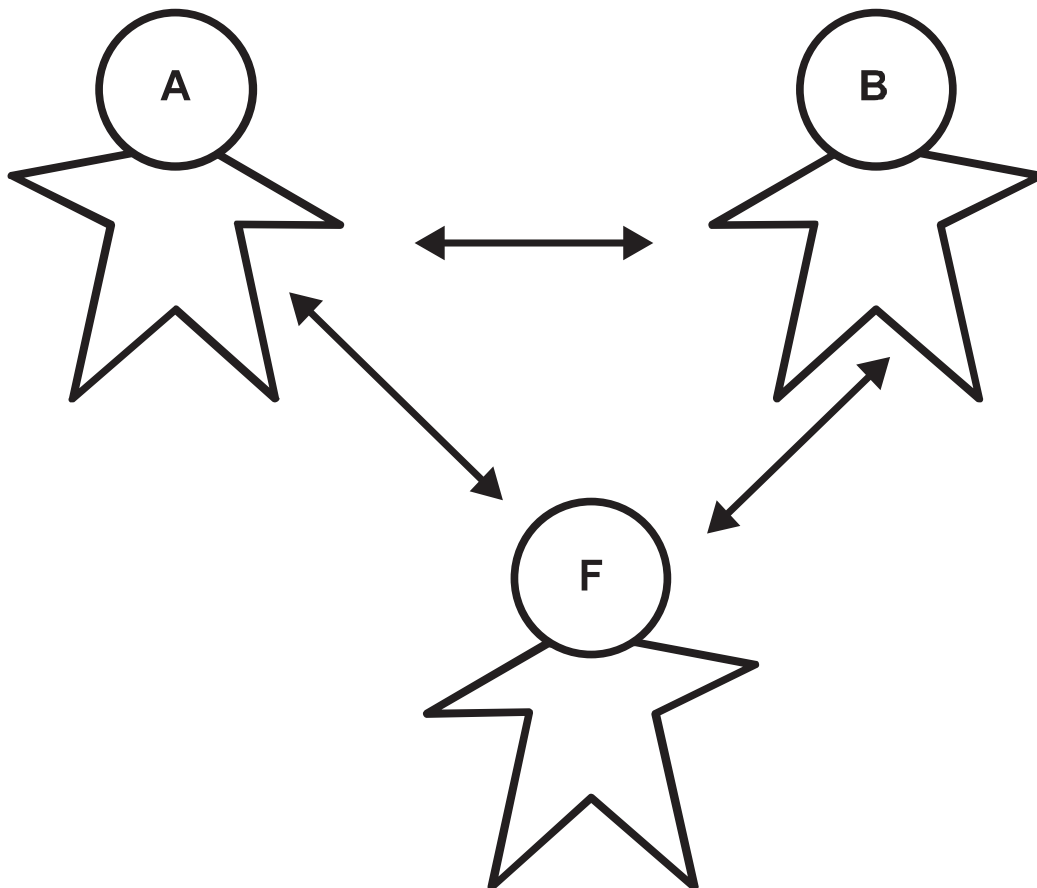
Roger Fisher / William Ury (1991): Getting to Yes. Negotiating an Agreement without giving in. (Second Edition) New York, USA: Penguin Books

3.11 Facilitation

In this chapter we will offer a definition of facilitation and some five guidelines for facilitating a conflict successfully. To practice this method of conflict transformation we suggest a roleplay in which a team of facilitators has to deal with a conflict in the setting of a group meeting. The conflict could be taken from a fictional scenarios or real-life cases which the participants share.

What is Facilitation?

Facilitation is characterised by the presence of an accepted third party (facilitator), who assists the conflict parties in managing key elements of the communication and/or negotiation process.





Guidelines for Facilitating a Conflict

1. Be clear about your own role and objective

As a facilitator, be clear about what is or is not part of your role. Your role is to assist the process of communication without expressing your own views about the issues being discussed. Your objectives are to provide a setting and an atmosphere in which differing views can be exchanged and listened to honestly and without hostility.

As a facilitator, you are responsible for the process, but not the content of the discussion. If you are working as a team of facilitators, then it is important that co-facilitators agree roles and objectives in advance. It is also important that you explain your roles and objectives clearly to the participants and check that they have understood and agree to these.

2. Help the participants to identify their own objectives

With existing groups, you should try to meet with key people in advance to help them set their objectives. This will make it more likely that groups will “own” and support the structure and aims of the process. In any case, there should be a brief statement of agreed objectives at the beginning, reminding everyone why they have come. They may want to present their side’s perceptions, set out a party position, win votes for an upcoming election, envision the future, or give a personal perspective. Is this objective consistent with the aims of other parties to the discussion?

3. Get participants to agree to the ground rules for this process

Help them to set guidelines for themselves which they own and follow during the process. Consider in advance, and make clear, the mechanism for dealing with difficulties.

- How will people signal that they wish to speak, and who will give them the floor? Who will decide whether ground rules have been violated?
- Think in advance about what you, as facilitator, will do in given cases. People may test your limits. How will you respond?
- Are you clear who has set the rules, so that you are able to say that the whole group has agreed them, or that a planning committee decided them?
- Are you willing to discuss the possibility to change the rules? If so, how? By consensus, or by majority vote, or what?
- Is it helpful to have a volunteer to feed back on how the ground rules are working / have worked?

4. Encourage participants to listen to each other

Political talking often seems to include very little listening – it has been called “the dialogue of the deaf”. While one person speaks, the others prepare what they want to say, and they listen only to rebut (speak against) each other's arguments. For change to happen, people must really hear each other, and must feel that they have been heard. As facilitator, you need to have ideas for ways to encourage listening. Some ways in which you might help people to listen to each other include:

- Paraphrasing, i.e. checking what other people have said, and demonstrating to them that they have been heard – e.g. “are you saying that...?”;
- Seeking and articulating points in common or differences;
- Asking questions that elicit personal rather than party statements, if the setting permits vulnerability – e.g. “have you always held that view?” or “what experience led you to that?”;
- Encouraging response to feelings and experiences as well as issues – e.g. “that must have been difficult... painful... inspiring...”;
- Empathy – by listening to each other’s feelings; you need to model empathy yourself and encourage empathy in others – e.g. “do you see how that would feel to the other person?”

Despite the pressure of all the things a facilitator should do, try to focus your eyes and your attention on each speaker, and imagine how each listener is coping. If possible, have a co-facilitator, who can look after time, process and note-taking, while you concentrate on the content of the discussion and the participants.

5. Have a strategy to coping with strong emotions

The first step in dealing with strong emotions is to notice them. As facilitator, be attentive to signals that indicate strong feelings. Then,

- Try to provide a safe way for emotions to be expressed, by asking open-ended questions that allow space to talk about feelings without forcing (e.g. “do you want to tell us how you react to that?”; or offer a format or structure that would permit people to express their feelings in a structured way, e.g. “when you do/say ..., I feel Because”);
- If possible, get people to share the experience that prompts the feeling, rather than having multiple expressions of the same feeling;
- Try to provide ways for aggressive emotions to be transformed into more vulnerable ones, for example, anger may mask hurt or sadness; fear may be an expression of helplessness or powerlessness; but don’t force people to take more risks than they are ready for; you can make the opportunity; they must decide whether or not to take it;

- Although it's best for emotions to be expressed by those who feel them, the facilitator can sometimes verbalise emotions that are diffused among the group (e.g. "she/he may say – that makes me uncomfortable, because it may hurt some people here");
- Be prepared for parallel feelings to arise, and give them room to be expressed – but try to deal with one at a time, promising to return and give attention to other feelings later;
- Where possible, let participants respond to each other's emotions in a human way, without intervening to protect or direct them, unless it seems necessary;
- Be aware of how you own emotions may be affected.

Talking about emotions and experiences can free us of our positions, and enable us to concentrate on needs. Getting beyond "party positions" to honesty is more likely to lead to co-operation and non-adversarial discussion that is focused on the problem, rather than on our strategies for winning. Open-ended questions may allow participants to suggest future actions or new possibilities to try to meet everyone's needs.

Source:

Simon Fisher / Vesna Matović / Bridget Ann Walker / Dylan Matthews (2020): Working with Conflict 2. Skills and Strategies for Action. London: United Kingdom: ZED Books, pp. 136-138.



Facilitating a Conflict Meeting

Objectives

- Practice basic facilitation skills
-

Description

In this exercise participants will roleplay a meeting that is convened to deal with a conflict. Some participants will play the role of facilitators, others will act as conflict parties while some others will be observers. Facilitators will get an opportunity to practice the guidelines for facilitating a conflict as well as communication tools like paraphrasing, mirroring, summarising and reframing. The exercise will highlight the challenges that a facilitator goes through while supporting a process.

Course of Action

The trainer suggests a conflict scenario or supports the group in selecting a conflict scenario in which several actors are involved. The case can be fictional (see Atonia Scenario in chapter 3.6 or the case studies in the Annex) or from real-life (e.g. a real case example of a conflict shared earlier in the training like in the previous chapter 3.10 when “Negotiating a Conflict”).

The roles of the actors in the conflict are distributed amongst the participants so that most get a role. There should be two participants who function as facilitators and additionally a few observers who will be sitting at the back of the room.

The facilitators are supposed to know what kind of conflict the scenario entails but rather not the detailed roles. They are encouraged to use the guidelines for facilitating a conflict (see above) and the communication tools (see chapter 3.8).

Then, each party gets some time to prepare for their respective role, also the observers.

Step 1:

Now the case is played as a facilitated meeting, with the assumption that the conflict transformation has gone already through the initial phases and all parties have agreed to participate in a meeting to resolve the issue. The facilitator team enters a discussion with the actors from the conflict.

Step 2:

After some 20-30 min the trainers stop the facilitation roleplay and start a de-briefing process. First, the trainers invite the facilitators to share how they experienced their role and which difficulties they faced but also what went well in their communication with the conflict parties.

Second, the participants acting as conflict parties are asked how they experienced the facilitation, what was helpful and what was not. Finally, the observers are commenting on how the facilitation guidelines have been applied and if so, proved to be helpful or not.

If time allows a second round of facilitation could be started, with the same or other participants taking the role of the facilitators. It is advisable to give some minutes for further preparation, e.g. for a new strategy of the facilitators.

The second round of roleplaying could be shorter but should be followed by proper debriefing.

Step 3:

After the debriefing, the trainer summarises and visualises the learning from the exercise. For example, typical problems that are faced by facilitators could be listed (e.g. discussion moving off track; voices being raised, somebody talking long, somebody being interrupted, high emotions, verbal offences) and some strategies for dealing with these difficult situations could be collected.

At the end, the trainer should thank and congratulate the facilitators and the actors for their engagement and self-reflection as well as the observers for their constructive feedback.

It is important to lead all participants out of their roles so that the emotions experienced in that role are not affecting their participation in the next sessions.

**Options /
Variations**

As indicated above the conflict scenario could be fictional or real.

The group could be split in smaller units so that more participants can practice their facilitation skills. But there should be always enough different conflict parties and a few observers. And each group should be supported by at least one trainer.

Time needed

20-30 minutes for selection of case, role assignment and preparation

15-20 minutes for each round of roleplaying

20-30 minutes for debriefing

15-30 minutes for getting out of the roles and closing by trainer

**Material
needed**

Flipchart stand and paper, markers

Handouts	-
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Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + The roleplay setting will allow for experiencing the real challenges of facilitating a conflict meeting + The intensive debriefing will allow for deep learning about one's own performance as facilitator but also for learning from their experiences. – The conflict scenario might be too emotional for some participants, be it the facilitators or actors of a conflict party. – The conflict scenario might be too artificial for actors to get into their roles or too complex for the facilitators to find some common ground between the parties in a short time.
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More Info	<p>For a comprehensive and easy-to-read guide for facilitator of different kinds of meetings:</p> <p>Sam Kaner (2014): <i>Facilitator's Guide to Participatory Decision-Making</i>. (Third edition) San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass</p>
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3.12 Mediation

In this chapter we will start with a definition of mediation and a model in which five phases of a mediation process are distinguished. In each phase the mediator has to focus on different tasks which are listed in detail.

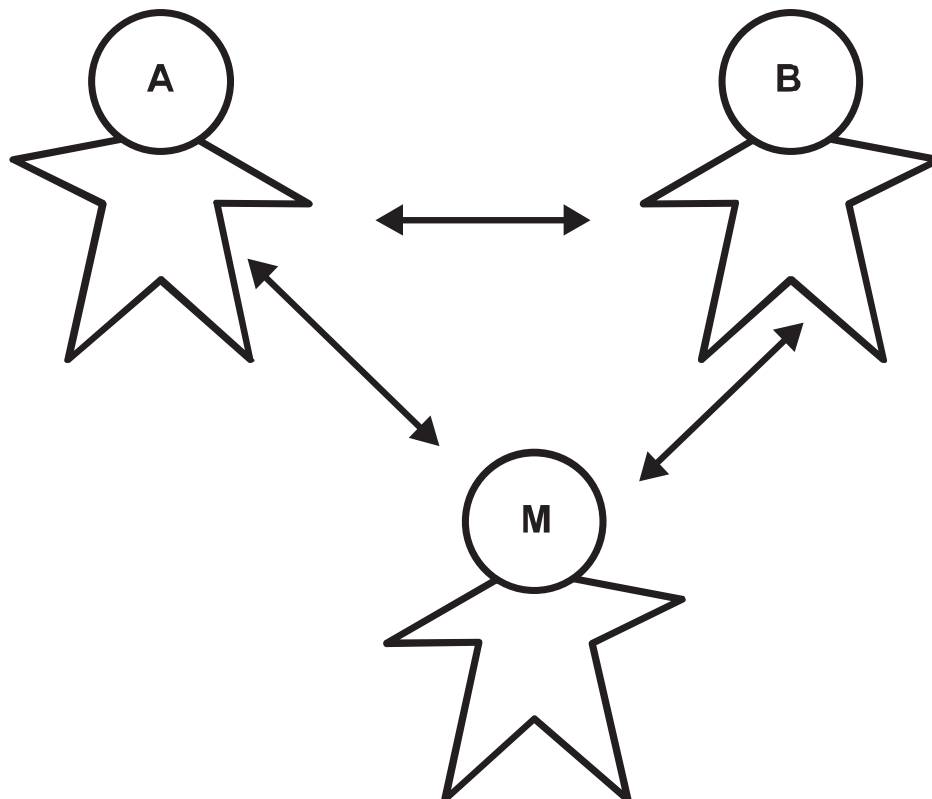
To practice this method of conflict transformation we suggest a roleplay in which a team of mediators has to deal with a conflict in a setting that is not too complex, i.e. involving only two people who are having a conflict on the personal level.

What is Mediation?

Mediation is an assisted negotiation. It is a structured process where an impartial third party without decision-making authority assists the parties in conflict with each other to negotiate a mutually acceptable agreement.

Key to mediation is that participation is strictly on a voluntary basis and can be cancelled by any party at any time.

The mediator is responsible for enabling good communication between the parties. The parties to the conflict are solely responsible for the contents. The mediator does not suggest any solutions to the conflict but only for the communication process.





5 Phases of a Mediation Process

1. Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">⇒ Create a good atmosphere⇒ Present yourself as mediator⇒ Explain about contact you had with parties so far⇒ Explain mediation process and role of mediator⇒ Clarify open questions⇒ Receive confirmation of willingness to enter mediation process by all parties
2. Perception of each party	<ul style="list-style-type: none">⇒ Have all parties relate their perception of the conflict to you as mediator while the other parties listen⇒ Model good communication by active listening, paraphrasing, mirroring, summarizing and reframing⇒ Allow for clarification questions from the other parties⇒ Allow (if possible and helpful) for feedback from the other parties what they understood⇒ Identify issues that are at the core of the conflict⇒ State differences but also commonalities, especially shared interests
3. Exploration	<ul style="list-style-type: none">⇒ Explore background of conflict with each party⇒ Identify positions, interests and needs of all parties⇒ Encourage parties to look toward future and develop wishes for future⇒ Re-establish direct communication between parties (especially when positive statements and wishes are made)⇒ Ask for feedback from the other parties what they understood
4. Solutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">⇒ Generate options for mutual gain, e.g. brainstorm individually or collectively with parties⇒ Discuss and test options⇒ Select most relevant options
5. Agreement	<ul style="list-style-type: none">⇒ Put selected options in writing⇒ Check with each party if they agree and if their most important issues are addressed⇒ Include some check after a certain period of time if agreement worked for all parties⇒ Read final agreement to all parties⇒ Have each party sign and receive a copy⇒ Close with praise for constructive handling of conflict

Source:

Based on Christoph Besemer (1993): *Mediation – Vermittlung in Konflikten*.



Mediating a Conflict

Objectives

- Practice basic mediation skills
-

Description

In this roleplay participants get the chance to act as neutral mediator in a conflict setting. Two participants will play the role of mediators, two others will act as conflict parties while two or more will be observers. Mediators will follow the five phases of the mediation process and will practice also communication tools like paraphrasing, mirroring, summarising and reframing. The exercise will highlight the challenges that a mediator has to overcome to re-establish direct and constructive communication between conflict parties.

Course of Action

It is suggested to start practising mediation with a case that is not too complex, i.e. involving only two parties who have a conflict on the personal level. These case examples can be given by the participants (e.g. the examples participants came up with in pair work in chapter 3.10 when “Negotiating a Conflict”) or trainers select simple scenarios from their own experiences or mediation manuals. The trainers should describe the selected scenario in a few neutral words.

In each round there are at least two mediators who deal with two conflict parties plus two or more observers. The mediators are encouraged to follow the five steps of the mediation process and the respective tasks of each phase.

Then, the mediators as a team as well as each party get some time to prepare for their respective role, also the observers.

Step 1:

Now the mediator team opens the mediation with a well-prepared introduction. Then they invite each party to share their perception of the conflict. The mediators should get enough time to conclude this second phase of the mediation process with some brief summary.

Step 2:

After some 20-30 min the trainers stop the mediation roleplay and start a de-briefing process. First, the trainers invite the mediator to share how they experienced their role and which difficulties they faced but also what went well in their communication process with the conflict parties. Second, the participants acting as conflict parties are asked how they experienced the mediation, what was helpful and what was not. Finally, the observers are commenting on how the different tasks of each phase of the mediation process were covered.

If time allows a second round of mediation could be started, with the same or other participants taking the role of the mediators. However, it is advisable to switch roles to give more people the change to practice mediation skills. Some time should be for further preparation, e.g. for a new strategy of the mediators.

The second round of roleplaying could start where the process has ended or re-start at the beginning if that introduction phase needs more practice. In any case, a proper debriefing needs to follow again.

Step 3:

After the debriefing, the trainer summarises and visualises the learning from the exercise. For example, typical problems that are faced by mediators could be listed (e.g. lack of trust in mediators; parties not wanting to listen to the other side; high emotions; verbal offences) and some strategies for dealing with these difficult situations could be collected.

At the end, the trainer should thank and congratulate the mediators and the actors for their engagement and self-reflection as well as the observers for their constructive feedback.

It is important to lead all participants out of their roles so that the emotions experienced in that role are not affecting their participation in the next sessions.

**Options /
Variations**

As indicated above the conflict scenario could be fictional or real. Depending on the level of experience of participants more complex scenarios could be selected, i.e. with more actors and a conflict on the group or societal level.

The group could be split in groups of six so that more participants can practice their mediation skills. And each group should be supported by at least one trainer.

Time needed

20-30 minutes for selection of case, role assignment and preparation
20-30 minutes for each round of roleplaying
20-30 minutes for debriefing
15-30 minutes for getting out of the roles and closing by trainer

**Material
needed**

Flipchart stand and paper, markers

Handouts

5 Phases of a Mediation Process

Strengths & Limitations

- + The roleplay setting will allow for experiencing the real challenges of mediating a conflict
- + The intensive debriefing will allow for deep learning about one's own performance as mediator but also for learning from their experiences.

- The conflict scenario might be too emotional for some participants, be it the mediator or actors of a conflict party.
- The conflict scenario might be too artificial for actors to get into their roles or too complex for the mediators to find some common ground between the parties in a short time.

More Info

To practice mediation more and to gain more insights into working with group conflicts and cross-cultural settings:

Ronald S. Kraybill (2001): *Peace Skills: Manual for Community Mediators*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass

3.13 Dealing with the Past

What is Dealing with the Past?

In the process of conflict transformation it is of utmost importance to deal with the violent past.

“In the aftermath of a war affecting millions of people, countless fleeing their homes, hundreds of thousands being killed and many more losing their loved ones, we cannot merely turn a page and say: Let us start peacebuilding now, let us all advocate reconciliation. War terrors that have marked people’s lives and caused losses cannot be forgotten or put behind us easily. It is also not sufficient to just arrest several hundred criminals and put them on trial for war crimes. We need to heal the wounds that are still bleeding many years after the war. They certainly cannot heal when the suffering of others is not being acknowledged and the enemy narratives and biased interpretations of war still permeate the public space. (...)

(...) our societies will never make significant contributions in peacebuilding and prevention of some future armed conflict, unless we start dealing with our past marked with war and the injustices done in our name in an honest and direct way. I believe there can be no lasting peace in our region until people regain their sense of security and their belief that justice can be fulfilled.

If we want to build sustainable peace, it is essential to start changing the things that made war possible in the first place. We also need to examine our own responsibility for the wars – what have we done, and what not, what could have been done differently, and especially what can be done at the present moment in order to contribute to building lasting peace.”

Ivana Franović, Centre for Nonviolent Action Belgrade-Sarajevo¹¹

A holistic approach to dealing with the past can be based on the principles that have been developed on the international level and have been approved by the UN Commission on Human Rights in 1997 and were updated in 2005¹²:

- The right to know
- The right to justice
- The right to reparations
- The guarantee of non-recurrence.

¹¹ Ivana Franović (2014): On CNA Approach to Dealing with the Past. In: Reconciliation?! Training Handbook for Dealing with the Past, Centre for Nonviolent Action Belgrade – Sarajevo, p. 29-30.

¹² UN Commission on Human Rights (2005): Report of the independent expert to update the Set of principles to combat impunity, Diane Orentlicher. Addendum: Updated Set of principles for the protection and promotion of human rights through action to combat impunity. E/CN.4/2005/102/Add.1

Each of these four principles are translated into an individual right on part of the victims and their families, a collective right on the part of the society, and an obligation on the part of the state to ensure that these rights are granted.

Conceptual Framework for Dealing with the Past¹³



The above conceptual framework for Dealing with the Past was developed by swisspeace and the Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs. It shows the variety of measures that can be employed to serve the four principles of Dealing with the Past, and how these are interlinked and depend on each other. In this respect it becomes obvious that Dealing with the Past is a long-term process is part of conflict transformation and the prevention of future violent conflict.

¹³ swisspeace (2016): A Conceptual Framework for Dealing with the Past. Bern: Switzerland.
<https://www.swisspeace.ch/assets/publications/downloads/Essentials/7bdf926517/A-Conceptual-Framework-for-Dealing-with-the-Past-Essential-16-swisspeace.pdf>



Colourful Barometer: Dealing with the Past

Objectives

- Stimulate discussions about key aspects of dealing with the past
-

Description

This barometer exercise is useful to start an exchange of opinions about processes of dealing with the past. It offers different perspectives on dealing with the past that participants can relate to and share their own perspective. By offering different pre-formulated standpoints on key aspects it implies that there is no right answer and participants are invited to express themselves freely.

Course of Action

Trainers have to prepare a few sets of papers with the below mentioned statements – preferably the papers are in different colours.

Step 1:

One set of papers is placed in four different corners of the room and read out. Participants are asked to choose the statement that they agree with most.

Step 2:

Trainers ask a few participants standing by each statement to comment on their choice. Not everybody needs to speak in every round, but all statements that participants chose should be covered.

Then another set of papers is laid out by the trainers and steps 1 and 2 are repeated

Step 3:

The trainers should wrap-up this session with some references to comments that participants have made in order to illustrate the different perspectives and the complexities of dealing with the past processes.

Options / Variations

The focus could be shifted towards the term “reconciliation” which is either used as an umbrella term like Dealing with the Past or equated with “forgiveness”.

Depending on the context and the background of participants the statements offered here might need to be adjusted by de-selecting or re-phrasing specific statements.

The wrap-up at the end could include a presentation of the four principles and the conceptual framework of dealing with the past.

Time needed	45-60 min
Material needed	Coloured paper with statements Sets of statements: 1. “I lived in the midst of the war”; “The war only touched me incidentally”; “The war did not directly affect my life”; “I watched the war on TV”. 2. “Dealing with the past should be a priority in our societies”; “Dealing with the past is something I don’t understand”; “Dealing with the past is important, but there are many more important things”; “Dealing with the past is a concept imposed by the West”; “Other”. 3. “Dealing with the past is the responsibility of non-governmental organisations”; “Dealing with the past is the responsibility of the state”; “Dealing with the past is not my responsibility”; “Dealing with the past is the responsibility of the victims”. 4. “The most important thing is to convict the criminals”; “The most important thing is to establish the truth”; “The most important thing is satisfaction for the victims”; “The most important thing is for my side to admit it committed crimes”. 5. “My society has progressed far in dealing with the past”; “My society has not even started this process”; “My society has made small steps”; “My society deals with the past every day”.
Handouts	-
Strengths & Limitations	+ Useful for getting started with the topic Dealing with the Past + Helpful to discover the different experiences and perspectives of participants on this complex and at times emotional topic – Demanding exercise if there is little trust amongst the participants to open up as it requires literally positioning oneself on various aspects of dealing with the past. Trainers should stress that there is no right or wrong opinion and that one can change position when others share their reasoning.
More Info	Centre for Nonviolent Action (2012): Reconciliation?! Training Handbook for Dealing with the Past. Belgrade: Serbia / Sarajevo: Bosnia-Hercegovina http://nenasilje.org/publikacije/pdf/prirucnik_pomirenje/Handbook_Reconciliation_e.pdf

3.14 Peace Education

“Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed.”

Preamble of the UNESCO Constitution, 1945

What is Peace Education?

Peace education is the process of acquiring the attitudes, skills, and behaviours to live in peace with oneself, with others, and with the natural environment. Through peace education people are prepared to become peace agents who have a positive attitude towards others, who are able to reduce tensions, who can act as a third party in escalating conflicts in order to avoid violence and to find ways for a sustainable peace and a culture of peace.

Thus, peace education activities can cover a wide range of topics – including understanding peace, violence and nonviolence, analysing conflicts and practising methods of nonviolent conflict transformation like nonviolent action or mediation.

Peace education can be conducted with people of all ages and on all levels of society, in formal and non-formal settings, and at all times. However, bringing people together in times of violent conflict is most challenging not only for security reasons but also people might be less open for a change of perspective.

Education for Peace: Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge

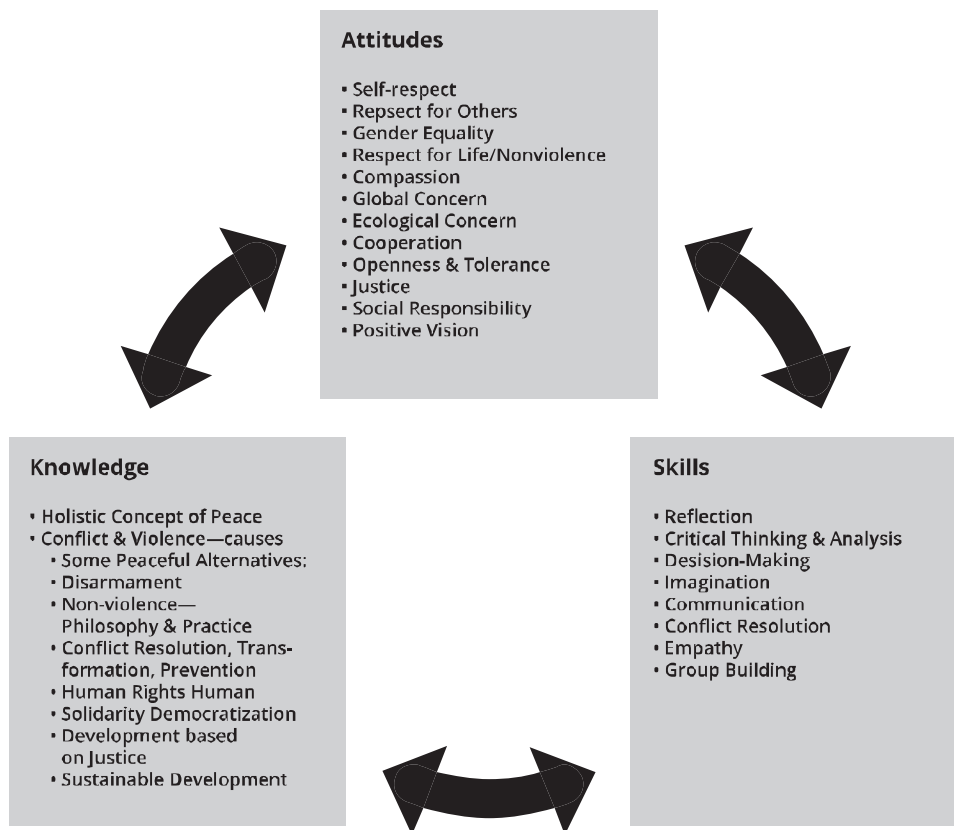
One key recommendation for designing peace trainings is adopting the so-called ASK model.¹⁴ The abbreviation stands for attitudes, skills and knowledge. According to this model learning process are to be focussed on these three areas:

Attitudes: feelings, belief or values about someone or something

Skills: abilities based on performance measured in time and precision

Knowledge: condition of being aware of something (facts or concepts)

Based on research by the Centre for Peace Education of Miriam College in the Philippines the KSA model was applied to peace education.¹⁵ The below graph shows which attitudes, skills and knowledge could and should be at the core of peace education:



¹⁴ PeaceTraining.eu (2018): The Peace Training Handbook. Strengthening the Capabilities and Training Curricula of Conflict Prevention and Peace Building Personnel with ICT-based Collaboration and Knowledge Approaches. Vienna: Austria, p. 11.

<https://www.peacetraining.eu/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/The-Peace-Training-Handbook.pdf>

¹⁵ Loreta Navarro / Jasmin Nario Galace (2019): Peace Education. A Pathway to a Culture of Peace, Quezon City, Philippines: Centre for Peace Education (Third Edition), p. 29-34.

3.15 Humanitarian Assistance and Development Work

Humanitarian assistance and development work are often provided with the best motives. Many agencies consider their work to be neutral or nonpartisan. However, experiences has shown that their work “becomes part and parcel” of the context and subsequently of the conflict.

“When given in conflict settings, aid can reinforce, exacerbate, and prolong the conflict; it can also help to reduce the tensions and strengthen people’s capacities to disengage from fighting and find peaceful options for solving problems.”

Mary B. Anderson (1999): Do No Harm. How Aid Can Support Peace – or War

Humanitarian Assistance and development work are legitimate activities and they can contribute to peace in their own way. In this chapter we want acknowledge the supportive role that humanitarian assistance and development work can play in a context of conflict and we will have a closer look how we can differentiate between interventions “working in conflict” and working on conflict”.

In this chapter we will also present the Do No Harm-Approach that was developed since 1994 in a collaborative learning process of many practitioners in the field of humanitarian assistance and development work. This approach was adopted peace work and proved to be very effective for improving peace interventions as well.



Working in Conflict / Working on Conflict

To determine the difference between “working IN conflict” and “working ON conflict” we must look at an intervention’s overall objective. For example, many projects that are implemented in the context of conflict aim at achieving socio-economic development and improving the livelihood of communities. These are important goals for an organisation working in a situation marked by conflict. Organisations have specialised on such activities, they have developed professional standards for planning, implementing, and monitoring their activities. Many activities in this field also address issues of structural violence and inequality within the society as an essential element for development, e.g. strengthening marginalised communities or overcoming various forms of discrimination against certain people or groups of people. Often, such activities of **working IN conflict** reduce tensions arising from structural issues in a society and enhance a society’s capacity to manage change in constructive ways.

Other organisations have specialised on addressing the underlying issues and the dynamics of a conflict directly. Their activities aim at reducing violence, rebuilding relationships, and improving prospects for peace. These organisations are intentionally **working ON conflict**. They have developed their own sets of approaches, methods and tools to address issues, actors and dynamics of violent conflict.

In any situation of (sometimes violent) conflict clearly both types of interventions are required to bring about meaningful change. All efforts undertaken in conflict areas must be conflict-sensitive.

Working in conflict means engaging in a programme or series of activities in a specific conflict-prone context to address immediate issues of survival, livelihood or social and economic development. These activities are conflict sensitive if they are done in a way that encourages people to disengage from behaviours and activities that boost confrontation and violence. Such activities may gradually change people’s perceptions, attitudes and values and provide space for different, constructive and positive social engagement that contributes to reducing divisions and tensions.

Working on conflict means addressing and engaging key factors and drivers of a conflict at all levels. Such kinds of activities usually focus on interests, systems, institutions and power distribution among actors which are conducive to or sources of tensions, divisions and inequalities within society and are at the root of the conflict.

Both types of activities are faced with the same challenge: how to avoid unintentionally doing harm by strengthening and reinforcing factors that drive division, tension or violence – or by weakening and undermining existing local capacities for peace. Conflict Sensitivity is a framework to help organisations handling this challenge.



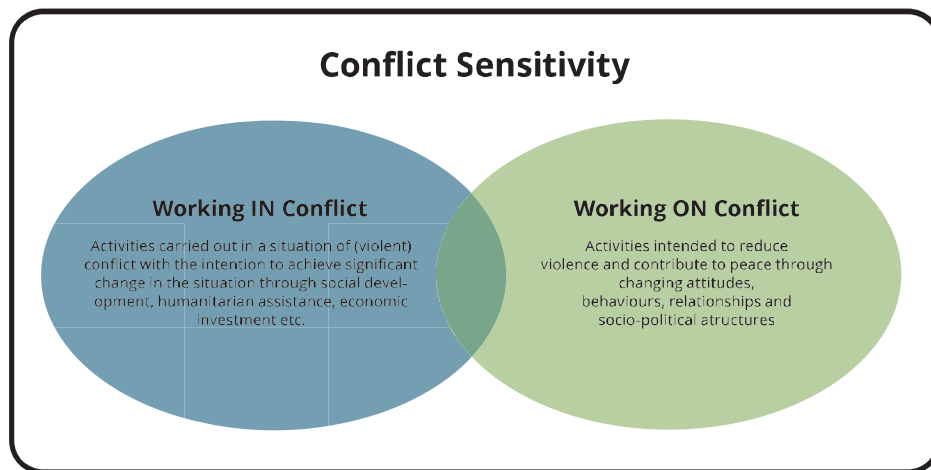
Conflict Sensitivity

The term Conflict Sensitivity (CS) came into use at the beginning of this century. Its background is the reflections and intensive discussions which started in the early 1990ies among different types of organisations about the effects of engaging in situations of often violent conflict within societies and between states. Examples are the “Local Capacities for Peace Project” in which development and humanitarian aid organisations systematically analysed how unintended negative effects of development activities or humanitarian assistance come about.¹⁶ Or the “Reflecting on Peace Practice Project” (RPP) in which different organisations working in conflict transformation systematically reflected about peacebuilding effectiveness¹⁷.

For a long time, it was assumed that efforts to build peace are by definition sensitive to the context of violent conflict. Empirical evidence, for example collected by the RPP, showed that this is not always the case.

“Conflict sensitivity is “a deliberately systematic practice that ensures that our processes and actions minimize negative and maximize positive effects within a given context, based on the awareness about the interaction between the said processes and actions and the particular context.”

Lucia Montanaro, Head of EU office, Saferworld, 2019¹⁸



¹⁶ Anderson, Mary B., 1999: Do No Harm. How Aid Can Support Peace – Or War. Lynne-Rienner Publishers, Boulder, COL

¹⁷ Anderson, Mary B. and Lara Olson, with Kristin Doughty, 2003: Confronting War: Critical Lessons For Peace Practitioners. CDA Collaborative Learning Projects <https://www.cdacollaborative.org/publication/confronting-war-critical-lessons-for-peace-practitioners/>

¹⁸ Evaluation in hard to reach areas: Conflict sensitivity - a criterion for evaluations in the contexts of violent conflicts. ESS Conference, Bruxelles 2019

The objective of conflict sensitivity is to ensure that the risks of unintentionally feeding into conflict are identified and mitigated, and that opportunities to maximise contributions towards peace are pursued.

Conflict sensitivity is used to improve the effectiveness of interventions in a conflict setting no matter if it is humanitarian assistance, development work or conflict transformation and peacebuilding.

Conflict sensitivity is a conceptual framework that reminds any organisation that three things are required if their work is intended to be sensitive towards the context in which the project is being implemented. These are the three steps of conflict sensitivity:

1.) Understand the context!

Do a thorough and systematic conflict analysis. Use tested tools for conflict analysis (e.g. Do No Harm Steps 2 and 3).

2.) Recognise the interaction between your intervention and the context!

Assess the likely (in the process of planning) and actual (during implementation) effects of your activities on the context (e.g. Do No Harm Steps 4, 5a and 5b).

3.) Act upon this assessment and adapt your intervention!

Re-design your intervention depending on the aspect of its design that causes the unintended effects in order to avoid it and to maximise positive effects of your work (e.g. Do No Harm Steps 6 and 7).¹⁹

This assessment is reviewed frequently whenever significant changes occur in the context – or in the intervention.

¹⁹ Lucia Montanaro, Head of EU office, Saferworld, 2019: Evaluation in hard to reach areas: Conflict sensitivity - a criterion for evaluations in the contexts of violent conflicts. ESS Conference, Bruxelles



The Do No Harm-Approach

Objectives

The objective of the set of tools of Do No Harm (DNH)-Approach is

- To systematically analyse the context of conflict
- To systematically assess possible unintended effects of project activities on the dynamics of conflict
- To generate options to adjust project activities to avoid unintended negative effects and strengthen positive effects.

Description

Do No Harm is a conceptual framework and a set of tools that facilitate a systematic assessment of possible unintended negative effects of project activities already while planning a project. It was developed by practitioners of humanitarian assistance and development work. Starting in 1994 practitioners from local and international organisations engaged in a process of collaborative analysis and learning from practical experience to understand why unintended negative effects of development projects and humanitarian assistance occur in almost all situations. The process was facilitated by Collaborative for Development Action (CDA)²⁰.

The question was: if unintended negative effects can be observed regularly, irrespective of the type of activity, type of organisation and type of situation could there be patterns or regularities by which unintended negative effects come about?

Such patterns were in fact discovered. The practitioners used these patterns to develop a set of tools – the 7 Steps of Do No Harm – that allow to systematically analyse the context of where the project will be implemented and to systematically assess possible unintended effects already in the process of planning a project. This permits organisations to generate and consider programming options if possible unintended effects are suspected.²¹

Do No Harm is also being used for monitoring the effects of project activities.

Course of Action

1. Understand the context: in addition to a thorough conflict analysis DNH provides a tool to systematically analyse sources of tension / dividers as well as local capacities for peace / connectors

²⁰ Today CDA Collaborative Learning <https://www.cdacollaborative.org>

²¹ See: Anderson, Mary B. 1999: Do No Harm. How Aid can support Peace – Or War. Lynne-Rienner Publications, Boulder COL

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. <u>Know who you are and what you do</u>: DNH provides a framework to self-critically assess the details of the project and the organisation's role 3. <u>Be aware of unintended negative effects</u>: DNH provides tools to systematically examine the project's details for potential unintended negative effects 4. <u>Be ready to act</u>: DNH challenges organisations to generate programming options to avoid unintended negative effects and maximize positive effects of their work
Options / Variations	There are numerous variations of DNH as organisations have adapted and integrated it into their specific procedures and methods used at the various stages of their project cycle management system (PCM). Such adaptations may be different terminology (e.g. instead of "do no harm" using "better programming") or adapting it with a specific focus (e.g. management of staff security).
Time needed	1,5 to 3 days for an introduction into the concept of DNH and a detailed introduction into the 7 Steps of DNH, preferably using a case study for demonstration.
Material needed	<p>Do No Harm Trainer's Manual²²</p> <p>2 to 3 Pin boards, 2 flip-chart stands and flip chart paper, Meta cards (different colours), markers (different colours), pins</p> <p>Alternative: white-boards and non-permanent markers (different colours)</p>
Handouts	See Trainer's Manual
Strengths / Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + encourages systematic analysis and assessment of effects + tools are tested and very practical – "Do No Harm" may be understood as a standard that is impossible to fulfil – sometimes only elements are used (e.g. dividers/connectors analysis) resulting in an incomplete analysis

²² For example: KURVE Wustrow (2018): Do No Harm Trainer's Manual (revised edition) <https://www.kurvewustrow.org/sites/default/files/media/file/2019/donoharmtrainersmanual-2018-1043.pdf>

Other versions of the original 2002 Do No Harm Trainer's Manual can be found on CDA's website.

3.16 Holistic Security

“Caring for myself is not an indulgence, it is self-preservation and that is an act of political warfare.”

Audre Lorde

In this chapter we will first explain the Holistic Security approach and three main security strategies. Then we will offer more details on three main aspects of holistic security: psycho-social security, physical security and digital security. In an exercise participants will reflect about the current security situation, and possible improvements.

What is Holistic Security?

Security for human rights defenders, activists and NGOs is often framed in rather narrow terms, such as protection from violent attacks, office raids, judicial harassment or threats from armed groups. Yet, this overlooks many varied and subtle ways in which we can be vulnerable and resilient, as well as important steps we can take to sustain ourselves and our work. In this section we will explore the concepts of well-being, diverse security strategies, and managing our digital information as being fundamental to a 'holistic' approach.

Well-being as subversive and political

The holistic approach frames security for human rights defender, activists and NGOs as well-being in action: being physically and emotionally healthy and sustaining ourselves while continuing to do the work that we believe in.

In order to protect ourselves from the threats to our well-being posed by stress, fatigue, trauma, and grief (among other things) we have to engage consciously and deliberately with the idea of self-care. Self-care should not be understood not a selfish act, but rather as a subversive and political act of self-preservation.

How we define our well-being in the context of activism is subjective and deeply personal. It is influenced by the differing needs of our bodies and minds, the challenges we face, our beliefs (religious, spiritual or secular), our gender identities, interests and relationships. As activists and human rights defenders, we must define security for ourselves and build solidarity and support for one another into our groups, organisations and movements on this basis. This step is fundamental to our later processes of analysis and strategising to defend and expand our space for positive action in promotion and defence of human and other rights.

Maintaining our socio-political space for work

We can view attacks against human rights defenders, activists and NGOs as attempts by our adversaries – those who don't share our aims or actively oppose them – to close the socio-political space in which we work. This space can include literal physical spaces, as well as economic, social, technological, legal or environmental space, among others.

Adopting an organised approach to security means defending our space for work and, ideally, expanding it. To achieve this we can implement strategies which either encourage others to accept our work; deter attacks against us, or with which we can protect ourselves.

Taking control of our information

An organised holistic approach to security requires an organised approach to information and data management. Protecting our sensitive data - the files we manage, our email and mobile phone communication, etc. – is now more important than ever. On account of the increasing use of digital technologies in human rights activities, our adversaries and the threats they pose have adapted to this new environment too. We must deliberately identify our sensitive data and protect it, not only as a security measure, but also as an act of political self-empowerment.

So let's think of holistic security practice as conserving the well-being and agency of human rights defenders, their families and communities through the consistent use of tools and tactics for psycho-social, physical and digital well-being and security in ways that support and reinforce each other. Referring to holistic security as 'well-being in action', means thinking about our safety as a source of empowerment.

Resilience and agility

We should remember that the threats and challenges we face as human rights defenders are always changing. In our work, 'unexpected' events are the norm and no single security plan will work in every situation. We need to expect the unexpected and stay 'present', engaged and centred to hone our ability to cope.

Accepting that we can't make ourselves completely 'safe' in every situation we also need to build our own resilience and agility. In this sense, resilience is the ability to recover quickly from set-backs or injuries; agility is the ability to quickly adopt new security practices in response to new or emerging threats. The goal therefore, is not to cease our activities in order to be safe, but to mitigate and reduce that threats we face, to protect ourselves and our communities as we carry out our work.

For most human rights defenders, the notions of resilience and agility are not new, nor is the idea of having tools and tactics for staying safe during dangerous work. Before developing new approaches to our security it is worth exploring some of the existing practices we have by completing the following exercise.

Source:

Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective

<https://holistic-security.org/chapters/prepare/chapter-1-1-what-is-holistic-security.html>



Holistic Security in a Nutshell

Holistic Security is an approach to the security and protection of human rights defenders that recognises the need for, and promotes, an interdisciplinary understanding of political violence and the strategies needed to reduce it. This includes (among other things):





Physical security: The protection of the physical integrity of the organisation and its staff, including protection of the building, hardware, and physical files and documentation. Travel and other forms of logistical security for events and workshops also fall under this category.

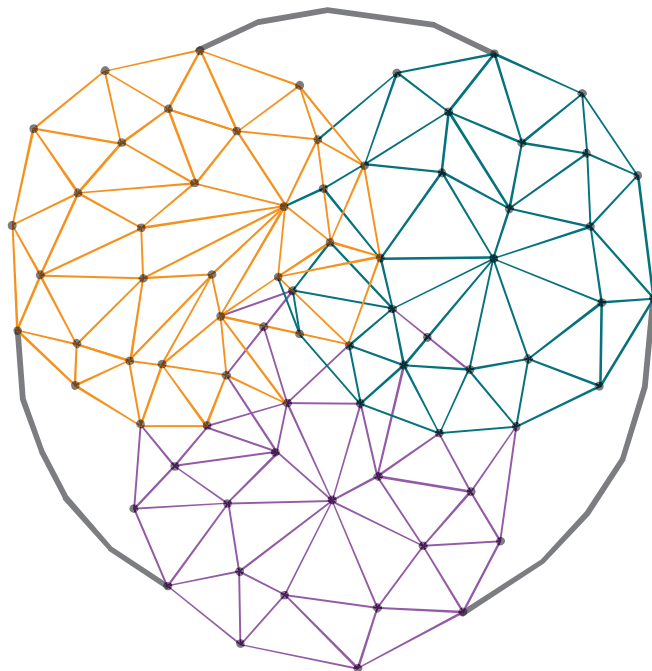
Digital and information security: The protection of online and offline data and infrastructure that could be exposed, such as websites, databases, servers and emails; also the protection of all channels of communication.

Self-care and well-being / psycho-social security: This involves the recognition of, and strategies for, the psychological and psychosocial impacts of the risks which staff and consultants of human rights organisations face related to the work they carry out. Indeed, the risks of burnout, unhealthy internal conflicts, and staff turnover as a result of untreated institutional conflicts are ever more of a risk to human rights organisations, as these organisations are often understaffed, underfunded, and working in dangerous environments.

A holistic approach can also include legal and financial security, as well as other aspects of security that relate to the local and regional contexts in which the organisations operate. It is important to recognise and integrate, to the extent possible, all these related aspects into the daily life, routines and response mechanisms of an organisation at risk.

Holistic Security

-  **Physical Security**
Threats to our physical integrity. Threats to our homes, buildings, vehicles.
-  **Psycho-social Security**
Threats to our psychological wellbeing.
-  **Digital Security**
Threats to our information, communication and equipment.
-  Holistic security analysis, strategies and tactics.





Security Strategies

Effective security strategies and plans must correspond to the specific political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental context in which we operate. As discussed in Section II – Explore, political threats arise from other actors whose interests are potentially affected by our work, and who are therefore intent on closing the socio-political space we enjoy to carry it out. A security strategy helps us identify tactics to engage with our opponents in order to maintain or expand this space. It's useful to think of three broad categories of security strategies:

Acceptance strategies involve engaging with other actors (allies, neutral parties and opponents) to foster tolerance, acceptance and ultimately support of our human rights activities in society. This is often carried out through advocacy, campaigning, diplomacy and education activities.

Protection strategies emphasise learning or implementing new methods and practices which focus on defending our space for work. This can also mean leveraging the strength of our allies for protection and to bridge gaps in our existing security practices.

Deterrence strategies focus on raising the cost of carrying out attacks against us or our work for our adversaries, be that monetary cost, reputational cost or otherwise. These strategies also depend heavily on advocacy, campaigning, diplomacy and education activities, and require us to have a well-developed actor map in order to know which allies can help raise the cost of attacks against us.

Source:

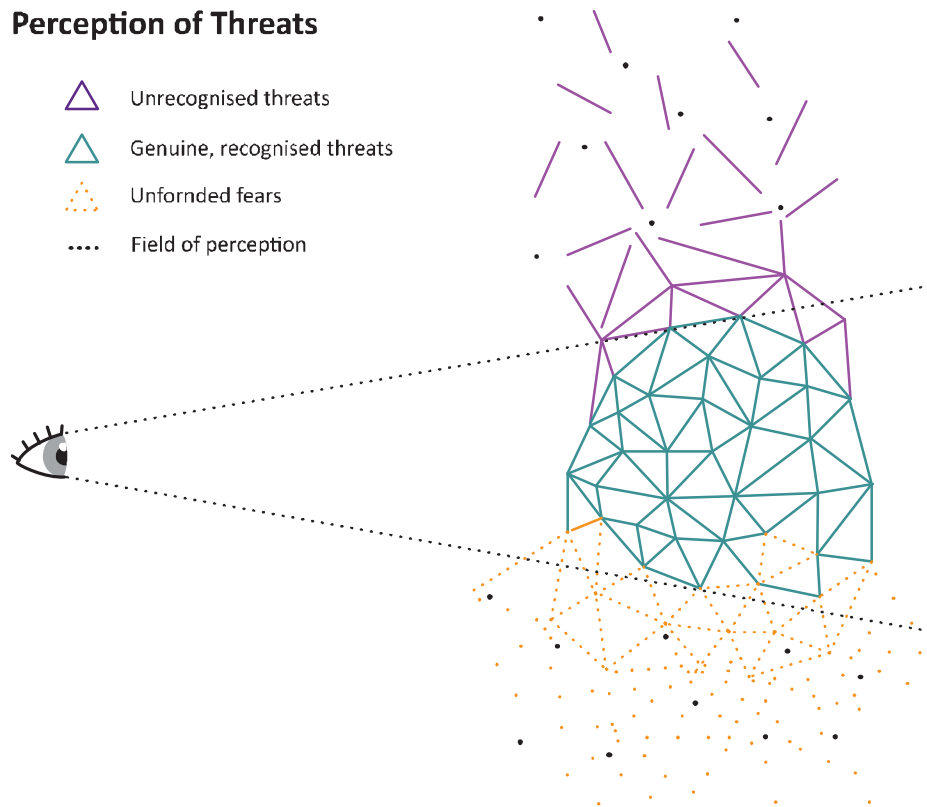
Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective

<https://holistic-security.org/chapters/strategise/3-2-building-new-approaches-to-security.html>

Psycho-Social Security / Emotional Well-Being

Individual Responses to Threat

Developing a useful security strategy is heavily dependent on our perception – we need to be able to identify and analyse threats in order to implement ways of avoiding or reducing them. But we all perceive the world around us differently based on our circumstances, experiences and many other factors. As a result, our perception can sometimes be hindered: threats which may be evident to some people may go unrecognised by others; similarly, we also need to be able to tell the difference between threats which are genuinely possible and those which we falsely perceive, called 'unfounded fears'. It's a good idea to become familiar with factors that condition our perceptions of threat, and consider ways that we can take these into account in our security planning.



Intuition and survival responses

Everyone has natural protection mechanisms which have developed through our evolution – many of these are operating even though we are not aware of them. A common example is intuition: when our intuition is signalling untrustworthiness or danger, it is often because we have picked up multiple, subtle indicators which alone do not identify a particular threat, but taken together strongly suggest that we may be in danger. This intuition often produces anxiety which leads us to either take direct action to protect ourselves, or seek out more information to establish whether we are in danger.

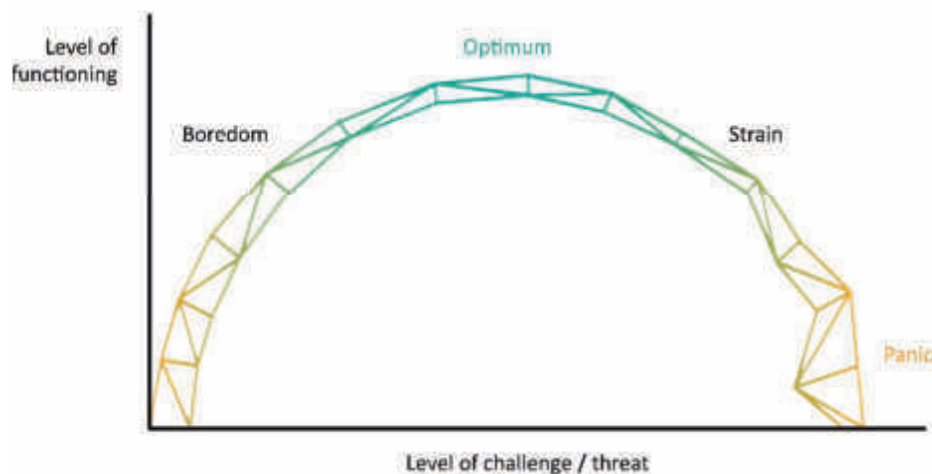
Depending on what we find out, this anxiety might develop into fear, triggering one or more survival responses. These survival responses – common examples include 'freezing', 'flight', posturing or fighting, among others -- often kick in when we feel we are in immediate danger, and much of our behaviour then becomes automatic, and more difficult to control. We become quicker, stronger, and more focused. As a result, these survival strategies are extremely effective in many circumstances. However, this is not always the case: it's important to recognise that we do not always have control over our reactions to immediate danger, and should be careful in assigning blame to ourselves or others for how we react in these cases.

The digital space

Even though you might only be beginning to develop your own organised approach to security, it is good to know that your natural survival mechanisms are already hard at work to keep you safe. However, there are times when our instincts are not trustworthy and we should exercise caution. The digital space – our computers, phones and other devices, and the systems that help them communicate – is often woven within the fabric of our offline lives but our abilities to detect digital threats are far less developed than our abilities to detect physical threats. Surveillance and harassment over the internet and mobile phones is often secretive and it can be difficult to perceive, prevent or pursue justice for it. We often fail to recognise these threats, or conversely we perceive threats which may not actually be there.

In order to better perceive and plan for these threats it is important to get a deeper understanding of how the technology we use daily works. Since human rights defenders are subjected to ever more sophisticated means of electronic surveillance and increasingly depend on digital tools to do their work, we need to recognise that our information is a valuable asset and grow our understanding of it: how and where it is stored, and who may have access to it. With this knowledge, we can then take action to protect our information and communication.

Stress Curve



Trauma, stress and fatigue

Finally trauma, stress and fatigue can all impact upon our perception and therefore on our ability to identify and respond to threats. If we have experienced very disturbing or traumatic events, our response to indicators of danger may be distorted. On the one hand, it can result in our overreacting – seeing danger where none exists; on the other hand, mental exhaustion as a result of trauma may mean we stop paying attention to such details and fail to identify real and present dangers.

The same goes for stress and fatigue, which can also affect our ability to realistically gauge the level of threat in our environment. Making a concerted effort to keep our work/life balance in check and being realistic about the amount of work we take on and the number of commitments we make can help us avoid becoming overwhelmed.

A certain amount of stress in our lives is normal – even healthy – and keeps us from becoming bored or depressed. But even though we can cope with higher levels stress for short periods of time, we become overwhelmed if such high levels persist. This can result in our becoming panicked, eventually despondent and possibly depressed.

As a result, developing a culture (both individually and as a group, organisation or movement) of stress management and self-care is fundamental to a holistic approach to security. Not only will this help to prevent threats brought about through long term exposure to stress and fatigue, but it will greatly aid critical thinking about security in general.

The following two exercises provide an opportunity to reflect on our experiences, including how we have perceived and reacted to threats in the past and how traumatic events may continue to affect our perceptions of danger in the present. Developing a better awareness of these makes it easier to establish tactics for keeping our perception 'in check' in the future, which is a key component of our security plan and process.

Source:

Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective

<https://holistic-security.org/chapters/prepare/1-2-individual-responses-to-threat.html>



The Stress Relief Table

Objectives

- Reduce the impact of daily strain or emergency stress on your body and your emotional well-being
-

Description

The Anatomy of a Message distinguishes between four sides of a message that are covered in any communication between a sender and receiver. The four sides are.

Course of Action

Step 1:

Trainer presents background info on stress relief table in which three levels of stress are captured, like on a traffic light:

GREEN = bearable, motivating stress. This kind of stress might keep us creative, but we may become tired more easily, need more breaks and know that we don't want to feel it for a long period of time.

YELLOW = unpleasant stress. With this level of stress we may feel tired and at the same time alert. We may manifest physical signs of stress (which vary from person to person). We will usually have a strong desire to change the situation which is causing this sensation.

RED = unbearable, profound and lasting stress. This kind of stress affects different spheres of our lives including our relationships at work, with our friends and family, and also our intimate relationships. This level of stress also reduces the pleasure and relaxation that we take from recreational activities, and we feel anxious and/or miserable. Our bodies show clear physical reactions, and we may feel close to collapse, and resort to unhealthy measures to stay alert, such as stimulants.

Step 2:

Individual reflection with the following task:

- Identify your personal indicators or symptoms for each stress level: How do you know that you are on this specific level?

Step 3:

Trainers share additional task for individual reflection:

- Identify actions you can take, to move down from red to yellow and yellow to green stress levels. Check, what resources you might need to implement these steps.

Step 4:

Finally participants are asked to reflect:

- How you want to use this Stress Relief Table in your normal routines:
-

	When do you want to look at it? Maybe, once you get a feeling of "I am getting stressed" or once a week? Also identify your personal rhythm of reviewing the stress table, so to know, how your perception of stress and your personal measures of stress reduction change over time and to adapt the Stress Relief Table accordingly.
Options / Variations	<p>After the individual reflection some more discussion in small groups or the plenary could follow.</p> <p>Instead of using the Stress Relief Table, you could frame a normal text document with the following categories:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Indicators for GREEN STRESS 2. (Negative) Actions that bring you from GREEN to YELLOW STRESS 3. (Positive) Actions that bring you from YELLOW to GREEN STRESS 4. Indicators for YELLOW STRESS 5. (Negative) Actions that bring you from YELLOW to RED STRESS 6. (Positive) Actions that bring you from RED to YELLOW STRESS 7. Indicators for RED STRESS
Time needed	<p>15 minutes for introduction and Q&A</p> <p>30 minutes for individual work</p> <p>Optional:</p> <p>15 minutes pair or group exchange on challenges of filling in the Stress Relief Table and how to deal with them.</p>
Material needed	Pen and paper
Handouts	The Stress Relief Table
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The Stress Relief Table is a very structured approach to very complex inner processes, which might not fit the participants' own approach. – It might be challenging to realise, how much we already accept ongoing stress or how little we know and practice to reduce stress effectively. – Also Self-care and well-being might not be valued in our communities as appropriate forms of activism. Countering this, the exercise should be framed empowering and leading to (more) sustainable forms of activism or peace work.
More Info	<p>Aluna: Keys towards Psychosocial Accompaniment</p> <p>Human Rights Resilience Project: Tools to Promote Mental Health & Well-Being for Human Rights Advocates</p> <p>CREA: Self-Care and Self-Defense Manual for Feminist Activists</p> <p>New Tactics for Human Rights Self-Care for Activists: Sustaining Your Most Valuable Resource</p>

Worksheet: The Stress Relief Table

	Indicators	Steps	Resources needed
GREEN	How do you recognise that you are on this stress level?	What are you doing to reduce your level of stress, or increase your ability to cope?	
	What exactly makes this phase different from the other phases?		
YELLOW	How do you recognise that you are on this stress level?	What are you doing to reduce your level of stress, or increase your ability to cope?	
	What exactly makes this phase different from the other phases?		
RED	How do you recognise that you are on this stress level?	What are you doing to reduce your level of stress, or increase your ability to cope?	
	What exactly makes this phase different from the other phases?		



Physical Security: Draw your Day

Objectives

- Raise awareness of physical threats in our daily lives (as activists)
 - Develop protection options against physical threats
-

Description

Physical security includes different areas of security like travel security, office security, home security, demonstration security, physical attacks and (sexual) assault and (sexual) harassment.

In this drawing exercise the participants reflect on a typical day of work and identify different physical threats and start exploring ways to protect themselves.

Course of Action

Step 1: Drawing

Participants are given a (half) sheet of flipchart paper each. They are given the following instructions:

Draw a typical, active working day for you in your activism, from when you get up in the morning until you go to sleep at night.

Please consider:

- When you wake up, and the rituals you have to start the day (e.g. where are you, who are you with, etc.)?
- When do you leave your home? Where is the first place you go? What do you take with you (e.g. mobile phones, handbag, etc.)?
- Where do you go, what does the journey look like? Who else is there?
- Think about where you are when you're working. Who are you working with? What devices are you using, if any?
- Do you eat or relax during the day?
- How do you get home? Or what do you do before you go home?
- What do you do in the evenings? When do you sleep?

Step 2: Individual Reflection

Identify the moments, when physical attacks might happen or other physical risks exist. Give them a symbol. For each of the risks or threats identify your protection measures to reduce their likelihood and / or their impact on you.

Step 3: Group Reflection

Share the risks and protection measures you feel comfortable with. Cluster your different responses to similar threats. Afterwards check

	individually, which of these options you need to include into your personal risk assessments and security plans.
Options / Variations	The exercise can be used to also focus on emotional well-being threats and measures as well as on digital security or other areas of security. The focus on different areas of security can also be sequenced throughout a workshop or training.
Time needed	Step 1: 15-30 minutes Step 2: 15-30 minutes Step 3: ca. 5 minutes per participant, minimum 20 minutes, maximum 60 minutes
Material needed	Flipchart paper and stand or pin board, meta cards, markers, pins or tape
Handouts	XXX
Strengths & Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Can be a good opening exercise for a more general reflection on security threats and practices + If sufficient time is given for step 3 (transfer into individual risk assessment and security plans) the exercise can motivate participants to create routines – If not sufficient time is given during step 2 (reflection on prevention measures) the exercise can be overwhelming and disempowering
More Info	<p>Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective</p> <p>https://holistic-security.org/ckeditor_assets/attachments/60/holisticsecurity_trainers_manual.pdf</p>

Digital Security

An organised holistic approach to security requires an organised approach to information and data management. Protecting our sensitive communication and data – the files we manage, our email and mobile phone communication, etc. – is now more important than ever. On account of the increasing use of digital technologies in human rights activities, our adversaries and the threats they pose have adapted to this new environment too. We must deliberately identify our sensitive communication and data and protect it, not only as a security measure, but also as an act of political self-empowerment.

The security in the digital area of our activism and work should at least include the following areas:

1) Security of our devices (phones, computers, tablets, etc.)

Device security is highly dependent on the kind of device you use and its capacities, here are only the main steps to keep it secure:

- Update your operating system and your apps as frequently as possible
- Encrypt your operating system
- Use secure passwords.

2) Security of our data (storage, etc.)

Data security involves the following practices:

- Classify your information to know, which information needs what kind of protection and how you can share and communicate it with others
- Create backup routines to prevent data-loss in case of technical failure or loss of devices.

3) Security of our communication (channels, apps, content, etc.)

Communication security includes all kind of email, messengers, video conferencing, file sharing, VPNs etc.

Selection of secure digital communication apps, tools and channels should be based on the following criteria:

- End-to-end encryption (E2Ee), or if only Peer-to-peer encryption available it is essential that it is hosted on trusted servers
- Open source code
- Jurisdiction of servers and ownership of platform
- Multi operating system usability or browser based
- Accessable documentation
- Active development and maturity of the platform
- Availability of independent security audits
- Connection options (identification via phone-number, email, username etc.)
- Verification of participants
- Option for self-hosting

Fundamental to all three areas are passwords and password-management. Using the same password for a long time and for various accounts is an exceptionally bad security practice. It is important to have multiple, strong, unique passwords!

For that matter we can recommend to use a password manager which creates and stores passwords safely. So you can use many different passwords for many different sites and services without having to memorise them – you only need to remember the master password for the password manager.

KeepassXC is an example of a password manager that is open-source and free. It can

- generate strong passwords that a human being would be unlikely to guess
- store several passwords (and responses to security questions) safely.
- protect all of your passwords with a single master passphrase or password

<https://keepassxc.org/>

More Info Digital Security First Aid Kit for Human Rights Defenders (Second Edition)
<https://www.apc.org/en/irhr/digital-security-first-aid-kit>

Security in a Box – Digital Security Tools and Tactics
<https://securityinabox.org/en/>

Digital Security Training for Activists and Journalists
<https://totem-project.org/>

Security Plans and Agreements

Once we have clarity about the threats we face during our activities, we can begin to organise our security protocols into security plans or agreements. These plans can be formal, written documents or informal, shared agreements, but either way they should be considered 'live' and subject to regular updating and review.

We can organise these plans and agreements according to any logic which suits us, such as by activity, by region in which we work, by person, by day of the week or by any other metric which corresponds to our way of working. However we organise our plans, there are some common elements which all good plans should include.

Elements of security plans and agreements

Most good security plans will serve one or both of the following purposes:

- **Prevention of threats:** These are tactics which aim to prevent identified threats from taking place (i.e. reducing their likelihood)
- **Emergency responses:** Also called contingency plans, these are the actions which we take in response to a threat becoming a reality. They generally have the aim of lessening the impact of the event, reducing further harm in its aftermath and deterring the aggressor (where there is one) from carrying out further harm.

For each of the threats we've already identified, we should usually have both preventative and response tactics in place (see Security Strategies). Below we explore in more detail what this can mean in different cases.

Prevention of threats

Many preventative tactics will reflect our strategies of acceptance, deterrence and protection (or self-defence). They may include advocacy campaigns or other forms of engagement with the public or civilian and military authorities in order to raise consciousness and acceptance of our work. Alternatively they may involve strengthening our ties with allies or other tactics which build our own capacities and agility.

Once implemented, these kinds of measures soon become a 'normal' aspect of our work and personal lives though they might take time to adjust to.

Emergency response

Even the best laid plans may fail. There are the moments when, perhaps due to rapidly changing circumstances, we experience an aggression or accident despite our best efforts to prevent it. Having emergency plans in place allows us to respond to security incidents in an organised manner and limit harm.

Emergency plans are usually very case-specific. Threats may – but need not always be – targeted; factors such as petty crime or natural disasters can seriously impact our work and

are common threats experienced by many human rights defenders, so it's important to have emergency plans in place for such eventualities if you consider that they pose a risk.

Some examples of simple may be having the contact details of a good lawyer on hand, agreeing on coded alert messages to send in case of an arrest at a protest, or simply having a first aid kit in the office in case of an injury.

Well-being and devices

It is vital to include tactics for our own well-being and for managing our devices and information. We should consider the actions we would take to maintain our physical energy and a mindful approach to our work and our security – e.g. scheduling where and when we eat, sleep, relax and enjoy ourselves and not forgetting that these elements are equally important. We should also consider the devices we depend on in order to carry out our work, and tactics to ensure that we are in control of who has access to our information and communications.

This example of a simple security plan for a human rights defender will give you an idea of what all of this may look like in practice.

As mentioned before, having solid, up-to-date security plans are a great accompaniment for our resilience and agility – but not a replacement for them. In addition to detailed analysis and planning we must also be prepared for the unexpected. Whilst security plans and agreements are important and useful tools, the ability to be agile and let them go if the situation requires it is equally, if not more important. Developing a sense of centeredness and calm is vital for when situations arise that we have not – or could not have – planned for.

When it comes to groups or organisations, the process of planning may involve a few extra steps to ensure group dynamics are not affected negatively.

Source:

Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective

<https://holistic-security.org/chapters/strategise/3-3-creating-security-plans-and-agreements.html>

Security in Groups and Organisations

Groups and organisations have complex internal dynamics and cultures which influence the ways we interact and plan for our security. This can be further complicated when we consider, as a group, the genuine possibility of unpleasant things happening to us in the course of our work. Security planning in a group can be stressful and emotional and fears about appearing overly concerned or paranoid are common. Practically speaking, it can also be difficult to carry out analyses in a group and come to agreements. For a security plan to be successful, everyone needs to be on board with it, but in groups this can be a tall order!

Here we'll explore some of the key issues around building and improving security strategies and plans within groups and organisations.

Creating and maintaining security plans

Once the group has carried out a risk analysis, there is a number of factors you can keep in mind when creating security plans:

- **Achieving buy-in:** Introduce your plan logically and talk your colleagues through each step. Security is an issue which can be very emotional and we all have different perceptions of it, meaning that talking about it is a subject which demands time and a safe space. Try not to scare people but do give them the facts and create a calm space for questions and concerns.
- **Participatory design:** Some people may not welcome a security plan which was decided upon without their consultation. High-risk activities and emergencies can be distressing and it's important that everyone is comfortable with the role they are assigned and has a space to express their concerns in advance if not. Try to get input from many people as you can while the plan is still in development.
- **Role-playing:** In some cases, it may be useful to design a role-play so that members of the organisation can practice how to respond to a certain situation or emergency. Nevertheless, exercise caution and make sure everyone is content to take part as role-playing can trigger emotional responses from people who have experienced trauma in the past.
- **Re-planning and consideration:** Remember that all security plans should be considered 'live' and should be re-evaluated and discussed regularly, especially when new members join the group. Include fixed dates to review your security practices and plans and make sure security is not an afterthought, but central to your strategic plan.

Emergency planning in groups and organisations

It is vital to have emergency or contingency plans in place as no preventative measures are 100% effective all of the time. When creating such a plan, consider these key elements:

- Definition of emergency: Decide what an 'emergency' is – i.e. the point at which we should begin to implement the actions and contingency measures planned. This is important as sometimes it will be unclear – if you imagine a scenario such as losing contact with a colleague on a field mission; how long would you wait before declaring an emergency?
- Roles and responsibilities: Assign each person a clear role that they are aware of and have agreed to in advance – this will reduce disorganisation and panic in the event of an incident. In the case of each threat, consider the different roles that you may have to assume and the practicalities involved in responding to an emergency.

Within this an important strategy for emergencies is the activation of a support network – a broad network of our allies, which may include friends and family, community, local allies, elements of the State, and national or international allies like NGOs and journalists. How can your allies support you? Should you contact them in advance to verify that they will be willing to help you in an emergency and let them know what you expect of them?

- Channels of communication: Coordinating a response to an emergency always involves coordinating actions so digital communication is increasingly important. Decide what the most secure and effective means of communicating with each actor is in different scenarios and identify a back-up means too. Be aware that for emergencies, it might be useful to have clear guidelines on:
 - ✓ what to communicate
 - ✓ which channels to use
 - ✓ to whom.
- Early Alert and Response System: This is a useful tool for coordinating our response to an emergency or an imminent high-risk situation. The Early Alert and Response System is essentially a centralised document (electronic or otherwise) to be opened in the event of an emergency which should be used to record all the details about the security indicators and incidents which have occurred on a timeline, provide a clear description of the actions and sequence for the planned response, and indicators to be achieved which will signify that the risk has once again decreased. It should also include after-care actions to be taken in order to protect those involved from further harm and help them to recover physically and emotionally.

The Early Alert and Response System provides useful documentation for subsequent analysis of what has happened and how to improve our prevention tactics and responses to threats in the future.

Improving organisational security management

Organisations have to consider security management and its implementation by managers, staff and volunteers as a process of consistent re-evaluation. It's a good idea to regularly evaluate the

extent to which our security strategy and plans are not only consistent with the context in which we're operating but also that they are accepted and implemented by our members. Read on to the next Chapter to learn more about assessing our security as an organisation.

Source:

Tactical Technology Collective (2016): Holistic Security. Trainers' Manual. Berlin, Germany: Tactical Technology Collective

<https://holistic-security.org/chapters/strategise/3-4-security-in-groups-and-organisations.html>



Annexes

Annexes



Case Studies

The following three case studies are offered for the practical application of the tools and exercises presented in this manual. These case studies entail all the info needed for applying in particular the conflict analysis tools (see chapter 3.5) as well for designing interventions (see chapter 3.6).

“Conflict over Land Rights in Bangladesh”

“Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Sri Lanka”

“Kampong Svay Area Development Programme in Cambodia”



Case Study “Conflict over Land Rights in Bangladesh”²³



Source: University of Texas Libraries

Information about the local context

1. Dinajpur district is situated in Rangpur division, on the northern belt of Bangladesh. Before independence of Bangladesh this North side has seen a big number of Hindu faith population owning lands. However, many Hindu families during the struggle for independence and thereafter migrated to India. They left behind acres of land to be used by people of all religious faiths who remained thereafter.
2. There are many minority communities who chose not to migrate and stayed back in the country. Dinajpur is one of the districts with a high number of people from minority communities. About 2,24 % of the district's population are minority communities²⁴. Santal community is one of the minority communities known as plain land ethnic community living in Dinajpur.

²³ This case study was compiled by Ruhi Naz in consultation with NETZ Bangladesh. It was designed specifically for application workshops. The case study is based on a real situation. But the exact location, other references and the names of people involved are intentionally not mentioned here. In order to protect the integrity of persons involved all names have been replaced by pseudonyms.

²⁴ According to census 2011 data (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dinajpur_District,_Bangladesh)

3. At the time of the conflict, 59 Santal families were living in the village along with 25 Muslim families. Santal families were all concentrated in one para i.e. neighbourhood. In Santal para, there are no schools, shops or markets. Therefore, the children of Santal community go to the same schools with children from the Muslim community. They participate at the school events, e.g. the annual sports and cultural programmes and celebrate commonly observed national days i.e. international mother language day, the Independence Day, Victory Day together at school. Members of Santal community also go to the same market where also members of the Muslim community come for their daily necessities like vegetables, food items, medicines etc. Besides celebrating their own religious and ethnic festivals, both Santal and Muslim community celebrate the Bangla New Year (14 April/1 Boishakh). Some of the Santal people also work together with members of the Muslim community in local shops, sawmills and rice mills.
4. The land in question, along with many other plots of land, was owned by Hindu zamindars, i.e. landlords, who left Bangladesh pre- and post-independence. At their departure they handed over several bighas of land (probably more than 200 acres as claimed by few journalists) to the people from Santal community who used to work for those zamindars. These transfer of lands by Hindu zamindars started taking place from 1962 through verbal agreements as well as - in few instances – through Pattan deeds, i.e. a formal transaction where landowner informally leases land to tenants and sharecroppers in return for payment of money.
5. The last transfers of land took place during 1971 and 1972 when the Hindu zamindars started leaving the country. During the conflict and chaos of the struggle for independence and the post-independent period, Santal people who had received ownership of those lands lost many documents which they had acquired through the transfer. But they continued to be in possession of the lands in most cases. At a later stage, through systematic deprivation and discrimination many of these Santal communities were evicted from the lands which they had occupied and used.
6. The disputed land is situated in a certain village in Dinajpur district. The Santal community living in that village claims to own and possess 19 acres of land through Pattan from a Hindu zamindar who transferred the land to them even before the independence war of 1971. But in 1972 S. Goni claimed ownership of the said land claiming he had received it through exchange with Hindu landowners who fled to India. Then in 1978 F. Khan claimed ownership of the 19 acres of land on ground of purchase from S. Goni. Santal community initiated a civil suit was against S. Goni and F. Khan. The suit is still pending. In 1980 one Union Parishad Chairman, i.e. elected Union Council, of the same union, M. Ahmed, claimed ownership of the land through purchase of the

same for his two sons from F. Khan. Therefore, in 1981 the Santal people filed another civil suit against M. Ahmed and his two sons, Jamil and Jinna claiming ownership of the land. Jamil protested against the civil suit as a falsely implicated case and tried to forcibly evict the Santal people from the land. M. Ahmed's sons were successful in grabbing 10 out of 19 acres of land, the remaining 9 acres remained under control of the Santal community.

7. From then on again and again the family of M. Ahmed attempted to harass and evict the Santal people from the land. In 2004, M. Ahmed informally spread rumours in the locality that he has purchased the 19 acre of land for his two sons Jamil and Jinna from S. Goni. He also claimed that Mr. Goni was the rightful owner of the said land and the documents of ownership of land are with him which he had obtained from Mr. Goni. This led to continuous disputes between the Santal people and M. Ahmed's family. The conflict used to peak especially before or after harvesting season every year.
8. The fact that some members of the local Muslim community supported M. Ahmed's family didn't help the situation much. The Santal community, however, insisted that when they initiated the civil suit against the unseen S. Goni and F. Khan, M. Ahmed had been the Chairman of Union Parishad at that time. They sought his help in pursuing the suit and gave all the legal documents in their possession to M. Ahmed for the purpose of inspection. But M. Ahmed took the opportunity and used the documents entrusted to him to create new forged ones to claim ownership of the disputed land. For this reason, the Santal community argues, they do not have the legal documents which prove their title to the land. Some documents, they said, were destroyed during the Liberation War in 1971, the rest were stolen and forged by M. Ahmed.
9. Bickering and sometimes clashes regarding the disputed land were constantly happening between the Santal community and M. Ahmed's family. On 24 January 2015 the situation culminated when Jamil and Jinna along with their muscle-men intercepted some Santal people who were on the land for cultivation. This time, the local goons intercepted with the intention to finally establish possession on the land. The Santal community, however, had received some information before and was prepared and equipped with hand made weapons, e.g. bows and arrows, spears. During the scuffle unfortunately the son of Ahsan was injured by an arrow thrown by the a member of the Santal people and later died.
10. Angered by this death the local Bengali Muslim community totally turned against the Santal living in the area. The local and religious leaders also turned against the Santal community because of the death of the Muslim boy. The incident also triggered anti-advashi sentiment among local employers. Almost 4,000 people from adjacent villages

gathered to attack the members of the Santal community living there. They attacked and beat whoever they could find, including women and children, destroyed their houses, looted their belongings including cattle, and burnt their crops.

11. Following the murder and the subsequent attacks, counter cases were filed. The Santal community filed cases for attacks, looting and robbery against local inhabitants including M. Ahmed's family. His family filed case of murder of a minor against the Santals. There were altogether 4 counter cases filed between the disputing parties on the day of the incident. The Santal community paid a sizeable amount of money to their lawyer. He was also in court during hearing but could not bring any positive result for them.
12. Immediately after the incidents, law enforcement agencies and police visited the locality and stopped the ongoing confrontation by applying force. The law enforcement agencies conducted some deeper inquiry and determined that members of the Muslim community had attacked members of the Santals many times after the first tragic incident and death of the boy. Therefore, a small team of police staff from the local police station was instructed to ensure security of the Santal community as well as to control the instable situation for the next seven months.
13. The Upazila Nirbahi Officer – UNO, sub-district level Senior Assistant Commissioner and the Assistant Commissioner Land (AC Land) also visited the area a few days after the incident. They met with leaders from both Santal and Muslim communities and assured both for providing support.
14. After their visit, the local and religious leaders took the UNO and AC Land to their office and entertained them. The UNO and AC Land both were transferred to other locations one year after the incident and could not continue their support to the two communities. Local media also played an active role for some months immediately after the incident. Journalists visited the area and published news regularly for about half a year, highlighting the destruction and violence against the Santal community, their fears, their crisis.
15. The local Adivashi leaders met the Union Parishad Chairman and asked for support. He could not play strong role to mitigate the conflict but provided relief support to the Santal community. The national Adivashi leaders along with some local adivashi leaders then met with the local Member of Parliament (MP) to request his support. The MP assured the Adivashi leaders that the government is committed to provide special care to the minority people in the country. Therefore, their – the Santal community's - interest would be seriously taken care of.

16. Later, the local MP along with some of the members of 'parliamentary caucus on indigenous affairs' visited the area. They met the Santal leaders and assured them that they would get justice. After meeting with the Santal community the local MP and the members of parliamentary caucus visited Mr. Ahmed's family, took lunch there and went back to Dhaka. They never returned to the village. Neither the Santal community nor the Muslim community received support openly. However, the local Muslim leaders have regular communication with the local MP.
17. Since the attack assistance and support extended to the Santal community came from community-based organisations (CBOs), local non-government organisations and international organisations which were used to work at that locality. Local NGOs and INGOs visited the area, INGOs provided relief support to the Santal community to repair and rebuild destroyed houses and replace belongings that had been looted. The local NGOs along with the police and CBO members tried to initiate some settlement and organised arbitration meetings several times inviting representatives from both communities. But these efforts were not successful.
18. Negotiation attempts were initiated again by local NGOs, community based organisations and police in 2019 and 2020. Still today, the situation in the locality remains tense. Presently due to a court injunction in place both parties refrain from using the land in question. Yet, it is expected that as soon as one party starts cultivating the land again there will be reoccurrence of fighting. Both Santals and Muslims living in the village do not trust each other. The cases filed in court are still pending.



Case Study “Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Sri Lanka”²⁵



Information about the overall context

1. About 20 million people with varied ethnic, religious and cultural backgrounds who mostly draw their origins from South India are living on the island of Sri Lanka. The Sinhalese (74%) are predominantly of Buddhist faith. The Tamils form the biggest minority with 17%. They are divided into so called Sri Lankan Tamils (11%) and Indian Tamils (6%). Most Tamils are Hindus, but many are Muslim or Christian. There are as many Sinhalese as Tamils among the Christian population (7%) in Sri Lanka.
2. Some 8% of Sri Lanka’s population, called “Moors” (still reflecting European colonial language), are predominantly followers of Sunni Islam²⁶. They are descendants of immigrants from Arab countries, Indian Muslims, Malayan minorities or (converted) local Muslims. Compared to many among the other peoples of Sri Lanka who have traditionally tended to be monolingual, Moors are much more at home with Sinhala, Tamil and sometimes moreover with English. Finally, smaller ethnic groups such as the “Burghers” (of mixed European descent) and the indigenous Veddah are rapidly declining.

²⁵ This case study was compiled by Karen Johne in consultation with the Consortium of Humanitarian Agencies (CHA). It was designed specifically for application workshops.

²⁶ The majority of people in Sri Lanka are using the term “Muslim” as a religious as well as an ethnic term to describe the Moors.

3. Most Tamils and Muslims are living in the northern and eastern regions, but there are also sizeable Tamil and Muslim communities in Western and Central Province, Colombo and other southern urban areas. The Sinhalese predominantly live in the southern regions and central highlands of the island, although there is also a large Sinhalese minority in the East.
4. Before colonisation, regional dynasties ruled different parts of the island, e.g. a Tamil-based dynasty in Jaffna or a Sinhalese one in Kandy. The coastal areas of the island were first controlled by the Portuguese and later by the Dutch. When the island was ceded to the British in 1796, the whole island was united under a single administration for the first time.
5. During World War I, the first national movements arose. Their failure has been attributed to disputes between Sinhalese and Tamils. In 1948, Ceylon became independent with a government dominated by the Sinhalese elite. A clause, demanded by the Tamil side to protect minorities' rights, did not find its way into the constitution.
6. After winning the general elections with its programme of Sinhalese-Buddhist nationalism, the SLFP (Sri Lanka Freedom Party) passed the "Sinhala Only" Act in 1956, which proclaimed Sinhalese the official language of Ceylon. Conflict researchers trace this back to the experience of the Sinhalese during the colonial age, in which the Tamils received advantages within the British colonial administration under its principle of "divide and rule".
7. Sinhalese nationalism goes back to the British period, when it was part of a broader anti-colonial movement, accentuated by Buddhist revivalism. It grew stronger with independence as a unifying force within a society strongly divided along caste, class and political lines. When Ceylon became the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka in 1972, a constitution was passed under the increasing influence of the Buddhist monks (Sangha) in state affairs, which established Buddhism as the de facto state religion.
8. Tamil demands for non-discrimination and equal status for their language and culture increased. After a nonviolent struggle for their rights, these demands were radicalised and transformed over the years into demands for independence and self-government in the areas where the Tamils are the dominant community. The killing of 13 soldiers by the LTTE (Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam²⁷) in 1983 and the following massive anti-Tamil pogroms which claimed over 3,000 lives are seen as the beginning of the civil war and also as the beginning of large-scale displacement. Thousands of Muslims, Sinhalese and Tamils came as refugees to India, Europe and other countries of asylum, but most were displaced within the country.
9. The armed conflict for power-sharing between the government and the LTTE has been perceived as the dominant feature of the civil war in Sri Lanka. However, there are other

²⁷ The areas in the north and the east of Sri Lanka are traditionally called "Tamil Eelam" by the Tamils. Likewise, Tamil separatists are using the name as a synonym to the state which they aspire to create in these areas.

conflict lines as well. One of them is linked to long time state discrimination and marginalisation of Muslims, which has led to new discourses of ethnic identity and homeland concealing intra-Muslim divisions. Moreover, the Muslim community was particularly affected by the civil war, because many Muslims live in the Northern and Eastern Province, in the crossfire between the government army and guerrilla warfare.

10. Since the early 1990ies Muslims have been targets of ethnic cleansing, forced displacement and massacres particularly practiced by the LTTE. The Tigers gained control over the Tamil-dominated areas in the north and east of Sri Lanka, expelling a large proportion of the Muslim population of Jaffna in 1990, although both communities shared the same culture and language. After warnings were issued to their communities, Muslims in other Tiger-held areas also fled.
11. The LTTE forcibly evicted 75,000 Muslims from the Northern Province. Most of them now reside in the western Puttalam District, resulting in significant demographic changes and social challenges. The overall population of Puttalam District increased about 10%. An IDP survey conducted in April 2002 by the Ministry of Rehabilitation, Resettlement and Refugees and the UNHCR recorded a total number of 68,156 IDPs, 93.3% of them are Muslims.
12. Peace negotiations in 1985, 1989 and 1994 failed. New hopes for peace arose when a ceasefire agreement (Memorandum of Understanding) was signed in 2002 by the government and the LTTE under the mediation of Norway²⁸. The international community pledged aid for rehabilitation and reconstruction and around 800,000 IDPs received assistance from the government. But the ceasefire agreement did not contributed to end the displacement of people for several reasons, e.g. on-going ethnic violence against Muslims in the Eastern Province, Jaffna peninsula contaminated by land mines, restrictions on fishing, land occupied by armed forces or other IDPs. Furthermore, a “shadow war” between LTTE and paramilitaries escalated after the LTTE’s eastern commander defected to the army in 2004. At the end of 2004, the Indian Ocean tsunami heavily affected the northern, eastern and southern coast when about 30,000 people were killed.
13. About half of the Sri Lankan population lives under the absolute poverty line with an average income of less than 2 US\$ per day. In 2001, Sri Lanka faced bankruptcy, with debt reaching 101% of GDP. One reason was the boost of the defence budget from 48 billion rupees in 1999 to 80 billion in 2000. Some 85% of Sri Lanka’s industries are located in the Western Province, mostly around Colombo. Apart from industry related to the processing of natural resources, some garment factories have been established. Services are the biggest sector of GDP, agriculture takes second place. However, most businesses are small-scale and primarily aim at daily services for the local population.

²⁸ The Muslim leaders have never been a party to any of the negotiations between Tamil and Sinhalese leaders to represent their concerns in a formal way, although, one third of Muslims live in the conflict-affected areas.

Information about the local context

14. The ethnic composition of the Puttalam area is 73.3% Sinhalese, 18.6% Muslims, and 6.3% Tamils. Puttalam has always been a multi-ethnic district. There are historical reports of a Tamil community living in Udappu, a traditional Tamil fishing and shrimp farming village since 1430. There has been a 100% increase of the Muslim population since 1990 because of the migration of IDPs from Mullathivu and Mannar.
15. Puttalam is still one of the poorest districts in the country. One reason for this is corruption at the local government level. An estimated 25-30% of the people in the district live in thatched houses.
16. The main livelihoods of the area are paddy cultivation, livestock, fishing and small-scale enterprises. Other sources of income include remittances from women of the community working in the Middle East.
17. The soil is good for agriculture in many areas but the lack of water prevents large scale cultivation from taking place. Currently there are 16 irrigation projects being carried out to improve conditions for paddy cultivation. The clay in the Arachchikattu area has the potential to be used for brick-making. This requires a government permit, but these permits are hard to come by and not always made available; the reason cited for this is “environmental problems”.
18. There are a few development institutions/organisations working in the Puttalam area.
19. IDPs were forced to move out of their homes in the North and East of Sri Lanka due to the conflict and many have resettled in Puttalam. An estimated 40-50% of the IDPs do not want to return to their original homes. There are 42 IDP settlements. The four areas where the camps are located are Mundalama, Vanathavillua, Kalpitiya, and Puttalam town. One of the main problems faced by the IDPs is that their former homes and land are being occupied by others, preventing them from returning, in addition to the insecure situation prevailing in those areas.
20. Local institutions are caught up in a difficult situation. They are forced to provide basic infrastructure such as shelters, water and sanitation facilities for IDPs on humanitarian grounds. They do this despite the perception that when things are provided it would be harder to convince the IDPs to return to their original homes.
21. The presence of IDPs poses some other socio-economic challenges, e.g. IDPs undercut the wage-labour market by working for lower rates than the locals.
22. Displaced people have started to buy land (approx. 8-10 perches or 200-250 square metre) and started building homes with the assistance they receive from the government. Some areas have developed as a result with shops, schools, bus and railway stations, and Mosques being built in the resettlement areas. One example is Nagavillu – because of the new settlements and the increase in population due to the influx of IDPs, the Nagavillu area is more developed than older areas such as Palavi Junction.

23. There are still original inhabitants who live in rural areas and don't even have access to roads. They subsist by collecting and selling firewood. This income is not always sufficient for their needs. It is also not a very steady source of income. They risk injury and death from snakebite while collecting firewood. Their lives are very difficult. In contrast the new settlers are living close to the main road where they have easy access to many services: "They can get a bus any time of the night".
24. In 2002, the peace negotiations on the national level also had an impact on the area. The MoU (Memorandum of Understanding) created the opportunity for some IDPs to return to their homes, but they were not able to because their homes were occupied by encroachers. Some don't want to return at all because they are settled well in Puttalam. Some leave one family member behind and go back to their former homes, but they always seem to return with money or anything they can salvage from the space/land.
25. As a result there is a lot of tension between the IDPs and the 'host communities' – the original inhabitants of the district. Many disputes begin as personal confrontations but they quickly escalate.
26. Examples of inter-communal conflicts that have arisen include disputes between rival three-wheeler stands and even the payment for bottles of soft drink. These conflicts often have an ethnic dimension and some people exploit them for their own ends. Politicians are often seen to become involved in these situations and tend to take advantage of them for political point scoring.
27. It is quite difficult to resolve some of these inter-communal conflicts. However, a number of institutions get involved in local level dispute resolution. In particular, the local government (District Secretariat), Pradeshiya Sabha (Sinhala for 'Regional Council') members, police as well as civil society actors like NGOs and CBOs get involved as mediators.
28. In one case a community based water project was established for the IDPs and the locals protested against it. Later, a 'peace committee' was involved in resolving the dispute at the local level.
29. Peace committees have been formed to deal with many such conflicts. They involve organisations and institutions like CHA (Consortium of Humanitarian Agencies), VCF (Vanni Cultural Foundation), the Grand Mosque in Puttalam town and other respected community leaders.
30. Most of the international NGOs have pulled out from this area concentrating instead on tsunami affected areas. However, CARE International and World Vision are still working in a few selected areas.
31. All the donors are focusing on the IDPs and not enough attention is paid to the local population. Some of the original households are poorer than the IDPs.



Case Study “Kampong Svay Area Development Programme in Cambodia”²⁹



National Context

1. Cambodia, or Kampuchea, has a rich history that includes the Khmer Empire which ruled much of Southeast Asia from the 9th to the 13th century. In the 12th Century the Khmer Kingdom built Angkor Wat, which remains the world’s largest religious building and is Cambodia’s most prized national symbol. However, beginning in the 1860’s, Cambodia was colonised by the French for 90 years, occupied by the Japanese during World War II, used by the North Vietnamese for guerrilla bases during the Vietnam war, and bombed repeatedly in a secret campaign by the USA.
2. Since the genocidal Khmer Rouge regime that killed over two million people from 1975-1979, Cambodia has suffered eleven years of foreign communist occupation by Vietnam, civil war, political occupation by the United Nations, violent democratic elections, numerous coup attempts, and finally, ongoing reconstruction of Cambodian society in the midst of significant communal violence.

²⁹ This case study was written by Bill Forbes. Bill Lowrey revised and tested the case study and the facilitation notes. We thank World Vision for granting the permission to use the case study for teaching the concept and use of Do No Harm. The people, locations, and actions in this case study are fictional. However, the case study is based on real situations and programmes that WVC has observed during Conflict and Violence Assessments in 2004.

3. Cambodia is still one of the poorest countries in the world, with most social indicators among the worst in Asia. Almost all educated people were killed during the Khmer Rouge genocide and the schools were destroyed. Only about one fourth of those who lived during that period have a primary education. Today, no more than one third of the students are able to go to secondary school although the literacy level has reached approximately 80% in the urban settings. However, in the midst of these challenges, Cambodia is in the process of building its economy, its schools and a multi-party democracy under a constitutional monarchy, with significant progress in recent years.
4. While outright war has ceased since late 1999 (except for sporadic coup attempts), acts or threats of violence and power abuse, as well as rampant corruption, are a common factor in Cambodian politics at all levels. General disrespect of law and the weak judicial system has crippled the development of a strong civil society.
5. During a one-year political deadlock in the formation of a new government after recent elections, the police violently suppressed all forms of demonstration in Phnom Penh. The elections resulted in a continuing majority rule by the Cambodian People's Party (73 seats), who formed a coalition with FUNCINPEC Party (26 seats). The opposition party (Sam Rainsy Party) has 24 seats in the National Assembly, but was illegally denied any seats in parliamentary commissions.
6. At the community level, World Vision research in seven districts in 2004 shows that many community members live in fear and mistrust. This unrest is caused by many factors, including power abuse by local authorities, political party tension and corruption, land conflicts and land grabbing by the powerful, and resentment of foreign influence and illegal immigrants.

Background

7. Kampong Svay District is located in Svay Rieng Province, on the Vietnam border. It has a population of 55,000 people, and is divided into 8 communes, which are then further divided into 84 villages. The population of Kampong Svay district is estimated to be 84% ethnic Khmer (Cambodian majority), 11% ethnic Vietnamese, and 5% ethnic Chinese. The three major political parties are active in the district, although there is very little local violence between them.
8. During the campaigning period of the recent national elections, one Sam Rainsy Party activist was murdered on a Saturday night in Phnom Village, but police immediately stated this was a case of jealousy over a romantic love affair. The most significant challenges facing this district (as identified in the ADP Design process) are food insecurity due to repeated droughts and floods, limited income generating opportunities, health problems--especially for children, low quality education, and poor infrastructure (irrigation, roads, etc).

9. As part of the government system, there are Village Chiefs who were appointed many years ago by the ruling party — the Cambodian People’s Party (CPP), and Commune Chiefs who were elected in 2003. The Village Chief submits proposals to the Commune Chief for government programmes and services in their village, and so the Village and Commune Chiefs normally maintain close personal relationships in which they help each other. In the past, when there were difficult conflicts between families, they used to go to elders to help resolve them in a fair and wise way. Now, however, most people go directly to the Village Chief when they have disputes that they cannot resolve themselves.
10. As long as the Village and Commune Chiefs do not make the district or provincial government authorities angry, and as long as there are no local security problems, the Village and Commune Chiefs are quite free to do what they want. This structure has meant that there is considerable variation in the leadership styles, responsibilities and actions at the local level—some Village and Commune Chiefs are accountable and effective local leaders, but many use their positions to secure power, practice favouritism in the community, and build up personal resources.
11. The personal wealth of village chiefs is commonly evident by the chief having one of the largest homes in the villages.

Po Village

12. World Vision Cambodia works on transformational development through long-term, community-based projects called Area Development Programmes (ADPs). The mission of the organisation is “All Cambodians live in peace, justice and prosperity.” Kampong Svay ADP began in 2001, and is supported by funds from World Vision United Kingdom. ADPs independently design, monitor and evaluate their projects in consultation with the community and other stakeholders.
13. Kampong Svay ADP focuses its work on four communes in Kampong Svay District. Po Village is one of 40 target villages in Kampong Svay ADP. Most of the people in Po Village are Buddhist, but there are 2 groups of Christians that meet in homes. So far there are no apparent open conflicts between the Christians and the Buddhists. When the World Vision staff asked about this, the local people said, “We are all poor neighbours, and we can respect each other. And we help each other during harvest season.” In the recent national elections, the community voted 89% for CPP, 7% for Sam Rainsy Party, and 4% for FUNCINPEC Party.
14. The Village Chief is usually a fairly calm man, and tries to keep things calm in his village. He is not normally violent, but is known to be very biased to his relatives and friends. The families known to support FUNCINPEC or Sam Rainsy Party claim they do not get their fair share of government resources, and that the Village and Commune Chiefs keep most of the government funds for themselves, and then share them more with CPP families.
15. Some of the Sam Rainsy and FUNCINPEC families recently complained about this in the village, and in response some of their neighbours shared things with them and told them their suffering was really hard. People agree that corruption by the powerful causes trouble in the village, and jealousy and competition between families.

16. There are quite a few families moving into and out of this village, since it is near the border. Some of the older adults who lived through the war and occupation still harbour some resentment toward the Vietnamese. Most of the younger people wish to forget about those earlier times of national suffering and prefer not to talk about their painful history. In the past year, 12 very poor families have lost their land to local authorities through illegal land grabbing. 7 families lost their land to the Village Chief, and 5 to the Commune Chief. Most of these families had moved to the community in the past two years, and the chiefs claimed it was illegal for them to claim the land since they did not have official land titles. Most of these families left for Phnom Penh, with no plans of how to survive. Other villagers are afraid that the Village Chief will take their land next, and rumours are spreading that he is making people pay 20\$ for land titles, which is much higher than the official rate.
17. The villagers are very happy that World Vision chose to work in their village. All of the villagers are tired of war and poverty, and enthusiastic to see change and development in their village.

World Vision Cambodia's Programme: The Village Development Committee

18. Kampong Svay ADP plans and implements all of its activities in Po Village through the Village Development Committee (VDC). The reason WVC works through the VDC is that this is a democratically elected group (chosen by the local people), and therefore they say the VDC is independent from politics. Also, the VDC structure and role is formally recognised by the Ministry of Rural Development.
19. In addition, World Vision is committed to local capacity building for sustainable development, and so it tries to build the capacity of the VDC to lead the development process in the future. Finally, working through VDCs allows World Vision staff to cover a large geographical area, although it means their time in villages is limited. The Kampong Svay ADP staff are college graduates from the capital city of Cambodia - Phnom Penh, and don't normally stay overnight in the village.
20. The ADP tries to be very transparent and democratic in the selection process for the VDC. Each VDC is made up of 5 members, which are intended to serve a three-year term.
21. The following process was used in 2003 to elect the current VDC members:
 - ADP Staff drafted the following criteria for VDC Membership, after consulting with community members
 - Committed to the community
 - Able to read and write
 - Never been in prison
 - Not biased

- Person who villagers respect and love, and is friendly
 - At least 2 of the 5 must be women
22. The ADP Manager then gave the criteria to the Village Chief, and asked him to make a list of at least 15 Candidates who fit the criteria. The Manager reminded the Village Chief to not be biased, that the community members would choose the VDC members by public election, and that these people would be in place for at least three years. The manager suggested that the Chief talk openly with villagers about this as well, seeing whom they would like to nominate. The Village Chief agreed, and the next week the ADP Manager heard the Village Chief had actually asked some villagers who they thought would be good candidates.
 23. After the Village Chief submitted the list to the ADP Manager, the staff made posters listing the candidates' names, and announcing the election. These posters were put up throughout the village. They also wrote at the bottom "If you would like to add your name as a candidate, or nominate someone else to be a candidate, please just inform the Village Chief and he will add your name to the list." The Village Chief lived in the village, so it would be easy for people to inform him, and then he could inform the ADP Manager.
 24. Before election day, the ADP Staff and Village Chief informed people throughout the village of the date and time and put up reminder posters. They reminded the families with relatives far away in the rice fields to call their relatives to the meeting.
 25. The election was held at the home of the Village Chief, and was very open. The lists were printed on the walls. Everyone got two votes—one for a man and one for a woman. People were given 1 pink sheet of paper and 1 white sheet of paper. They then wrote a woman candidate's name on the pink one and a man's on the white one, and then walked to the front of the room to put the names in a ballot box. The Village Chief, 2 community members, and 2 WVC staff were present at the ballot box to make sure everyone voted according to the instructions.
 26. The votes were then counted together that night in the ADP office by the Village Chief, 2 volunteers from the village, the ADP Manager and one other ADP staff, to make sure of transparency.
 27. In the last election, the results were that a majority of the VDC supported the CPP, or Cambodian People's Party (4 out of 5). The WVC staff thought this was not a surprise or a problem, since most of the village also supports the CPP.
 28. The ADP went on to design its activities and plans with the VDC, and the Village Chief acted as the formal advisor of the VDC, as required by the Ministry of Rural Development. Also, the Village Chief and VDC leader had to approve the documents for all activity expenses (such as contracts for construction companies, etc). In order to maintain neutrality and transparency, the VDCs conducted open village meetings once per month at the VDC homes, not at the Village Chief's home.



Recommended Literature

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Recommended Websites

Beautiful Trouble

<https://www.beautifultrouble.org/>

In 2010, the year before the Arab Spring and Occupy Wall Street, 70 artist-activists from across North America and Europe decided to pool their collective wisdom — the result was the book *“Beautiful Trouble”*. It was so well received that the content of the book was published in an online toolbox under creative commons license so it could keep evolving alongside the movements it served.

Berghof Handbook for Conflict Transformation

<https://berghof-foundation.org/library/berghof-handbook-for-conflict-transformation>

The *Berghof Handbook for Conflict Transformation* offers a continuously updated online publication platform for both academics and practitioners to review the state of the art, discuss new ideas and exchange experiences in the field of conflict transformation.

Beyond Intractability

<http://www.beyondintractability.org/>

Beyond Intractability has been housed at the University of Colorado-Boulder since 1988 and directed by Heidi Burgess and Guy Burgess since May 2020. However, over 500 other people have contributed content to this website and related projects.

CDA Collaborative Learning Projects

<https://www.cdacollaborative.org/>

CDA is a non-profit organisation based in Cambridge, USA. It is committed to improving the effectiveness of international actors who provide humanitarian assistance, engage in peace practice, and are involved in supporting sustainable development. CDA has initiated the Local Capacities for Peace Project which led to the development of the Do No Harm-approach. Similarly it has organised the Reflecting on Peace Practice Project and the development of the respective tools.

Global Nonviolent Action Database

<https://nvdatabase.swarthmore.edu/>

The Global Nonviolent Action Database is a project of Swarthmore College, USA. It provides free access to information about hundreds of cases of nonviolent action, from all continents and most countries, for learning and for citizen action.

International Center on Nonviolent Conflict

<https://www.nonviolent-conflict.org/>

The International Center on Nonviolent Conflict is an independent, non-profit educational foundation that was founded by Jack Duvall and Peter Ackermann in Washington D.C., USA

in 2002. The ICNC promotes the study and utilisation of non-military strategies by civilian-based movements. It focusses on how ordinary people wage nonviolent conflict to win rights, freedom and justice.

KOFF – The Swiss Centre for Peacebuilding

<https://koff.swisspeace.ch/>

The KOFF platform is a meeting point between governmental and non-governmental peacebuilding actors to promote dialogue, capacities and knowledge and to strengthen synergies and coherence of Swiss peacebuilding approaches through strategic linkages between the different tracks and actors. The diversity of KOFF members provides the basis and legitimacy for its work.

KOFF applies a practice-oriented approach and integrates impulses from ongoing policy debates into the development of new tools and approaches to improve impact and results and better serve the practical needs voiced from the field.

Nonviolence International Tactics Database

<https://www.tactics.nonviolenceinternational.net/>

Understanding nonviolent tactics and methods is key to carrying out successful campaigns of civil resistance. This database is a collection of over 300 nonviolent tactics, or discrete methods deployed to achieve a limited goal, which will continue to be updated to reflect the ever-changing and growing field of nonviolence. Nonviolence International, directed by Michael Beer, has created this database by adding to Gene Sharp's original list of 198 nonviolent methods in order to provide an updated guide for modern nonviolent movements.

NONVIOLENT CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION MANUAL



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